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The Use of Translation in English for Specific Academic Purposes Classes in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

The use of translation in second language pedagogy has long been a topic of controversy, discussion and debate. Translation was omnipresent as a language teaching method, with its dominance well-documented in the scholarly literature concerned with foreign language teaching (Kelly, 1969). However, the end of the 19th century marked a watershed moment, which saw translation fall from grace owing to critics representing the Reform Movement, who voiced a chorus of disapproval of its excessive emphasis on the written form of language to the detriment of oral proficiency. This gave rise to a host of alternative teaching methods, e.g. the Direct Method, the Berlitz Method, and the Natural Method, prioritising the development of oral competence, which translation was thought to impede, and thus was only deemed attainable if second language teaching followed a monolingual approach. Consequently, much criticism, controversy and scepticism surrounded the use of translation, with the credo that English is best taught through English prevailing as an axiom that permeated the theoretical discourse, despite relying on assumptions rather than being evidence-based (G. Cook, 2010). Since the recent turn of century, however, a growing, revived interest in translation has been observed, in conjunction with a flurry of publications and academic research advocating a return to bi/multilingual teaching, so much so that it has been termed *the translation turn* (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2021).

Against this backdrop, this thesis seeks to explore the attitudes of Saudi university English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) teaching staff and students to translation, the purposes for which they use it and the factors leading to its use, in addition to investigating their actual use of translation in practice. A mixed-method approach, employing classroom observations, surveys and interviews, is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the topic under study. The results of the inquiry provide evidence of widespread use of translation in ESAP classes, despite the teaching staff being strongly in favour of an English-only approach. This offers yet another indication of the complex relationship between what teachers believe and what they actually do repeatedly reported in the literature, in this case concerning the difference between teachers' attitudes to the use of translation and what actually occurs in their practice. The findings further show an appreciation of the merits of translation among both teachers and students, which is primarily drawn upon when issues of students' low proficiency arise, as well as when teaching and learning complex ESAP vocabulary and grammar.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

EFL: English as a foreign language

ELT: English language teaching

ESAP: English for specific academic purposes

ESL: English as a second language

ESP: English for specific purposes

KSA: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

L1:   First language

L2:   Second language

MENA: Middle East and North Africa

PYP: Preparatory Year Programme

SLA: Second language acquisition

TILT: Translation in language teaching

In transcriptions:

T: Teacher

S: Student

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background

There has long been controversy surrounding the issue of whether translation should be used in the second language (L2) classroom. The debate, which has been rather intense at times, remains unsettled, with empirical evidence not being entirely persuasive either way thus far. The methodological and professional discourse concerning English teaching has long assumed that the best way to learn English is through English, which has in turn led to the exclusion of translation and the mother tongue altogether (Hall & Cook, 2014). Indeed, translation is proscribed in both the academic and professional literature on English teaching, which is 'informed by research and theories from linguistics, psychology, and the study of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)' (G. Cook, 2010, p.4). The reasons for this exclusion are believed to be pedagogic, cognitive and practical. However, at the time it fell out of favour, 'there was very little research or serious arguments to back up these beliefs' (G. Cook, 2010, pox). Over 25 years prior, Howatt (1984) shared a similar sentiment, contending that 'the practice of translation has been condemned so strenuously for so long without any really convincing reasons that it is perhaps time the profession took another look at it' (p. 161).

Historically speaking, the whole debate regarding the issue of translation in foreign language teaching was confined to arguments against the Grammar-Translation method, made towards the end of the 19th century. Translation was long associated with Grammar-Translation, an association which translation could not shake off, eventually leading to it being dismissed and vilified. Indeed, as noted by G. Cook (2010, p.156), 'the insidious association of translation in language teaching with dull and authoritarian Grammar-Translation', coupled with the insinuation that Grammar-Translation was of no benefit – with nothing good to offer at all – had negative repercussions for both translation and its development in language teaching as a whole. As a result, in the language teaching literature, criticism of Grammar-Translation extended to cover all forms of translation thanks to opposing arguments that 'suffer from the "straw man" fallacy where a particular and limited approach to translation is criticised' (Kerr, 2015, p.2). Advocates of the Direct Method, most notably Maximillian Berlitz, who developed his own version of the method, had a major influence on the way translation has been viewed and treated within language teaching circles. As Thomas (1992, p.90) noted, 'The ban on translating in language teaching almost certainly stems from the influence of the Berlitz school'. Proponents

of the method discouraged and indeed banned any reference to the first language (L1) as they believed a second language (L2) would best be learned in a fashion similar to the way one acquires the L1. That is, translation would stand in the way of a natural acquisition process, resulting in teaching English through English being the axiomatic approach.

Not only were the arguments made against translation not premised on evidence-based findings, but English-only is believed to be nothing but an axiomatic ideology with no basis whatsoever in empirical reality. In this regard, Kerr (2015) notes that research in support of an English-only approach is non-existent. Lately, however, the view that English is best learned and taught only without the use of the students' L1 has been scrutinised and increasingly questioned, thereby leading to a reassessment of teaching that relates the language being taught to the students' own language. The field of English language teaching is now witnessing a substantial movement away from the methods and ideas of teaching that have held sway for a very long time. This, combined with factors such as immigration and globalisation, has led to a growing recognition of the important role of bi/multilingualism in language teaching and in turn a major revival of interest in translation to the extent that it has been termed *the Bilingual Reform* (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009), *the multilingual turn* (May, 2014), and even *the translation turn* (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2021). The discernible shift in orientation is reflected in the growing research that provides support for bi/multilingualism across the scholarly literature and not least the emergence of new phenomena such as translanguaging. The signs of change are also evident in practice; translation was reintroduced in the Australian Curriculum for Languages in 2014 following 40 years of absence (Scarino, 2016), while the United Kingdom (UK), where translation is consistently present in language classrooms (e.g. Aberdeen, 2018), has recently included translation in the reading and writing sections of its GCSE examinations (Barnes, 2021).

Moreover, there is increasing acceptance that popular notions in English language teaching theory and research are not necessarily an accurate reflection of what actually goes on in today's classrooms around the globe (Hall, 2020). Indeed, theory and practice are two different things. Even in the strictest of monolingual classes, bilingual teaching 'has long been a reality' (Hall, 2020, p.66) and translation is still used by teachers told to exclude it, largely as a last resort when 'all else fails, which may be quite often' (G. Cook, 2010, p.3). However, despite the current movement in the field advocating bilingual teaching (e.g. Laviosa, 2022; McLaughlin,

2022; Pym, 2018), there remains inadequate empirical data to support the case for translation in English language teaching (Carreres, 2014). Furthermore, the substantial headway made in reinstating translation as a key tool in language education (e.g. Laviosa, 2020; Laviosa & González-Davies, 2020; G. Cook, 2010) is still facing similar challenges to those encountered over the past two decades, with further progress being impeded as 'some of the old misconceptions have lingered in some quarters' (Carreres, Noriega-Sánchez & Gutiérrez, 2021, p.1). The persistent ban on any reference to the L1 being a reality for many teachers and students in different contexts around the world, including Saudi Arabia (e.g. Almayez, 2022; Pearce, 2022; Al-Balushi, 2020; Bukhari, 2017), may serve as a good example of this last claim.

1.2 Significance and Aims of the Study

Despite a revival of interest in translation within language education circles since the turn of the century, there is still very little research investigating its use in English classrooms in the Saudi Arabian pedagogical context. Moreover, the role of translation in classrooms in which the academic content is arguably as essential as the language content – English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) – remains a largely unexplored area in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere. A thorough investigation of the relevant literature identified only two small-scale studies conducted in Saudi Arabian ESAP-focused contexts (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019; Rushwan, 2017).

This inquiry differs from previous research in several ways. First, this is one of the very few studies (except Baeshin [2016], for example) that has looked at the issue of employing translation in language classes using a mixed methods approach, exploring teachers' and students' attitudes and beliefs and comparing them with their actual practice. As the relationship between what teachers believe and what they do is complex, I chose to employ a triangulated approach rather than relying on one method to capture a fuller picture of their beliefs along with their practices. This is in contrast to a body of research within Saudi Arabia, which has been criticised for an overreliance on surveys alone, consequently lacking in-depth examination due to the well-documented limitations of the instrument, as noted by Moskovsky (2018). Second, this study investigated the use of translation in pedagogical settings in which the focus on SLA and subject matter knowledge is equally significant; research investigating the use of translation in this area is scant. Third, this research was carried out remotely from start to finish owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, which resulted in campus closure at the host university.

As such, the significance of this study lies in the fact that it is the first of its kind in Saudi Arabia and worldwide to look into the use of translation in virtual ESAP classes during unprecedented times. It is hoped that the findings of the research will contribute to the ongoing debate concerning the reintegration of translation in EFL settings. By offering in-depth insights into teachers' and students' attitudes and practices, the hope is that this study will fill empirical gaps and contribute to an area that has suffered from a dearth of research but is seeing a resurgent interest. Further, as this study gives voice to the students, it potentially has considerable value for language policymakers, language teacher educators and practising language teachers in terms of developing and employing teaching methodologies that produce the desired outcomes.

1.3 Translation in this Thesis

Reviewing the existing literature on translation, it would be fair to suggest that there is no unified definition, nor is there a consensus on whether a unified definition exists at all. Translation has been described as 'ambiguous' (Widdowson, 2014, p.224), 'complex and difficult to define' (Newmark, 1991, p.34), with G**.** Cook (2010, p.54) further noting that translation is 'often used without a definition' (see 2.6 for an extensive discussion). While the aim of this inquiry was not to engage in a discussion concerning the issue of the definition of translation, it is necessary to address how the nature of translation is understood as far as this thesis is concerned. This thesis adopts the broad term 'translation in language teaching' (TILT), proposed by G. Cook (2010), which acts as an umbrella term encompassing all forms of translation and at the same time ensures both consistency and clarity.

Thus, in this thesis, translation is not viewed narrowly as the advanced occupational practice of producing a written form translated from one language to another but also as a pedagogical device aimed at facilitating teaching and learning the L2 in a process that does not entail producing a text. Examples of this include, but are not limited to, the teacher eliciting or providing translations of L2 utterances in Arabic, the teacher translating to explain a grammatical point, a set of instructions, or to check comprehension, the students vocalising their translation of a particular term seeking the teacher's confirmation and the use of bilingual dictionaries. Further, translation will not be treated as a separate sub-area of L1 use: 'The two necessarily go together' (G. Cook, 2010, p.xix), since if own language use is to return to the classroom context, translation will always be one of the main ways it does so (G. Cook, 2010, p.xx). As such, any use of the students' L1 (Arabic), be it in the form of bilingual vocabulary

lists, flashcards, code-switching or translanguaging, will also fall under the rubric of translation in this broader sense. This broad stance is similar to that taken by other linguists and researchers (e.g. Huffmaster & Kramsch 2020; Kerr, 2015; G. Cook, 2010; Lavault, 1985; Hammerley 1982).

Adopting this broad notion of translation is also deemed advantageous as far as the future of translation in language education is concerned, since restricting the definition to the form implemented in Grammar-Translation, 'which revolves around the direct translation of standard written language', would be 'problematic' (McLaughlin, 2022, p.5). As such, this broader conceptualisation of translation allows 'for a far wider range of texts and of translation practices to be included, which opens up the possibilities for translation serving as a tool, methodology and goal of language education' (McLaughlin, 2022, p.5).

1.4 Research Aims and Research Questions

This study aimed to investigate the attitudes of teachers and students concerning the use of translation in ESAP. A central aim of this study was to gain an in-depth understanding of individuals' attitudes towards and actual use of translation within an ESAP-focused environment. The study also sought to investigate the purposes for which translation was employed, the factors leading to its use, and whether the enforced shift to remote education owing to the COVID-19 pandemic affects attitudes to and practices of translation relying on the experiences of the ESAP teaching staff before and then throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. Guided by that purpose, the inquiry sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How is translation used by teachers and students in ESAP?

RQ2: What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP?

RQ3: What factors influence teachers' and students' use of translation in ESAP?

RQ4: What are teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP?

RQ5: Do teachers' attitudes and reported behaviour match their actual practice?

RQ6: Do teachers report differences in attitudes towards translation and its use due to the shift to online teaching because of the COVID-19 pandemic?

1.5 Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is an Arab Muslim country situated in the southwest of Asia (see Figure 1.1). It is the largest country in the Middle East. Only Algeria is larger across

the whole of the Arab World, also known as the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. The KSA territories amount to nearly 80% of the whole Arabian Peninsula (General Authority for Statistics 2019), thereby enjoying a strategic location, connecting the Kingdom to Europe, Asia and Africa and giving it political and economic importance. Moreover, Saudi Arabia is the birthplace of the religion of Islam and is home to the two holiest cities of Islam, Makkah,[1] identified as Mecca on the map in Figure 1.1, towards which more than two billion Muslims pray and make pilgrimage, and Medina, the final resting place of Islam's prophet Muhammed. This gives the country added weight and rather considerable significance across the Islamic and the wider global community.

The nation state of Saudi Arabia was established in 1932 by King Abdulaziz bin Abdelrahman Al-Saud, a member of the House of Saud. Arabic is the KSA's official language, Islam is its official and sole religion and the Quran, the holy book from God, is its constitution (Basic Law 1993). In the very early years following its foundation, Saudi Arabia was a poverty-stricken state; at the time, camel trading was the main industry throughout the country (Fadaak & Roberts, 2019, p.8). The situation, however, took a dramatic turn for the better as far as the Saudis were concerned when oil was first discovered in Saudi Arabia's eastern territory in 1936. The country has gone on to become the world's biggest producer and exporter of oil and the world's reliance on petroleum has led to Saudi Arabia becoming a state of great affluence (Peterson, 2020, p.1). Indeed, Saudi Arabia was named the richest country in the Middle East in 2014; only Qatar and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) are richer across the Arab world today according to recent figures (Global Finance, 2022). The main cities in Saudi Arabia are Riyadh, the capital, Jeddah, the main port on the Red Sea, and Dammam, a main port on the Arabian Gulf and a major centre for the Saudi petroleum industry. Makkah, where this research was carried out, and Medina are equally important cities given that they are the most sacred places in Islam.

The country, which is an independent monarchy, has a population of 34.1 million, 63.6% of whom are Saudi nationals, with non-Saudis accounting for 36.4% of the total population according to the most recent official figures provided by the Saudi Arabian General Authority for Statistics (2021). The native people – the Saudis, less frequently termed Saudi Arabians –

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[1] Although universally spelt and known as Mecca, the Saudi Arabian government, via a royal decree in 1980, recognised Makkah as the correct spelling.

are all Muslim and predominantly Arab (90%), the rest (10%) being of Afro-Asian ethnicities (Central Intelligence Agency [CIA], 2022). As such, the culture and traditions of Saudi Arabia have been shaped by Islamic teachings and heritage and the society is almost homogeneous. Most expatriates are Arab, hailing from Egypt, Jordan and Sudan, and thus are able to communicate in the same language and adapt to a relatively similar culture, which is also largely shaped by the same religion (Peterson, 2020, p.4). However, non-Arab and non-Muslim communities are also present in large numbers, with most being from Pakistan, India and the Philippines, while the Western contingents are predominantly American, British and European.

In addition to the massive population, the country sees a huge influx of visitors throughout the year as it is 'the Land of the Two Holy Mosques'. This is particularly the case during key points in the Islamic calendar, such as Ramadan (the month of fasting), Eid ul-Fitr (the Festival of Breaking the Fast) and Hajj (the Annual Pilgrimage to Makkah). In this regard, Alhawsawi (2013) notes that 'visitors expect communication to be in English and Arabic, so the learning and teaching of English plays a huge part in the global trade associated with the Muslim tourists' (p.24).

Figure 1.1. Map of Saudi Arabia (Wikipedia)

1.5.1 Education in Saudi Arabia

The enormous wealth that poured into the country due to its huge oil revenues has been to the benefit of the domestic sector, including education, which has especially received considerable attention and financial investment from the government since the 1960s (Fadaak & Roberts, 2019, p.86). Given that Saudi Arabia is the birthplace of Islam, one of the main messages of which passed on by Mohammed was for people 'to seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave', the government recognises the importance of education in policy and practice. As a result, the Saudi government has set up an education system that offers free education to all and at all levels.

The education system follows a structure akin to a host of countries in the Arab world and elsewhere, including the United States (US): it comprises 6 years at elementary level, 3 years at intermediate level and a further 3 years at secondary school, followed by a 4-year minimum period of tertiary education. Preschool education (kindergarten and nursery) is also available in Saudi Arabia but is mainly provided by the private sector; the Ministry of Education (MoE) deems this an informal educational stage. Preschool services are mainly provided in large cities for fees that not everyone finds affordable; these are therefore unpopular in Saudi Arabia (Al-Johani, 2009). It is worth noting that education in Saudi Arabia is segregated, so co-educational institutions do not exist. In this regard, Saudi Arabia is only one of a handful of countries that follow a single-sex education system; Jordan, Bahrain and Iran also segregate students based on gender (Fryer & Levitt, 2010). Gender segregation in education within Saudi Arabia could be ascribed to Islamic beliefs and principles, in addition to cultural norms and traditions (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Notwithstanding gender segregation, the quality of education and educational facilities provided to both sexes are the same (Al-Johani, 2009).

Young people in Saudi Arabia are encouraged to pursue higher education and the government provides help by offering free education, free housing, free health services, free meals and free books (Al-Johani, 2009). Not only is education free of cost at university level, but full-time students are also paid a monthly allowance of SAR 1,000 (almost GBP 180) throughout their years of study. Students can also apply for fully funded scholarships if they wish to continue their studies at leading educational institutions in different parts of the world. A primary aim of the education system in Saudi Arabia is to ensure that students are optimally prepared to join and contribute to the modern-day workforce. Capitalising on its immense petro-wealth, the country also aims to invest in the education of young people to build a highly knowledgeable, educated nation.

Among a host of steps taken towards achieving its aims, Saudi Arabia introduced a scholarship programme in 2005, funding the studies of many Saudi nationals at prestigious institutions overseas. No country spent more on education than Saudi Arabia in 2013, when government funding for the education sector amounted to 10% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP) (Arab News, 2013). Today, in 2021, the education sector still has the biggest piece of the pie as far as the country's budget allocation is concerned (Arab News, 2021). Moreover, the country invested over GBP 43 billion in education in 2015, most of which was focused on

scholarship programmes and building new educational facilities and research centres domestically. In 2017, Saudi Arabia had up to 147,000 students studying abroad at a cost of nearly GBP 22 billion. Most of the financially sponsored students were enrolled in higher education in the US, the United Kingdom (UK) and Australia (MoE, 2022). The scholarship programme has only been in effect for less than two decades, but the endeavour has already paid substantial dividends, especially in the 'academic domain where one can observe not only a considerable expansion of the Saudi university sector but also a very strong growth in academic research and publications' (Moskovsky, 2018, p.1).

1.5.2 English instruction in Saudi Arabia

English has long been the only foreign language taught across all Saudi Arabian educational settings. It was first introduced in Saudi schools in 1937 – a year after the discovery of oil in the kingdom. At that time, French was also taught alongside English for a few decades but was removed from curricula in 1970 via a Royal Decree. The reason for this is unclear, as is the reason for introducing English as the primary language taught in the country, as reported in studies focused on the history of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia (Barnawi & Alhawsawi, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2005; Al-Hajailan, 1999). Saudi Arabia has never been colonised or ruled by an English-speaking regime, but the discovery of oil and the ensuing strong alliance built with the US and the wider Western world may have led to English being viewed as a necessary tool in terms of international relations and global trade. There is also the possibility that the main rationale for introducing English in the Saudi curriculum was to spread the Islamic creed worldwide; as already noted, Islamic teachings encourage followers of the religion to learn other languages, including English, for this purpose (Alhawsawi, 2016). Indeed, Article 50 of the Saudi educational policy states that students shall learn at least one foreign language for the purpose of gaining and spreading knowledge, including spreading the message of Islam, and serving humanity (MoE, 2022). Furthermore, in this regard, Elyas and Picard (2018) note that in Saudi Arabia 'English has been welcomed to spread Islam, facilitate trade, improve employment opportunities, and achieve political alliances' (p.82).

As far as English teaching in Saudi Arabia is concerned, its introduction at an early age through recent educational reforms highlights a recognition of its established status as a global language. Until 2010, Saudi school students were only exposed to English teaching in intermediate and secondary school. Since the turn of the last decade, however, primary school students have been

introduced to English from Year 4 onwards, at the ages of 9–12 (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Thus, students in Saudi Arabia will now have experienced nine years of English teaching by the time they leave secondary school at the age of 18. As Alrashidi and Phan (2015) note:

> In primary stage (4th grade-6th grade), students have two 45-minute English classes a week. However, in intermediate and secondary stages, the number of classes increases to four classes per week (each class lasts for 45 minutes). (p.37)

At tertiary level, all Saudi universities teach through English in their science colleges (Al-Kahtany, Faruk & Al Zumor et al., 2016), while Arabic is the language of instruction in non-science colleges (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Even in colleges where Arabic is the language used for instruction, students are still required to complete an English course, commonly English for academic purposes (EAP), before they graduate. The aim is 'to improve students' competence in English and enable them to use the language as a tool of knowledge in addition to Arabic' (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015, p.18).

1.5.3 English instruction in Saudi Arabia: Challenges

English language teaching in Saudi Arabia continues to face a set of tricky challenges despite immense governmental efforts and ongoing educational reforms in line with the *Vision 2030*.[2] English language instruction has undoubtedly increased in Saudi Arabia thanks to recent changes at the policy level, but on the ground 'It is widely acknowledged that these have not yet yielded the desired results' (Alrahaili, 2018, p.83). One issue that has raised serious concerns is the low level of English proficiency among Saudi students, with Alrabai (2014) going so far as to claim that 'most Saudi EFL learners do not possess even a modest level of proficiency in this language' (p.82). Al-Seghayer (2014) offers a consistent take on the matter, remarking that English as a foreign language (EFL) education in Saudi Arabia 'seriously suffer[s] on all aspects', with 'inadequate and below expectations' outcomes and low proficiency being persisting issues (p.17). The lack of English competence among Saudi students has been ascribed to a host of potential factors, believed to be related to cultural implications, students' lack of motivation to learn the language, lack of English exposure outside the class, issues in

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[2] In 2016, Saudi Arabia announced the launch of an ambitious, transformative, long-term plan aimed at diversifying its economy and enhancing its infrastructure, public services and various sectors, including education. The vision entails a number of reform strategies and is built on three main pillars, seeking to achieve a vibrant society, a thriving economy and an ambitious nation.

relation to the quality of English language teaching and not least the teaching methodologies popular in language classrooms (Alrabai, 2016; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Melibari, 2015).

A proper understanding of the cultural context within Saudi Arabia is necessary in this regard. The words of the Saudi ambassador to the United Kingdom and a member of the Saudi royal family, Prince Khalid bin Bandar Al Saud, offered an insight into the cultural reality of the Saudi community in a recent talk at the Oxford Union. The prince described the Saudis as a 'fairly closed society that basically dealt with each other and to be fair for the majority of time we were happy with that scenario' (Oxford Union, 2022). In addition, and as discussed above, the Saudis are Muslim, which has a great influence in terms of shaping their cultural norms and values. The Saudis can be extremely conservative when it comes to their culture and traditions, to the extent that they will resist changes that go against their cultural norms, even if Islam allows them. The fact that women only started to drive in Saudi Arabia in 2018 is a good example of this. As far as the Saudis are concerned, the supremacy of Arabic will never be challenged. Since the holy Quran – the book of Islam – was revealed in Arabic, the religious and cultural importance of Arabic is considered beyond question. The strong bond between Arabic and Islam has seen Saudis call for Arabic 'to be promoted in the fields of education, business, health, and in everyday life' (Alrahaili, 2018, p.87).

However, English has seen a rapid rise and has now become an essential requirement for employment, study, business, research and science. This has been to the dismay of the Saudis, most of whom believe the religious and cultural significance of Arabic is being challenged by the rapid growth of English. It is for this very reason that English instruction in the kingdom has been deemed 'a threat to Islam, a hurdle to obtaining employment, and a symbol of oppression' (Elyas & Picard, 2018, p.83). Moreover, English teaching, together with various other educational changes, stands accused of harming 'national principles and threatening national identity' (Elyas, 2011, p.132). It is also claimed that the resentment the Saudis harbour towards English is stronger than observed in other Asian, Arab and African countries, with the 'powerful role of Arabic in Saudi Arabia' being suggested as a potential reason for the intense animosity (Elyas & Picard, 2018, p.80).

It may thus be little wonder that many Saudi students, particularly at school level, are believed to view English as nothing but a dull 'academic exercise' and 'a passive subject' in which they

have little interest and only learn 'for instrumental purposes, chiefly to pass an examination' (Al-Seghayer, 2014, pp.18–19). What most Saudi students lack, according to Al-Seghayer (2011), is intrinsic motivation and they are only driven in their study of English by the external influence of the educational system rather than any personal interest. Consequently, a considerable number of Saudi students 'do not pay serious attention to learning the language as a subject matter' and are only concerned with 'acquiring the minimal competency needed to pass to the next grade level and pay no attention to other aspects of learning' (Al-Seghayer, 2014, p.18). Discussing the issue of EFL motivation among Saudi students, Shah, Hussain & Nasseef (2013) found that it is sometimes complicated by a lack of parental support and encouragement, particularly in households where the parents are uneducated, which is not uncommon in Saudi Arabia. This is an issue that is being acknowledged and addressed by the ambitious Vision 2030: 'we want to deepen the participation of parents in the education process, to help them develop their children's characters and talents so that they can contribute fully to society' (Saudi Vision 2030, 2022, p.28).

The issue of little exposure to English poses yet another challenge as far as English language teaching in Saudi Arabia is concerned. While limited exposure to English outside class could be an understandable, inevitable reality in contexts where it is solely a foreign language, the issue in Saudi Arabia extends to the English classroom environment. In this regard, Alqahtani (2018) notes the high expectations of the new educational framework in Saudi Arabia for students to achieve high levels of English proficiency, which 'would necessitate a rich classroom environment with plenty of exposure to English instruction' (p.131). The classroom reality shows otherwise, however, with Fareh (2010) and Al-Seghayer (2011) observing that Arabic is used quite often in English classes within Saudi Arabia, adding that Grammar-Translation is a common teaching method, particularly at the school level. In fact, 'Most EFL learners in the Saudi context are taught using the traditional grammar-translation teaching method' (Alrabai, 2016, p.25). In this vein, one EFL teacher at a Saudi university, albeit acknowledging they were deemed key agents of a successful implementation of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) by ensuring they equipped their students with the linguistic knowledge required for their studies, reported 'most of the teaching is happening in Arabic anyway' (Louber & Troudi, 2019, p.65) Furthermore, Al-Seghayer (2014) found that students tend to be offered little or no exposure to English in a communicative sense across English classes in Saudi Arabia. Thus, 'it

would be unreasonable to expect very high achievement when classroom exposure to English is limited' and there is 'little or no exposure to English outside of the classroom' (Alqahtani, 2018, p.131).

According to Al-Hazmi (2003), meanwhile, English language teachers in Saudi Arabia are not adequately prepared to take on the language teaching endeavour, since EFL teacher preparation programmes have been 'inadequate and non-systematic' (p.341). Al-Seghayer (2014) concurs and further adds that university-level English programmes in which prospective teachers enrol either offer insufficient courses on English teaching methods or fail to offer any at all. Moreover, in institutions where such courses are provided, they only account for 10% of the total number of courses taught (Al-Seghayer, 2014). What is more, the English departments where aspiring teachers study place considerable emphasis on English literature and professional translation, entirely disregarding 'exposure to English teaching methods or opportunities for adequate pre-service classroom teaching experience' (Alqahtani, 2018, p.132). The outcome is therefore 'a substantial number of Saudi EFL teachers who are professionally and linguistically incompetent and lack a firm grasp of methods with which to teach language elements' (Al-Seghayer, 2014, p.21).

In this regard, ESAP teachers in Melibari's (2015) study, carried out in similar context as this research in Saudi, lamented the lack of training offered by their institution, reporting that they were not being well-supported, which presents a significant obstacle. Less than 50 miles away, at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, the teachers shared a similar sentiment and emphasised the need to provide proper training (Baeshin, 2016). The same issue was raised by students in Bukhari's (2017) study, with one student speaking in unequivocally critical terms about his Saudi teachers seemingly being ill-equipped:

> I think it is important to manage recruitment and employ teachers who are qualified enough for the job. Some Saudi teachers who are just bachelor degree holders start teaching just after graduation with no experience or good background in teaching methods. (p.160)

The student's apparent frustration is shared by Fareh (2010, p.3602), who has gone so far as to claim that most teachers, albeit BA degree holders, 'did not take any course in teaching English as foreign language' which 'may account for the adoption of the Grammar Translation method by most of them'. The words of Al-Hazmi (2003) may thus still ring true today: 'It is ironic that

the MoE, which has done so much to improve and update English language curricula since 1991, has lagged behind in doing the same for EFL teacher education program' (p.342).

1.6 Research context: English Language Centre (ELC)

This focus of this inquiry was an English Language Centre (ELC) at a Saudi university. The ELC was formed over 4 decades ago with a mission to provide English courses to the teaching assistants and lecturers at the university who were preparing to join offshore institutions in pursuit of postgraduate degrees. At the time, the ELC had only two lecturers teaching 20 members of the university teaching staff. The aim was to prepare the members of staff for their postgraduate studies, which were likely to be preceded by sitting a language proficiency exam such as IELTS or TOEFL. The ELC continued to expand year on year to address the ever-growing need for English proficiency locally and globally. As such, the centre began offering its services to staff and students across the university, including courses for librarians and ESAP instruction for students in different colleges where the medium of instruction was English, such as medicine, biology and chemistry, to name but a few.

Not only did the ELC serve those within the institution, but also members of the wider community in the area, as well as a string of governmental sectors, such as members of the General Directorate of Border Guards in Saudi Arabia, despite having limited resources. Over four decades later, the ELC has a vision to become a leading English institute, aiming primarily to achieve three particular objectives: providing high-quality English language courses for students across the university in line with their needs, providing English language courses for university employees and members of the community, in addition to ensuring quality in teaching the English language through research-based methods and global partnerships.

1.6.1 The ELC and the preparatory year (PY) programme

All first-year students at the Saudi university are required to complete a preparatory year (PY) programme, which precedes multi-year study for an undergraduate degree at the university. The PY programme, which was introduced in 2011, serves as a bridge between secondary school and university-level curricula, with the aim of preparing students academically for the disciplinary content when they enrol in their respective college of choice. Freshmen at the Saudi university study several modules, including English, physics, mathematics, chemistry and computer skills. This exposes them to various academic disciplines and enriches their

knowledge and skills in preparation for subject-knowledge curricula in their subsequent years of study. The most intensive of these courses in the PY programme is English, which the ELC is responsible for providing across two academic semesters.

With English being the medium of instruction in most of the courses college freshmen eventually enrol in, such as those offered by the medical, engineering, science and business colleges, the need for English proficiency is paramount. As such, within the context of the Saudi university, the ELC has a commitment and responsibility to offer EAP instruction over the course of the academic year. Currently serving over 3,000 students, male and female attending separate campuses, the ELC provides English for general academic purposes (EGAP) courses in the first term to introduce freshmen to the world of academic English, in addition to helping them develop the four core skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening. Should students successfully pass these, which is compulsory to move on to the next stage, they proceed to the second term, over which the ELC offers ESAP, with a greater focus on discipline-specific content. Across the two academic semesters, the ELC teaching staff are strictly required to follow prescribed syllabi developed and provided by the ELC administration. The EGAP materials provided in the first-term course comprise the *Oxford Milestones in English* series,[3] specifically designed to cater to the needs of English language students in the Middle East and Turkey. In the second term, the ESAP materials taught are *Oxford English for Careers*: *Nursing 1 & 2* for the medical domain, *Oxford English Commerce 1 & 2* for the administrative domain and *Oxford English Technology 1 & 2* for the scientific domain.

A point that merits attention here is that under normal circumstances, freshmen sit a classification test – also known as a placement test – prior to commencing the academic year. The in-house test, administered by the ELC under the supervision of its faculty, aims to assess freshmen's proficiency accurately to place them in the class where they will receive appropriate English instruction that fit their needs and level. Based on how they perform in the test, students are allocated into different groups, from beginner and lower intermediate through intermediate to advanced level. Each set receives different contact hours of English instruction: the beginner

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[3] Although *Milestones in English* is a five-level course specifically tailored for university-level students in Turkey and the Middle East, the ELC only teaches three books across the first academic semester: A1, A2 and B1. In addition, as the course is designed to align to CEFR, A1 and A2 levels correspond to what CEFR defines as basic users of the language, while B1 level corresponds to what CEFR characterises as independent users of the language.

groups receive 20 hours a week, the lower intermediate and intermediate groups are taught 16 hours a week, while the advanced groups are given 8 hours of English classes per week. Students at the beginner and lower-intermediate levels of proficiency are taught three books over the first term, four weeks of *Milestones in English A2*, four weeks of *Milestones in English A1* and four weeks of *Milestones in English B1*. Students at the intermediate level are taught *Milestones in English A1* and *B1* over 12 weeks, while the advanced students are only taught *Milestones in English B1* across the whole term. Essentially, the aim of placing students in different groups with varying contact hours is that they will be at a reasonably similar level of proficiency by the end of the first term. It is hoped that this will put them in good stead for the challenging endeavour of ESAP-focused content in the second term. It is also worth noting that under normal circumstances, students may be exempt from the EGAP course should they score outstandingly in the placement test (90 or above out of 100), or if they provide an IELTS score of at least 5.5, which must be dated no more than two years prior to the commencement of the preparatory year. All students without exception are required to attend 16 contact hours of ESAP pedagogy in the second term.

However, the circumstances in the 2020/2021 academic year, when this study was conducted, were anything but normal. The coronavirus pandemic created an unprecedented situation that had a significant, drastic impact on everyone's lives, including those within educational institutions. Akin to the rest of the world's universities, the Saudi university had to take measures to mitigate the dangerous effects of the rapidly spreading virus. One of these was closing its campuses, resulting in the cancellation of a host of different examinations throughout the university, including the English placement test. As it was not viable to administer the placement test remotely due to time constraints and limited resources, the ELC decided to place students in random groups, all receiving the same number of contact hours of EGAP and ESAP instruction over the course of an exceptional academic year. Consequently, the ELC faculty found themselves in the unfamiliar situation of having to teach classes of mixed-ability students, which proved a tricky challenge, as they revealed in the interviews (see 4.2).

1.7 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

ESP is defined as 'the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain' (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013, p.2). For Robinson (1980), it is the form of English teaching that caters to learners' particular

needs and purposes, which may be academic, professional, or scientific. In the view of Mackay and Mountford (1978, p.2), ESP can be defined as the teaching of English for 'clearly utilitarian purposes'.

Flexible as a discipline and with its various activities serving a wide range of areas, the question of when ESP originated is a difficult one to answer as its origins are not easily tracked. Howatt and Smith (2014) observe that in the 1960s there were worldwide attempts to develop an approach to English teaching that would meet the specific/special needs of learners at the time, particularly as demand for English was noticeably growing and it was becoming increasingly widespread. At the time, the widely held assumption was that all learners of English had similar needs and would follow a similar trajectory in their learning. Indeed, it was even assumed that people who were learning English – or any other language – would have no particular purpose for doing so, a situation that prompted Abbott (1981, p.12) to come up with the acronym TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason) or ENOP (English with No Obvious Purpose). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6), 'knowledge of a foreign language had generally been regarded as a well-rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary'.

Something had to change, however, when it became clear that it was necessary to use a specific form of English in certain vocational contexts, meaning learners had different purposes for learning the language. For example, learners who were to follow a career in aviation would need certain terminology to be able to communicate with air traffic control while flying and nurses would likewise be required to be familiar with the English used in medical contexts. Thus, 'ESP was started by teachers who realised that in order to deliver maximum value to their students, they needed to teach them to use the language for specialised purposes like these' (Charles & Pecorari, 2015, p.8). However, 'labels such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) did not emerge immediately' (Howatt & Smith, 2014, p.90).

It is widely accepted, nonetheless, that the birth of ESP took place after the Second World War, at a time when scientific, technical and economic activity was witnessing huge and unprecedented growth on a global level. The world was dominated by commerce and technology, leading to the need for an international language. As noted by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6), 'For various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States

in the post-war world, the role fell to English'. Understandably, English then became rather necessary for employment and communication purposes, which in turn saw the number of people with an interest in learning the language rapidly increase (Charles & Pecorari, 2015).

Back then, ESP coursebooks, often with the support of the British Council, were quite prevalent in the Middle East and Latin America (Johns, 2013). ESP has since gone on to become an important area of applied linguistics; indeed, its prominence has been 'reflected in an increasing number of publications, conferences and journals dedicated to ESP discussions' (Tratnik, 2008, p.5). The growth of ESP has been considerable, leading 'some higher education authorities and administrators in many countries to claim that ESP should replace EGP, the long-existing practice of English language teaching' (Bracaj 2014, p.40). The significance of ESP has also been internationally recognised. A conference on L2 learning and national development that took place early in the 1970s saw participants from Asia, Latin America and Africa summarise its essential role as follows:

> …the language problem in development stems from at least three communication needs which are increasingly being recognized both in developing countries themselves and in other countries aiding in their development: internal communication, transmission of science and technology, and international communication. (Mackay & Mountford 1978, p.vi, cited in Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991)

Notably, in countries such as Nigeria, India and Singapore, knowledge of English is required for internal communication as it is the language spoken and shared by educated residents. In such contexts, ESP, particularly English for development purposes, plays a major role in encouraging learners to understand how they can contribute to their nations' social and educational development, as argued by Gueye (1990).

According to Charles and Pecorari (2015), ESP serves as an umbrella term for a host of specific areas, such as English for nursing, English for aviation and so on. The strength of ESP as a field has also seen a plethora of subfields emerge over the years, including English for vocational purposes (EVP), English for specific academic purposes (ESAP), English for professional and academic purposes (EPAP), English as a lingua franca in academic settings (ELFA), English for medical purposes (EMP), and English for legal purposes (ELP), to name but a few (Williams, 2014).

Jordan (1997) identified two main strands of ESP: English for occupational/vocational/professional purposes (EOP/EVP/EPP) and EAP. EAP is defined as 'an approach that targets discipline or subject specific needs of students by focusing on genres and skills that are relevant for their academic success in a specific course' (Curle et al., 2020, p.6). Within EAP, there are two divisions, which can either be 'common core or subject-specific' (Coffey, 1984). Common core refers to study skills such as listening and note-taking, while subject-specific English is 'the language needed for a particular academic subject, e.g. economics, together with its disciplinary culture' (Jordan, 1997, p.5). These two divisions have been categorised by Blue (1988) as EGAP and ESAP, the latter being the focus of this study.

1.8 Thesis Outline

This thesis consists of six chapters. In this chapter, I have provided an introduction to my study, shedding light on the prevalent theoretical assumptions in relation to language teaching, namely that English is best taught through English only, and how these are being increasingly scrutinised and questioned by a new movement advocating bilingual teaching. This chapter has also provided background information concerning the rationale for the study and the context, offering a brief, general overview of Saudi Arabia and its educational context, in addition to the actual context in focus, the ELC at the Saudi university. Chapter 1 has concluded with an overview of the area of ESP.

Chapter 2 presents an extensive review of the relevant literature in relation to the use of translation in language teaching. This provides essential insights into translation as a phenomenon and its development as a scholarly exercise that dominated the scene of language teaching for centuries. The chapter also includes an overview of the teaching methods which emerged over the past century and the principles underpinning them. Their impact on the position of translation in language teaching is also extensively discussed. In Chapter 2, light is also shed on the factors believed to have contributed to the exclusion of translation from language teaching, before providing an overview of the changing status quo. The chapter concludes by presenting relevant empirical studies which have investigated the use of translation in ELT and ESAP contexts, in addition to exploring the purposes of using translation and the factors influencing its use.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodological approach followed in collecting and analysing the data for this study. A discussion of the data collection instruments is provided, followed by a detailed account of the data collection process, highlighting the challenges encountered, mainly due to the pandemic, and the decisions taken to address those, thereby leading to the success of data collection under exceptional, novel circumstances. Key issues in relation to ethics and analysis are also discussed.

Analysis of the results pertaining to the use of translation in ESAP contexts in Saudi Arabia is provided across two main sections in Chapter 4. Drawing on data collected from participants' classroom observation and interviews, the chapter first presents findings from the qualitative analysis. This includes an illustration of examples which highlight the uses of translation, the purposes for its use and the factors leading to its use. This is then followed by the findings from the quantitative analysis using data from close-ended online surveys.

Chapter 5 discusses the main findings presented in the preceding chapter with reference to the research questions and the relevant, wider literature. Chapter 6, the conclusion, gives a summary of the study, in addition to highlighting its challenges and limitations offering recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the relevant literature with respect to the use of translation in language teaching. It provides essential insights into the history of translation as a phenomenon and how it developed into a scholarly exercise that long dominated the history of language teaching. It also sheds light on the emergence of different teaching methods, the principles underpinning them and how they have affected the position of translation within language education. An overview of the main arguments for and against translation is also provided, in addition to exploring the use of translation in practice. Last, but not least, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the issue of the definition of translation.

2.2 Translation in Language Teaching: Origins and Predominance

Despite originating 3,000 years ago to meet the administrative needs of multilingual empires rather than serving pedagogic purposes, translation has gone on to dominate the history of language teaching (Kelly, 1969, p.171). Except for a relative gap during the Middle Ages, 'the only period from which [translation] is largely absent' (Kelly, 1969, p.171), translation has been a constant presence in almost all historical stages of language teaching. Tracing its earliest footprint, Kelly notes that translation was first developed as a scholarly practice by the Roman poets during the third century BC to teach Latin, which one needed to learn and speak to integrate fully in Roman society (1969, p.172). Translation thus made its debut in the elementary schools of Greek communities, with students being presented with grammar-focused drill exercises and bilingual glossaries containing phrases commonly used in daily life along with their translations in Greek. Bilingual-oriented methods of a similar nature continued to prevail in the centuries to follow, including in a few places in the Middle Ages, although little evidence exists to support this claim, at least until the 14th century, at which point grammar schoolteachers based in France were giving their Latin students sentences to translate and be corrected the next day (Kelly, 1969, p.172).

During the Renaissance, the practice of translation continued to be a common exercise in style-focused teaching. The view at the time was that a thorough translation activity made it impossible to miss things, as opposed to when one is merely reading (Kelly, 1969, p.172). During the same period, growing interest was observed in learning a wider range of European

languages and cultures and greater emphasis began to be placed on oral communication (Rutherford, 2014). Although akin to the 20th century school of thought known as the Direct Method in prioritising the spoken form of the language, the position of translation in teaching languages was not impacted by this shift in focus. Indeed, even though the use of translation was restricted to the teaching of classical languages in the Renaissance, with the direct approach being implemented to teach modern languages at the time, the place of translation in teaching was neither affected nor questioned, in contrast to how it was treated by advocates of the Direct Method in the 20th century. Furthermore, it is worth noting that oral competence was believed to be the main objective of teaching Latin and Greek, as argued by Bell (1981), an aim that translation was later deemed unable to fulfil (see 2.2.2.).

The Renaissance saw the practice of translation continue to be employed in various forms: 'vulgar' – the translation of sentences from the daily English of the time into Latin, employed in English schools; double translation – translating a text from a source language into a target language, followed by rendering the translated text back into the source language; interlinear translation – presenting word-for-word translation of a source language text which also reflects the grammar of the source language (Kelly, 1969, p.173). Not only did translation continue to play a role in the teaching of classical languages, in the 17th century it began to be introduced in the teaching of modern languages, accompanied by a flood of books published on translation and a scores of excellent bilingual dictionaries (Kelly, 1969, p.174). However, 'until the adoption of the Grammar-Translation Method, [translation] remained on the fringe of modern-languages teaching' (Kelly, 1969, p.138).

In the 18th century, interest in Latin decreased and modern languages began to receive more attention and be taught in more European schools, but not much changed in terms of the teaching methods favoured in classrooms. That is, there was still translation in the form of 'statements of abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary, and sentences for translation' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.2). Furthermore, grammar was rigorously taught through translation, which entailed students practising 'writing sample sentences, sometimes with the use of parallel bilingual texts and dialogue' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.2). As may be evident, the spoken form of the language was marginalised, with grammar receiving far more attention. Indeed, the sentences used for translation 'were constructed to illustrate the grammatical system of the language and

consequently bore no relation to the language of real communication', with oral practice being restricted to the students reading their translations aloud (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.2).

The reasons for grammarians of the 18th century viewing translation as an effective tool for grammar acquisition could be ascribed to the widespread assumption at the time that 'there was one basic system for all languages', which paved the way for translation as a method of grammar teaching and learning (Kelly, 1969, p.51). In other words, since translation had proved to be successful in teaching Latin and Greek, there was no reason why it would not be as successful in teaching modern languages. During the 19th century, the grammar-focused approach gained in popularity to the extent that it became the norm in foreign language teaching settings. Moreover, books and lessons began to be designed around grammatical points. By then, the Grammar-Translation Method had already appeared but was of minimal use until it was introduced in modern language classrooms at some point during the first decade of the same century (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.2; Kelly, 1969, p.51).

Derived from the Prussian school system, Grammar-Translation was initially known as the Prussian Method in the US (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), also previously called the Classical Method due to its prominent role in teaching the aforementioned classical languages. As far as the Grammar-Translation Method was concerned, reading and writing were what mattered most since it was hoped that the ability to read foreign language literature would in turn aid intellectual growth, this being the fundamental goal. Grammar-Translation was deemed the ideal approach to learn an L2 as it involved a 'detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.2). According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), a standard Grammar-Translation text entails a presentation and illustration of the grammatical rules, a list of lexical items with their corresponding translations provided in tandem, and a set of translation tasks (p.3). Furthermore, in Grammar-Translation based classes, the students' L1 is the medium of instruction since it is deemed to facilitate the explanation of new items and allow students to make comparisons between the L2 and their L1; hence, 'the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language' (Stern, 1983, p.455).

What followed later was an era in which Grammar-Translation flourished, dominating the scene of foreign language pedagogy in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Until the late 1880s, no other method was practised worldwide according to Palmer (1925). The predominance of the method was further signified in 1858 when it began to be part of an examinations system run by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England, aiming to teach modern languages in the same way as classical languages. By establishing Grammar-Translation in the curriculum, it was felt modern languages would be viewed with the same academic respect accorded the classical languages (Howatt, 1984, p.133). However, the central position Grammar-Translation enjoyed for almost a century did not last, as discussed in the next section.

2.2.1 The Reform Movement: When the pendulum began to swing

There is consensus that learning through the Grammar-Translation Method was far from a joyful experience in foreign language classrooms (Howatt & Smith, 2014; G. Cook, 2010). Tedious, dull, and boring are among the list of adjectives commonly used in the literature to describe a method with a *modus operandi* that entailed endless translation of texts to and fro. At the time though, a lack of fun in language classrooms was not of great concern simply because the method delivered the goods: 'it prepared pupils to read the literature of the foreign language, which was the commonly accepted goal at the time' (Howatt & Smith, 2014, p.80). As noted by Kelly (1969), a minority were sceptical about the advantages of translation in language teaching prior to and early in the 19th century, but it was only in the second half of the century that critics became increasingly vocal. Towards the end of the 19th century, Europe was witnessing major developments in terms of travel and communication, which meant that oral proficiency was required and thus the Grammar-Translation Method began to be questioned due to its failure to address the spoken form. Frustration with the Grammar-Translation method grew steadily, with those opposed to it pointing out its inability to meet the new demands of the period in terms of developing practical speaking skills (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

In 1882, the advent of the Reform Movement, led by a group of phoneticians and linguists who had also taught for period of time, marked a watershed moment for translation in language teaching and was one of 'the most effective periods of change in language teaching history' (Howatt & Smith, 2014, p.82). Indeed, the Reform Movement had a significant impact on the teaching profession in Germany and Europe at the time, particularly after the publication of a

seminal pamphlet written in 1882 by Wilhelm Viëtor, a prominent figure in the movement, in which he called for language teaching to 'start afresh!'. According to Viëtor, what language pedagogy had to move on from was Grammar-Translation; the Reform Movement was established as a reaction to this. Viëtor believed that language teaching needed to undergo a radical shift. That is, he, along with other reformers, called for a move away from a focus on written language and grammar to a greater emphasis on the spoken language (G. Cook, 2010, p.5).

The Reform Movement, drawing on concepts in psychology and the newly established science of phonetics, was based on three fundamental principles: 'the primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the classroom' (Howatt, 1984, p.171). The influence of psychologists 'led to what have been termed natural methods and ultimately led to the development of what came to be known as the Direct Method' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.10). This was aligned with a growing interest among reformers in the notion of natural learning, i.e. the process of L2 learning as identical to L1 acquisition. Moreover, noting it was only in the 20th century that language began to be treated in accordance with pure psychological insights, Howatt (1984, p.305) added that the view of 'language as a skill or habit has been current for some time; it was such a concept that inspired the Natural and Direct Methods'.

While the Reform Movement raised the valid argument that Grammar-Translation excessively emphasised the written form of the language, in turn hindering the development of speaking skills and fluency, its proponents' attitude towards translation was not particularly hostile. That is, they acknowledged it had a role to play provided it was employed judiciously (G. Cook, 2010, p.5). In line with this, Howatt (1984, p.173) noted that teachers were expected to employ translation for 'glossing new words and explaining new grammar points'. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p.10) confirmed this in the reformers' beliefs they enumerated. Furthermore, *The Practical Study of Languages* by Henry Sweet, a prominent British reformer, first published in 1899, included a whole chapter on translation, approving its judicious use (1964, pp.197–210). Sweet noted that 'We translate the foreign words and phrases into our language simply because this is the most convenient and at the same time the most efficient guide to their meaning' (1964, p.201).

Indeed, although the Reform Movement is usually thought of as heralding the time when the use of translation in language teaching was brought to an end, not all reformers had a negative view of translation; 'Like Viëtor, … others found translation suitable in the right place and time' (Pym, 2016, p.16). For example, Passy, another prominent figure in the movement (1899, cited in Kelly, 1969, p.25) suggested that the complete rejection of translation would be an unwise move as there were likely to be 'exceptional circumstances' in which using gestures or attempting to provide explanations in the foreign language would not be possible. Clearly, Passy was against the complete exclusion of the mother tongue proposed by Berlitz (see 2.2.2), noting that translation activities to and from first and second languages could be beneficial for proficient students to spot grammatical differences between the two languages, and might in fact be necessary to check comprehension when teaching beginners (Pym, 2016, p.16). In a similar vein, other Direct Method advocates argued that to completely avoid using the mother tongue would be almost impossible (Kelly, 1969, p.26). In addition, the presence of non-native teachers in the Reform Movement militated against the extremist view of totally excluding the native language, although the same non-native reformers approved of the principle of monolingual teaching (Howatt, 1984, p.173). Those teachers, while following the ideas of the Reform Movement, still believed in the value of translation in the language classroom and allowed its use since 'it enabled students to understand words and phrases clearly' (Laviosa, 2020, p.271).

According to Howatt (1984, p.173), it was only when the Direct Method, an umbrella term for what was also known as the 'Natural Method' and the 'Berlitz Method', emerged that the 'fuss of no translation' began. One point that merits attention here is that the origin of the term 'Direct Method' remains unknown. It was not even used by Maximilian Berlitz, who preferred to use his brand name, the Berlitz Method. Offering a possible explanation for this, Howatt (1984, p.207) suggests that the term was not coined but rather 'emerged' – similar to the contemporary Communicative Approach – as 'a useful generic label to refer to all methods of language teaching which adopted the monolingual principle as a cornerstone of their beliefs'. The Direct Method was increasingly used early in the 20th century as a banner for methods that shared the principle of 'no translation' (Howatt & Smith, 2014, p.84). Further clarification was provided by Stern (1983, p.457), who observed that various terms were used by the reformers, including the 'reform method', 'natural method', 'psychological method', and 'phonetic method', but the

term that has persisted is the 'direct method'. V. Cook (2008, p.17) defined the Direct Method as 'essentially any method that relies on the second language throughout'.

Another point worthy of attention here is that, as argued by G. Cook (2010, p.7), the Reform Movement and the Berlitz Method, despite emerging in the same year, operated differently in terms of their focus. That is, the former was more concerned with language teaching in secondary schools, where there was greater patience in terms of results and satisfaction, while the latter was more interested in producing fast results for 'paying clients'. The combination of the two streams, one being academically oriented and the other commercially motivated, resulted in the emergence of a 'strong and coherent new programme for language teaching which became known as the Direct Method' (G. Cook, 2010, p.7). Not only did proponents of the Direct Method aim to promote monolingual language teaching, prioritising the spoken language, they further argued that the process through which an infant acquires the L1 could be recreated in the L2 classroom. They believed the optimal approach to L2 learning to be 'natural', through exposure only to the target language, replicating the monolingual context in which an infant acquires the L1.

2.2.2 The Berlitz School: The outlawing of translation

According to G. Cook (2010, p.8), the Direct Method was founded on four fundamental principles that have since had varying degrees of influence on language teaching. The 'four pillars', as classified by Cook, are as follows: (i) monolingualism, an English-only approach; (ii) naturalism, i.e. foreign language learning resembling L1 acquisition; (iii) native-speakerism, namely the idea that native speakers are the best teachers; (iv) absolutism, being the confident assumption that the Direct Method 'is the true path to success'. G. Cook further notes that 'no substantial evidence' exists to support the validity of these precepts (2010, p.9).

These principles clearly came to the fore in a period that could be referred to as the second strand of the Reform Movement (Howatt & Smith, 2014, p.82), in which the relatively tolerant attitude towards translation changed to a dismissive, hostile one. Predominantly represented by the Berlitz school, founded by the successful Maximilian Berlitz, the Direct Method advocated monolingual teaching and completely outlawed translation. To give a brief account of when and why the view of translation took a turn to the extreme negative, the story began when Berlitz, a polyglot German-born teacher, immigrated to the US and opened a school of his own, recruiting

a Frenchman to teach French to a group of English-speaking students. Having fallen ill, or so the story goes, Berlitz left the school and upon his return to work a month later he was impressed by the progress the students at his school had made in learning French. Previously oblivious to the fact that his employee had no command of English, since the two always communicated in French, Berlitz was astounded to learn that the English-speaking students had learned French even though the teacher could not speak their own language. Inspired by this experience, Berlitz developed his own method and over the next 30 years went on to open many more language schools throughout America and Europe, with a policy patently stating that the method they believed in was 'an imitation of the process followed by nature in teaching a child its mother tongue' (Howatt 1984, pp.204–205).

Furthermore, in the Berlitz programme, all books contained very clear instructions to teachers: simply put, 'no translation under any circumstances' (Howatt 1984, p. 204). The teachers were warned against 'the slightest compromise on this point' (Berlitz, 1907, p.7). Moreover, as the Berlitz schools expanded, microphones were installed in classrooms to monitor the teachers and ensure translation was not being used, 'making it a dismissible offence' (G. Cook, 2010, p.7). Thus, 'In the Berlitz Method, translation as a means of acquiring a foreign language is entirely abandoned' and translation was viewed as being of no value whatsoever. Berlitz cited three reasons for his opposition to translations (1888/1916, pp.3–4, cited in Pym, 2016, p.14):

1. In all translation methods, most of the time is taken up by explanations in the student's mother tongue.
2. He who studies a foreign language by means of translation, neither gets hold of its spirit nor becomes accustomed to think in it; on the contrary, he has a tendency to base all he says upon what he would say in his mother tongue, and he cannot prevent his vernacular from invading the foreign idiom, thereby rendering the latter unintelligible or, at least, incorrect.
3. A knowledge of a foreign tongue, acquired by means of translation, is necessarily defective and incomplete; for there is by no means for every word of one language, the exact equivalent in the other. Furthermore, the ideas conveyed by an expression in one language, are frequently not the same as those conveyed by the same words in the other.

To this day, the Berlitz school website still promises potential students 'nothing but English for five days', adopting a communicative approach for students 'to take on a new language the same way they did their first – with natural ease'.[4]

The Direct Method enjoyed a notable spell of success, particularly during the early decades of the 20th century when it dominated European private teaching contexts (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This was an age that saw major developments in fields such as international commerce, travel and tourism, and with conversational ability becoming a criterion for employment – an aspect of language usage Grammar-Translation seemed unable to develop – the Direct Method offered just what was needed. However, its popularity declined towards the 1920s as critics, even from within the Reform Movement, one being the British linguist Henry Sweet, pointed out its drawbacks. These included the method being impractical in large classes, unlike Grammar-Translation, and its absolute commitment to the principle of avoiding the mother tongue at all costs being considered counterproductive, especially when 'sometimes a simple, brief explanation in the student's native language would have been a more efficient route to comprehension' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.13). The strict emphasis on steering clear of any reference to the mother tongue left Roger Brown, a Harvard psychologist, frustrated as he observed a teacher of Japanese trying get the meaning of a Japanese word across through verbal gymnastics when translation would have offered an effective alternative (Brown 1973, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Nonetheless, there is no doubt that the Direct Method had a significant impact on language teaching that is still felt and observed in some contexts today. This includes a number of Saudi Arabian educational institutions, where a strict English-only policy that precludes any use of the L1 persists (e.g. Almayez, 2022; Bukhari, 2017). Not only that, but the fundamental principle in the exclusive use of the target language 'survives as an article of faith amongst many teachers to this day' (Thornbury, 2006, p.67). In addition, the Direct Method gave rise to a number of linguists expressing a set of ideas and theories that informed and inspired what later developed into the field of applied linguistics, further influencing language teaching methods for years to come. Kelly (1969, p.406) observed that owing to the relative success of the Direct Method,

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[4] https://www.berlitzoxford.co.uk/english-courses/

subsequent years of teaching practice were to be inspired by and based on 'scientific experiment rather than on experience'.

2.2.3 Was the shift in orientation the demise of translation?

In response to the question of whether the shift towards more emphasis on oral proficiency only was the demise of translation, the answer, concisely and simply put, is 'no'. According to Kelly (1969, p.171), 'the history of language teaching is dominated by translation'. Kelly further noted that 'translation existed during most periods of language teaching'. Indeed, as previously touched upon, translation persisted even when the direction of language teaching altered significantly in search of a method that would meet the needs of teaching modern languages. This was also true even when the Berlitz Method was flourishing and expanding significantly; by 1914, up to 200 schools had opened across America and Europe, with a host of European languages and Japanese being taught by native speakers. While private language schools tended to support an English-only approach strongly throughout the 20th century, as private language education transformed into a 'global industry' (Kerr, 2016), this was not the case in public schools. Particularly in Europe, Laviosa (2014, p.12) notes that the Direct Method was deemed ill-suited to secondary level education in public schools because it necessitated having native-speaking teachers, an unfeasible requirement at the time. Also, in Europe the role of the mother tongue was appreciated since it was considered advantageous in terms of aiding comprehension, rendering the adoption of the Direct Method impractical.

Even when British linguists such as Palmer (1917) and Hornby (1950) set out to improve on the Direct Method by developing a more scientific basis for an oral approach to teaching, translation was still seen as having a role to play in language pedagogy. For example, Palmer, who developed the *oral method* in the 1920s, emphasised the exclusion of the native language when grammar was taught, but allowed translation to be used in other circumstances since 'withholding translation might engender faulty associations' (Laviosa, 2020, p.271). Similarly, when Hornby's method, known as *situational language teaching*, was proposed early in the 1950s, with a particular emphasis placed on the accuracy of speech and grammar, translation was a welcome resource in certain situations (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.39). That is, 'Hornby supported the use of translation in the students' first language as a means of facilitating comprehension in the L2' (Laviosa, 2020, p.271).

Translation also appeared in the form of interpreting, when the structural approach to language teaching became popular in the US in the 1940s and 1950s. This structural approach, which essentially aimed to teach over 40 languages to select members of the armed forces during World War II, employed interpreting as a learning exercise (Velleman, 2008, p.390). Even when Skinner developed his theory of behaviourism, proposing that language learning is a form of behaviour and thus proficiency can be developed through practice, imitation and repetition, inspiring applied linguists to develop the *audiolingual method*, translation persevered (Brooks, 1964). Granted, oral proficiency was the aim and therefore oral drills dominated the language classroom, but translation was still introduced as 'a literary exercise at advanced level' and was even recommended as a tool to compare the L1 with L2 'in terms of their vocabularies, item by item', akin to what bilingual dictionaries serve to do (Brooks, 1964, p.184). Similarly, when *communicative language teaching* was launched in the UK in 1973, with the development of communicative competence as its central aim, the use of translation was recommended in certain situations (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). That is, language teachers were encouraged to translate into L1 during communicative activities to ensure students understood what they were supposed to do (p.259). Discussing communicative language teaching, Widdowson (1978, p.159) stated that using translation would be a sensible decision in pursuit of realising communicative competence:

> What we are aiming to do is to make the learner conceive of the foreign language in the same way as a communicative activity. This being so, it would seem reasonable to draw upon the learner's knowledge of how his [sic] own language is used to communicate. That is to say, it would seem reasonable to make use of translation.

Furthermore, translation, in the form of Grammar-Translation, persisted and indeed dominated in language pedagogy, particularly in mainstream schools, well into the mid-20th century (Hall, 2011, p.80). On this, G. Cook (2010, p.8) adds that Grammar-Translation, 'despite the attacks', continued to dominate as a primary method of teaching modern languages in the latter years of the 19th century and 'long into the 20th'. Indeed, as stated by Adamson (2004), Grammar-Translation flourished in China until the 1960s. Rather interestingly, Hall (2011, p.83) notes that translation, in a modified grammar-translation form, is still employed in many different contexts around the world to this day.

Evidence of this claim can be seen in Assalahi's (2013) study titled '*Why is the Grammar-Translation Method Still Alive in the Arab World?*', in which he found that Grammar-Translation

was used in English classes at public schools in Saudi Arabia. The same has also been found to be true for English teaching classrooms in Bangladesh, where the learners and the teacher shared the same own language (Nasrin, 2005). Indeed, it has been highlighted that English language instruction at the secondary level across Asia relies heavily on Grammar-Translation (Kim, 2011, p.151). The same holds true for ESAP classes at university level in Iran, where students of medicine showed a clear preference for teaching to be delivered through Grammar-Translation as opposed to CLT (Fereidoni, Baniadam & Tadayyon, 2018). Similar results have further been found in EFL contexts in Afghanistan recently where Grammar-Translation is 'liked and welcomed' by teachers and students (Akramy, Habibzada & Hashemi, 2022).

This survival of a teaching method that has constantly been questioned has been attributed to what V. Cook describes as the 'seriousness of purpose' translation carries (2008, p.239), which may be lacking in other language teaching methods. Examining its 'secret life' across the history of language learning, Benson (2000) describes Grammar-Translation as 'a piece of language teaching history that obstinately refuses to leave the stage despite the hisses and the boos of the audience' (p.226). Its ease of implementation, Thornbury (2006) suggests, has been a factor in keeping Grammar-Translation alive over the years. That is, the method has been viewed as confidence-boosting for students and appropriate for large classes, and last but not least, it can be implemented without the teacher having total command of the target language. Celce-Murcia (2001, p.6) even argues that the 'teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language'. Thornbury (2006) goes so far as to suggest that Grammar-Translation may be re-emerging thanks to its simple implementation, particularly in big classes.

It is thus patently evident that translation has persisted, despite the ostracisation and criticism often found in the literature. It is believed to play a significant role in the teaching of many languages in different parts of the world (Malmkjær 1998). Malmkjær (2004) further observes that at the university level, translation continues to be the norm as far as language teaching is concerned, even if 'teachers are reluctant to admit to deviating from a policy of English-only' (Kerr, 2015, p.2). Malmkjær (2004) also points out that translation remains common in the teaching of popular languages, including English. Indeed, translation has remained popular in many educational settings around the world, particularly in bilingual classes in which students share the same own language and the teacher has command of the languages the students speak and are trying to learn (Benson, 2000; Hall, 2020).

Discussions in the literature are not always necessarily an accurate representation of what happens in the classroom, and what has been described as 'relentless propaganda' to get rid of translation in language teaching has not fully succeeded (G. Cook, 2010, p.155). Indeed, theory and practice are two different things, not to mention that there has been 'little evidence' to suggest that methods and the principles that underpin them 'ever reflected classroom reality' (Pennycook, 1989, p.602). That is, even in the strictest of monolingual classes, translation was still used by teachers who were told to exclude it, as a last resort when 'all else fails, which may be quite often' (G. Cook, 2010, p.3). Similarly, Hall (2020, p.86) notes that while drawing on the students' bi/multilingual resources has been the 'elephant in the room' in the ELT professional discourse, it has been a reality in practice for a very long time.

V. Cook (2001) argues that the mother tongue 'like nature, creeps back in' and that teachers 'use it every day'. Similarly, Lucas and Katz (1994, p.558) observed that the use of translation was still evident in English-only classrooms in the US. They noted that 'Teachers encouraged students to use bilingual dictionaries when they did not understand something in English and there was no one who could translate for them' (Lucas & Katz, 1994, p.555), although guidelines and policies discouraged its use. In China, learners of English at the tertiary level are still required and expected to be able to translate (He, 2002), while 'spontaneous and planned translation is undeniably and consistently present in UK language classrooms' (Barnes, 2021, p.45). Levine (2011) also notes that classrooms have continued to be multilingual pedagogical settings despite the favouritism for monolingual principles found in the literature over the last century.

Thus, translation has never completely vanished or been 'stamped-out' (Butzkamm, 2003, p.29). Hall (2020, p.78) points out that 'many, and arguably most, English language classrooms around the world have remained to some extent multilingual over the last 100 years'. This is evident in studies conducted on this topic, which have revealed that teachers have been using students' own language in certain situations and for various functions (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013), albeit sometimes with a sense of guilt (Barnes, 2021; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Macaro, 2009; Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). According to Prodromou (2002), this sense of guilt is the reason why the potential of translation in the language classroom has been neglected.

In a similar vein, since several teachers have been found to use translation almost secretively, as though they were ashamed of it (Pym et al., 2013), some have suggested that perhaps it is 'this sense of hidden guilt, perhaps more than anything else, that has blocked open discussion and research on the issue' (Pym, 2018, p.8). As noted by Voicu (2012), the feeling of guilt has become a frustrating problem as far as teachers are concerned. To be freed from guilt, teachers must demand that students only use the L2. While accepting that there is nothing wrong with such a decision or a strategy, Voicu (2012, p.216) argues that this approach 'rarely allows the teacher or the students a chance to understand why L1 was being used in the first place'. Mitchell (1988, p.28) claimed that since any form of own language use is deemed 'unprofessional conduct', teachers who have continued to employ translation have denied doing so and even argued that it is wrong.

It seems almost impossible to eject own language use from the language teaching process, not least because students making use of their existing linguistic knowledge, of which their own language is part, provides a tremendous pedagogical resource (Kerr, 2015). In addition, while teachers may be able to control the language spoken in the classroom, they will always be powerless when it comes to the language students choose to think in; 'we cannot force students not to think into their native language since this is a cognitive function which cannot be controlled' (Leonardi, 2010, p.27). Atkinson (1987) observed that most learners around the world prefer classroom activities which include some translation techniques. Kerr (2015, p.3) also argues 'like it or not, translating won't go away', and thus translation should be acknowledged and used in a principled manner rather than dismissed under the assumption that students will not use it secretly. Interestingly, it has been found that translation takes place unconsciously in the brain during the process of comprehending a foreign language (Thierry & Wu, 2007). That is, bilinguals have been found to 'automatically and unconsciously activate native translation equivalents when reading L2 English words' even when not using their mother tongue (Oppenheim, Wu & Thierry, 2018, p.2). In sum, it seems that even when translation 'is not supposed to happen, it happens' (Pym, 2016, p.11).

2.3 Translation and English Language Teaching: The Route to Revival
2.3.1 Common goal but lack of dialogue
Even though 'translation and language teaching are historically and conceptually linked through their common goal of communication' (Rogers 2000, p.635), the history of the relationship

between the two disciplines can be described as 'complicated' (Pym, 2018, p.3). That is to say, the relationship between the two has been far from cordial despite the historical connection and sharing of a common goal. As G. Cook (2007) notes, although much common ground exists, the two fields of enquiry have always conducted studies separately, with minimal reference to each other. Since translation was first used in foreign language teaching, the two fields seem to have gone through the different stages of being friends, engaged, divorced, up to the current stage of estrangement, as described by Koletnik and Frillier (2019, p.3).

Given the renewed interest recently in translation within language teaching circles (see 2.3.2), there have been calls for dialogue between the two fields (e.g. Pym, 2018; Laviosa, 2014; G. Cook, 2010; Campbell, 2002). The fact that there has been such a lack of communication between two neighbouring disciplines that have so much in common has understandably left quite a few eyebrows raised. Campbell (2002), likening the two fields to two ships cruising in two linear oceans unaware of each other, observes that the scarce contact and influence on one another is bemusing, particularly since they are informed by similar bodies of knowledge in linguistics, psychology and culture. According to Campbell, the lack of integration between the two areas could be attributed to four reasons: 'a strong anti-translation bias in EFL teaching methodology, lack of recognition of translation in EFL publishing industry, obstacles stemming from the demographics of EFL, and a lack of interest from translation scholars' (Campbell, 2002, p.58). However, it can be argued that the two fields have an 'ethical imperative of promoting cross-cultural links' (Campbell, 2002, p.58).

Carreres (2006) ascribes the lack of the dialogue between the two fields – translation studies and language education – to a couple of factors. One is that those engaged in translation studies have no interest in what they view as 'merely' language teaching, while those in language teaching want to consider translation solely as a pedagogical tool. Thus, each discipline only wishes to regard the other in a certain way, with each displeased by its depiction, which in turn prevents any opportunity for a conversation (Carreres, 2006, p.3). Sharing a similar view on the matter, Soler and Wheeler (2015, p.31) note that this is a two-way issue in that educational theorists in the field of English teaching saw a need to renounce translation as a way of setting up their own independence, while those engaged in translation studies have been criticised for their lack of trust in other disciplines.

Pym (2018) believes that conversations within translation studies in relation to language education have been negative and critical. Laying the blame at the feet of scholars in the field, Bohle (2012) concurs and adds that criticism from within the translation studies contingent concerning the way in which translation has been used in language education has contributed to the lack of a much-needed dialogue between the two disciplines. That is, since language teachers were told they were not adequately qualified to understand translation compared to translation specialists, it became a topic of suspicion for them and 'their understandable reaction would have been to leave it alone' (Pym, 2018, p.7). There is even the suggestion that those within translation studies may have behaved in a condescending manner towards other disciplines, including English teaching:

> Not surprisingly, some in the field felt we were so specialised that we were axiomatically superior to any of those run-of-the-mill English teachers milling around us. It felt genuinely exciting to be establishing a new discipline that was necessarily small and necessarily in opposition to established fields of inquiry. (Pym, 2018, p.2)

A notable and intriguing example arose in relation to Duff's (1989) book *Translation*, which proposed plenty of ideas with respect to how translation could be incorporated in the language learning classroom. Scholars of translation studies turned their back on this book written by a language learning expert, as if to say 'this has nothing to do with us', and the reception was hardly any better within language education circles (Pym, 2018, p.4). Campbell (2002) also suggests that translation studies scholars must shoulder a share of the blame for the lack of dialogue between the two disciplines, noting that 'the fault is not all on the EFL side', but qualifies this by saying that 'Translation scholars have a vast range of their own concerns, and EFL comes very low on the list' (p.62). Over the past two decades, however, there has been a revival of interest in the use of translation in English teaching, creating the need for a conversation between the two disciplines (Pym, 2018). This may well be under way, as argued by Hall and Cook (2012, p.278):

> Yet twelve years into the twenty-first century, there is evidence that this division, which, in many contexts, might arguably be characterised as one between theory and practice, may be coming to an end, and that the existence and advantages of using the learners' own language in class are increasingly recognised.

Furthermore, translation studies as a discipline can be said to be showing more flexibility and willingness to work with other neighbouring disciplines towards realising a bi/multilingual

reality in language pedagogy. Confirming this, Laviosa (2020, p.275) notes that the field is 'increasingly opening up to neighbouring disciplines such as SLA, TESOL and bilingual education'. A notable example is an investigation carried out by a trio of scholars from translation studies into the use of translation in courses primarily focused on the acquisition of an L2 at school and university level in seven European countries, as well as Australia, the US and China (Pym, Malmkjær & Plana, 2013). The study found that teachers tend to use translation as an aid to enhance students' understanding of the L2, whereas students rely on their L1, through mental translation, as a scaffold to learn the new language.

Further, the study found that countries that used a lot of translation were leading the ranks in the 2012 EF Proficiency Index. For example, Finland, where teachers reported frequent use of translation, was top of both lists, the most to use translation and the best at English proficiency. In contrast, France and Spain were almost bottom in both lists: 'their students have the worst English and their teachers report the least use of translation' (Pym, 2018, p.8). Of course, this is by no means a conclusion that translation helps one learn English, but it is certainly a 'claim that the presence of translation in the classroom appears to have no major negative effects on the learning of English' (Pym, 2018, p.8).

Such findings may still have been one of several factors, discussed further in the following section, that contributed to the resurgent interest in translation in language pedagogy. Although there is admittedly some way to go to make the promise of a potential paradigm shift a reality, a willingness to engage in collaborative research on the part of translation studies scholars is deemed a step in the right direction to 'reconcile the different assumptions about the nature of translation and valorise pedagogic translation within a plurilingual and pluricultural perspective in higher education' (Laviosa, 2022, p.26).

2.3.2 Translation in language teaching: A revival of interest

As shown in previous sections, translation has never completely disappeared from English language teaching; certainly, it has always been present in practice. Thus, to suggest an interest in translation is being revived is by no means an admission that it ever went away. Acknowledging this increasing interest in translation in recent times, Carreres (2006, p.1) notes with excitement: 'Translation is back! But... was it ever gone?' Indeed, there has recently been a change in the academic climate, with a revival and more recognition of bi/multilingual

teaching being observed since the turn of the present century (Laviosa, 2014; G. Cook, 2010; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Widdowson, 2003). This trend is well reflected and further supported in a report titled '*Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World*' issued by the MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages, which explicitly calls for translation to be utilised as a language learning tool:

> In the course of acquiring functional language abilities, students are taught critical language awareness, interpretation and translation, historical political consciousness, social sensibility, and aesthetic perception. (MLA, 2007, p.4)

The signs of change are also evident in a recommendation published by the International Teacher Training Organisation (ITTO), encouraging its trainees to allow time for 'students to discuss, in their own language, any questions they have about lessons and vocabulary', citing translation as 'a great tool to use in the TEFL classroom' and further describing the ideal classroom as one where 'students are free to use L1 whenever they want, but choose not to because in their classroom it was normal and natural to speak English, not special or scary'.[5] Similarly, Malmkjær (1998, p.1) observed translation's gain in visibility and respectability since the latter years of the past century 'among language teaching professionals, even within the EFL community', following a long period of strong vilification. Carreres (2006; 2014) noted a massive change in attitudes towards translation studies as a field and a profession, opening the door for a reassessment of its role in language teaching. Indeed, Carreres further states that this reassessment is already taking place with the inclusion of translation in the *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning* after a long period of confusion concerning the purpose of using translation in language teaching.

The shift has even seen research within SLA go from essentially ignoring translation (G. Cook. 2010, p.21), to gradually endorsing its reassessment in language learning (Laviosa, 2020, p.273). For example, a key reason why SLA research took exception to translation in language learning was the idea that it promotes interference (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p.19); indeed the *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*[6] 'by no means entails the use of translation' (Larsen-Freeman

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[5] https://www.tefl-online.com/tefl-jobs/online-tefl-articles/l1-in-the-classroom/

[6] Comparing the students' native language and the second language to determine differences and similarities, in addition to predicting students' difficulties.

& Anderson 2015, p.25), although there was scarcely any investigation of whether such a notion was valid (G. Cook, 2010, p.87). Recent SLA research has highlighted that linguistic differences and similarities between two languages play a facilitative role in language learning by 'speeding up acquisition', as well as being conducive affectively, particularly when producing the L2 (Ellis & Shintani 2014, p.245). In this vein, translation has been found to be quite effective as a noticing technique aimed at acquiring key grammatical points in the L2. In a study carried out in the Iranian context, Soleimani & Heidarika (2017) concluded that 'the use of translation significantly affected participants' noticing and learning the targeted grammatical structures' (p.1), while Laufer & Girsai (2008) found that incorporating contrastive analysis and translation activities in a text-based communicative lesson contributed significantly to acquiring new vocabulary. Such contributions have further fuelled the questioning of the bias towards monolingualism in language pedagogy and thus SLA as a field has become more open to bi/multilingualism in language education (Ortega, 2014), and has seen an authority on contrastive linguistics in Carl James to argue that ignoring the L1 is akin to 'burying your head in the sand and hoping that effortless acquisition will take place in time' (James, 2005, p.11). As such, the role of translation in L2 learning now forms an essential part of SLA research with respect to investigating how the L1 aids L2 learning, although experimental studies 'are still rare' (Laviosa, 2022, p.14).

Also, with the monolingual approach increasingly being questioned, Kerr (2015, p.3) asserts that it should now be a matter of 'how' and 'how often' the mother tongue is used rather than questioning its value. Furthermore, there are situations in which drawing on the mother tongue should be actively encouraged instead of being merely tolerated (Kerr, 2015). Indeed, since the turn of the current century, the question in Germany has actually been 'how' to use translation rather than 'whether' translation should be used (Pym, 2018). A notable example of this is the *Welten: Introductory German* textbook, recently published by Augustyn and Euba (2016), in which a pre-reading translation task is the first exercise in the first chapter. Translation activities are also present throughout the book and it is included in assessment (Augustyn & Euba, 2016)

In addition, in what may be a clear sign of the times as far as translation in language education is concerned, Jeremy Harmer – a prominent figure in ELT – has gone from virtually ignoring translation and the mother tongue in the (2007) volume of his *How to Teach English* to devoting two full pages to translation in his book *Essential Teacher Knowledge* only five years later

(2012). In the latter, Harmer (2012) recommends that students' L1 be 'acknowledged' at all times. Harmer (2012) also calls for translation activities to be introduced in the L2 class, since it 'can aid motivation and help the students to think more carefully about language' (p.171). He further argues that activities in which 'students can translate short texts and then compare their translations with those of their classmates' are useful for all students irrespective of their proficiency level.

An even clearer sign of the times can be observed in Australia, where translation was reintroduced in the Australian Curriculum for Languages in 2014 following four decades of absence (Scarino, 2016). More recently in Europe, the Council of Europe (2018, 2021) updated its 2001 volume of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and introduced translation, referred to as cross-linguistic mediation, among four important language activities. More recently, translation has been included in the reading and writing sections of the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations sat by students across the UK, except for Scotland (Barnes, 2021).

Hall & Cook (2012) argue that academic and political changes surrounding the field of language teaching and learning have contributed to enabling the recent resurgence of interest in translation and own language use. These have combined with other factors, including mass migration and globalisation, in addition to the increasing acceptance that there have always been more non-native than native English teachers around the world, which have led to a reassessment of the important role of bi/multilingualism in language use at both individual and societal levels (May, 2014; Crystal, 2003). In a similar vein, McLaughlin (2022) believes the factors influencing the rise of translation once again in language teaching are two-fold. First, migration and globalisation have resulted in an increase in the practice of translation across different domains, including education, and second there is 'more awareness of the multilingualism of language learners many of whom already translated at home or in their community' (McLaughlin, 2022, p.4).

Indeed, major developments at the societal and educational levels are believed to have brought about new turns observed by academics and practitioners in language education (Conteh & Meier 2014; Laviosa & González-Davies, 2020). One concerns a growing recognition of the fact that today's world is much more globalised, resulting in most societies being increasingly

bi/multilingual, i.e. most individuals are bi/multilingual to a certain degree. The second pertains to 'the tension between diversity and inclusion in mainstream educational provision in relation to language diversity' (Conteh & Meier, 2014, p.2). Such factors have contributed to the emergence of what has been termed the *multilingual turn* (May, 2014), thanks to which the monolingual ideology in language teaching has been 'upended', in turn paving the way for the inclusion of bi/multilingualism in language education theory and practice (McLaughlin, 2022, p.4). Not only has this shift contributed to a growing interest in translation, but it has also facilitated the emergence and spread of dynamic bi/multilingual practices such as translanguaging, defined as the 'multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage to make sense of their bilingual worlds' (García 2009, p.45)

The revival of translation within the language teaching community may in fact be the topic *du jour* insomuch as some have called it a 'translation turn' (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2021), thanks to which 'Translation right now has a bright future' (Huffmaster & Kramsch, 2020, p.186). Laviosa (2022) concurs and adds that the major revival in translation has been brought about as a consequence of 'current critiques of the monolingual bias in applied linguistic research and praxis, which assumes monolingualism to be the norm in human communication and native-speaker models a firm basis for language education' (p.13). As a result, monolingualism and nativeness are being rejected, which has opened up an avenue for a new paradigm to come to the fore that advocates inclusive multilingualism in language pedagogy (Laviosa, 2022, p.13). To this end, prominent educational linguists like Guy Cook (2010, p.xv) have called for translation to be 'a major aim and means of language learning, and a major measure of success', especially in classrooms where a single target language is being taught by a bilingual teacher. Another notable example is Scarino (2016), who points out that although identifying as 'applied linguist and educator' rather than a specialist in translation, she 'initiated the reinstatement of translation in the Australian Curriculum: Languages' (p.471).

Carreres et al., (2021, p.1) meanwhile note that significant progress has been made in recent years with regard to incorporating translation as a key tool in language education. Nonetheless, they concede that translation faces similar challenges to those of 20 years ago and that 'old misconceptions' lingering in some quarters to this day are hindering progress. Indeed, an example that may serve to support this last claim is the fact that some teachers are still forbidden from using their student's L1 in many contexts around the world (Pearce, 2022; Al-Balushi,

2020; Hartmann & Hélot, 2019). Furthermore, several universities in Saudi Arabia strongly prohibit L1 in policy and practice (Almayez, 2022; Bukhari, 2017), and some teachers still strictly adhere to an English-only approach (Alqahtani, 2022). The persistence of this monolingual orthodoxy could be attributed to what has been described by May (2014, p.18) as a 'research impasse', who adds that any substantive transformational change hinges on 'greater interdisciplinarity' which should involve 'fully exploring the potential synergies among SLA, TESOL and research in bilingualism and bilingual education' (May, 2014, p.20).

2.4 The Case Against Translation

Arguments against the use of translation in language teaching were first made in the 19th century by members of the early Reform Movement, with the same arguments being largely repeated since then by those in favour of the direct natural, and communicative methods of language teaching (Malmkjær, 1998, p.2). Initially, the objection was to the Grammar-Translation Method specifically, since its main focus was the written form of the language in addition to grammar, whereas the spoken form of the language received very little attention. Following this, 'The reaction against the use of GTM … transformed into a reaction towards all kinds of translation activities' (Bear, 1996, p. 228). Indeed, the backlash against translation was so strong that it was 'banned from the language classroom for quite a while' (Popovic, 2001, p.3). What is more, within some language institutions, the use of translation in the language classroom has become a sackable offence: 'Around the globe, there are language schools that threaten to dismiss teachers who use translation in class' (Kerr, 2015, p.9). Institutional pressure to abide strictly by the English-only policy in place in one Saudi Arabian context has led teachers, out of fear of losing their jobs, to avoid calling upon the students' L1 in any way, shape or form, despite appreciating its merits in the pedagogical process. In the words of one teacher in Almayez' (2022) study:

> …we are required to use English only. I realize the value of using Arabic in certain cases, but I don't want to jeopardize my job. I have to comply with the rules. I work under contractual basis and I'm not willing to risk it by breaking the university rules. (p.12)

One of the widespread arguments made against translation is that it is an unnatural activity and is therefore incapable of producing positive results. Putting forward this argument, Gatenby (1967, p.66) justified his reasoning by comparing how children acquire their first (or several) languages in a natural manner to the lack of such a natural process in the foreign language

classroom. He therefore claimed that 'to ask for translation is to ask for something unnatural' and further suggested that 'testing by translation is bad pedagogy' as it goes against the aim of getting students, who are being taught to not use their own language, to use English without needing to think. Thus, to ask a student to reproduce an English sentence in his/her own language interrupts that process and consequently presents the teachers with a 'Sisyphean labour' (Gatenby, 1967, pp.69–70).

A common objection to translation in language education is that it slows everything down and does not align with one of the main goals of communicative teaching: the development of fluency (G. Cook, 2010). That is, translation is considered an obstacle to achieving fluent communicative competence due to its emphasis on reading and writing and neglect of oral proficiency. In a list of common objections against translation mentioned in the literature and summarised by Carreres (2006, p.5), she notes the view that sees translation as 'an artificial stilted exercise that has no place in a communicative methodology' owing to its heavy emphasis on the two skills of reading and writing. The argument is that translation 'obstructs development of an ability to use the language automatically' as translation as a process is deemed a 'slow and laborious one, focused more upon accuracy than fluency' (G. Cook, 2010, p.88). Besides, it is further argued that a student who has learnt a language through translation will always resort to the own language first when trying to produce or comprehend a target language utterance. In other words, translation stops learners 'from thinking in the foreign-language' (Malmkjær, 1998, p.6), thereby impacting the pace of communication and their overall L2 development.

The issue of interference is a major concern as far as the opponents of translation are concerned. It is feared that linguistic interference could arise when students view the foreign language through their own language (Pan & Pan, 2012, p.4). Discussing the reasons why translation fell out of favour as a teaching methodology, Malmkjær (1998, p.6) noted the argument raised with respect to interference, which could 'mislead students into thinking that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one'. This argument seems to be in line with that of Heltai (1989), who stated that 'translation is a dangerous exercise, since it enhances interference from the mother tongue' (p.292). Furthermore, Carreres (2006, p.5) pointed to the contention that 'translation into L2 is counterproductive in that it forces learners to view the foreign language always through the prism of their mother tongue; this causes interferences and a dependence on L1 that inhibits free expression in L2'. According to Mitchell and Myles (2004, p.19), 'everyday

observation tells us that learners' performance in a second language is influenced by the language, or languages, they already know'.

Translation has also been viewed as unsuitable as a classroom activity as it 'takes up valuable time which could be used to teach [the] four skills' (Malmkjær, 1998, p.6). Translation is also deemed to be 'time consuming and wasteful' (Duff, 1989, p.5). Moreover, it is argued that having to include two languages prevents students from receiving sufficient foreign language input (Pan & Pan, 2012, p.4) because 'in deciding how far we are justified in using the learner's mother tongue, we must remember that the time spent using it is time not spent using the foreign language' (Wilkins, 1974, p.83). Echoing a similar sentiment, Harmer (2012, p.170) articulates several arguments against using the students' L1 in the classroom, stating that 'we want our students to think in English, not in their L1. We want to create an English environment in the classroom'.

Harmer (2012) seems to place particular emphasis on more English when it comes to monolingual classes, stating that if time is spent using the L1, the students will be prevented from receiving 'fantastically good comprehensible input from the teacher', in addition to missing out on 'much English exposure' (p.171). The argument is that the limited classroom time presents the only opportunity for students to be exposed to the new language, driving the monolingual principle advocating for maximising the L2 and steering clear of the L1 (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In this vein, Hawkins (1987, p.92), in support of maximum L2 exposure which the L1 is believed to threaten, likens L2 teaching to 'gardening in the gale', i.e. seeds sowed by the teacher are likely to be blown away when the students are away from the class. Successful L2 acquisition therefore 'lies in exposure' (Marsh, 2002, p.9). Translation, at least by the traditional definition, is also thought to have very little, if anything, to offer in terms of improving language skills as a whole, since it is 'confined to only two skills – reading and writing' (Duff, 1989, p.5). Indeed, it is further argued that 'translation is independent of the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening' (Malmkjær, 1998, p.6).

2.5 Arguments in Defence of Translation
In terms of defending the use of translation, the perspective is that translation has been misunderstood and misused, thus falling a victim to criticism of the Grammar-Translation

Method. In this vein, Carreres (2006, p.5) argues that 'the problem was not translation as such, but a teaching methodology that abstracted language from its communicative function', while Howatt (1984, p.161) raises the question 'Was it really translation that the reformers objected to a hundred years ago, or, as Prendergast suggests, the way in which it was used?' As a matter of fact, translation is essentially linked to a communicative purpose as it occurs in the real world. Indeed, 'translation happens everywhere, all the time, so why not in the classroom?' (Duff, 1989, p.6). Pym (2018) concurs and adds that the use of translation, at the right place and time, can enhance communicative competence. That is, Pym argues, translation can 'maintain the primacy of spoken communication' promoted by communicative approaches through 'using a lot of spoken translation, or interpreting if you will' (Pym, 2018, p.13).

Those in favour of translation aver that its nature and purpose have been misunderstood, further adding to the confusion surrounding its use and hence impacting its place in English language teaching. An example of this is the misconception that translation is only useful when working towards a goal (i.e. producing professional translators), rather than being a means that can be used to aid language learning. Such misunderstanding of the nature of translation in language teaching is found in Källkvist's (2008, p.1) article, which looks at the effect of translation on grammar acquisition. Her contribution departs from the premise that translation as a pedagogical tool 'represents a focus-on-formS activity[7] since target structures have been selected in advance for deliberate attention in the L2 classroom', which is reminiscent of the old school Grammar-Translation Method. She further argues that while translation is still part of language teaching, it is of no relevance to most L2 students unless they are seeking a career in teaching or professional translation and interpreting, such that being competent in translation is a requirement. This presents clarity on a matter that has contributed to much of the long-standing controversy with regard to the value of translation in language education classrooms as put by Cordero (1984, p.351):

> Regretfully, much of the controversy of the place of translation in second language acquisition has been at cross-purposes, since the nature of translation is frequently misunderstood, and its function in the learning process not specified.

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[7] Teaching discrete grammatical points in separate lessons (Long, 1996).

To view translation as merely a skill that is approached once students have arrived at an advanced level of proficiency, Cordero (1984) further contends, is to deny the teacher 'a valuable medium of instruction' (p.351). Moreover, challenging the argument that translation is only appropriate for those seeking a professional career in translation, G. Cook (2010) and Malmkjær (1998) reject this distinction and provide arguments against it. According to Cook (2010, p.xx), being able to translate is 'part of everyday bilingual language use – in personal, professional and public life', which makes translation an ability all learners need. G. Cook (2010) also argues that translation helps learners gain deeper knowledge of the new language, which in turn enhances monolingual communicative competence since 'bilingual knowledge is always implicated in monolingual use, and it makes little sense to think one can exist without the other' (p.xx). Furthermore, by introducing students to 'as many applications of their linguistics skills as possible', it is believed that translation will prove useful in preparing students for their later specialisation at university and in their professional careers (Malmkjær 1998, p.9). As some learners will become translators, there is no reason why translation as a skill 'should not have a place in the language classroom' (Malmkjær 2010, p.187).

Furthermore, V. Cook (2001) notes that training students to be able to mediate between the two languages is a learning objective itself; if ignored, learners will 'find it difficult to carry out the jobs of interpreters, business negotiators or travel representatives' (p.xx). This is especially important in the case of ESAP students, who are likely to translate and interpret in their chosen careers in future, as highlighted by Aurelia (2012), who points out that the ESAP teacher's duty is 'to occupy them [their students] with the necessary skills in order to effectively operate in English in the new working environment' (p.5476). One is, of course, translation as she further avers that a student of 'English for Legal Purposes' is likely to have to translate not only legal words but also legal systems (Aurelia, 2012, p.5478).

Addressing the argument of interference, Malmkjær (1998) acknowledges that translation does indeed produce negative transfer from the L1, but argues that all bilinguals, regardless of their level of proficiency, will inevitably face an issue of interference one way or another; 'it cannot be completely avoided' (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p.139). If anything, Malmkjær (1998) contends that 'translation encourages awareness and control of interference' since awareness and control are 'an important component of the skill of translating' (p.9). Indeed, an appropriate application of translation may help 'counteract learners' tendencies to transfer structures from

their mother tongue' (Witte, Harden & Harden, 2009, p.38). Harbord (1992) meanwhile asserts that whether translation is allowed or banned, transfer will still inevitably occur as part of the process of acquiring an L2. The views expressed by students in Zhang and Pang's (2014) study indicated an appreciation of the value of translation in highlighting the differences and similarities between languages. Laviosa (2022, p.14) also considers that transfer, either positive or negative, should now be deemed a natural process that takes place when a student is exposed to the L2.

The argument that successful L2 acquisition is solely dependent on separating students' own language and the target language has also been questioned, with Stern (1992, p.282) contending that 'The L1–L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life'. Thus, language teaching that embraces and applies this has a higher a chance of success than one that dismisses it (V. Cook, 2001). To attempt to teach monolingually, pretending the students' L1 does not exist, is believed to be detrimental and represents a profound misunderstanding of how acquiring new knowledge, language in this context, takes place. That is, any form of learning, including language learning, is built and scaffolded on existing knowledge; learning does not happen in a vacuum. In a language classroom, what students bring with them is a considerable amount of knowledge about their own language, which they will use to relate to the new language and vice versa (Widdowson, 2003, p.160). To restrict students from using their L1 is to deny them a highly valuable, if not their best, resource (Kerr, 2014).

Some researchers who are in favour of incorporating translation in ELT actually consider it a fifth skill (e.g. Campbell, 2002; Ross, 2000; Stibbard, 1998). In addition, the CEFR refers to translation, reconceptualised as mediation, as a fifth skill (Council of Europe, 2018). The belief is that translation plays a role in aiding communication and understanding and thus is a key social skill. The interaction and cooperation between people which translation entails makes it a very beneficial tool in foreign language teaching also. Moreover, translation can be used to assess and test different competences, which means the suggestion that it is entirely different from the other language skills when it relies on and includes them is misleading:

> So, far from being independent of the other four skills, translation is in fact dependent and inclusive of them, and language students who are translating will be forced to practise them. It is misleading to suggest that translation is radically different from other language skills if it depends on and includes them. So there is no reason to argue

translation is a time waster in language teaching at least on those grounds. (Malmkjær, 1998, p.8)

Translation should therefore be perceived as a skill that offers a much more comprehensive approach to language learning. Weigt (2008) concurs and argues that translation should be taught and practised in the classroom along with reading, writing, speaking and listening. He goes on to suggest providing translation activities in the classroom, as well as allowing mono and bilingual dictionaries to enable students to find L1 equivalents for L2 words, phrases, or chunks when they feel there is a need to do so. This is particularly important as bilingualism does not automatically guarantee the ability to translate from one language to another. Pym et al., (2013) sought the views of practitioners, asking language teachers across Europe whether they viewed translation as a fifth skill and found consensus, particularly in Germany, that teachers do indeed perceive it as such. Indeed, this notion has been discussed in the German context since 1963 (Pym, 2018).

To allow students to use their mother tongue is to respect their identity since a vast number of individuals define themselves by the language they speak (Kerr, 2015). Indeed, as put by Harmer (2012, p.170), 'part of a student's identity comes from the language(s) they speak. We should encourage our students to celebrate their multilingual identities'. Pertinent to this claim, implementing an English-only approach has created tension between linguists and policy in Malawi since it neglects the multilingual reality of the country at the level of society and pedagogy (Reilly, 2019). As such, taking into account the humanistic aspect is believed to be vitally important in creating a relaxed classroom atmosphere, which in turn is conducive to the learning process. This can reduce the anxiety likely to be induced in students by being in a L2 classroom, particularly in the early stages of learning a new language. In this vein, Stibbard (1998, p.71) remarked that the:

> …justification for the use of translation is also found in the role assigned to it in affective-humanistic approaches in TEFL, which emphasise the need to reduce anxiety in the early stages of language learning by allowing some use of the mother tongue.

Indeed, embarking on learning a new language is a journey likely to be fraught with challenges. One such concerns the psychological aspect, as learners may experience anxiety and nervousness, which translation is believed to have the ability to lower and alleviate (Pan & Pan, 2012). The role of translation, it could be argued, may become more vital when levels of stress

and anxiety are further increased due to external circumstances, such as the mental challenges arising from the coronavirus pandemic. Indeed, students reported increased levels of stress and anxiety attending classes during the COVID-ravaged academic years (e.g. Appleby et al., 2022).

Furthermore, at this end of the debate, translation is not deemed a waste of time but rather an excellent tool that can keep things moving without any disruption to the classroom in terms of time and the speed of communication (G. Cook, 2010). Indeed, translation in the language classroom is likened to a 'lubricant' that 'keeps the wheels of the lesson moving smoothly; thus it saves time' (Prodromou, 2002, p.7). Similarly, Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009, p.33) have come up with what they term 'the sandwiching technique', i.e. 'statement in L2, restatement in L1 and again in L2', which they argue will not only keep the lesson moving but also create a genuine foreign language atmosphere. Using this technique for, say, an unknown expression 'steals very little time away from the FL' and 'often helps without interrupting the flow of a conversation or even being noticed' (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p.80).

2.6 Beliefs and Attitudes Towards Translation in Empirical Research
2.6.1 Beliefs and why they matter
The study of teachers' beliefs has been a feature of language teaching research for well over two decades, with the keen interest in the area being driven by recurring notions that a potential relationship between beliefs and practice may exist and that insights into teachers' beliefs enables a better understanding of teachers and teaching (2015). In terms of what the term 'beliefs' means, the relevant literature offers numerous, different definitions – extensively discussed by Skott (2014) who notes the term is 'used to designate individual, subjectively true, value-laden mental constructs that are the relatively stable results of substantial social experiences and that have significant impact on one's interpretation of and contributions to classroom practice' (p. 19). Meanwhile, it is widely acknowledged that teachers' beliefs are likely to be shaped through experiences of their own; these include prior schooling experiences, teaching experiences, teacher education programmes or even through collaborative work with their colleagues. More importantly, the beliefs held by the teachers are expected to significantly influence their practice in the sense that their teaching and in-class decision making is likely to be guided by those beliefs. For example, a teacher viewing monolingual teaching as the best approach will most likely disregard the potential value of the students' L1 in their practice. Nonetheless, the relationship between beliefs and practice can be complex (Borg 2003), and

teachers' beliefs may not align with what they do in practice, i.e. teachers may speak favourably of teaching monolingually but end up using the students' L1 quite heavily in the practice. Such misalignment could occur consciously or unconsciously; indeed teachers may, for instance, not be aware of the extent to which they have employed Arabic in their practice and research has shown teachers tend to underestimate their use of the L1 in class (Cook & Hall 2012), or owing to factors relating to their students or the context. Since the relationship between beliefs and practice is central to the current inquiry, investigating teachers' beliefs offers an insight into their practice as beliefs are often deemed 'precursors to behaviour, i.e., individuals enact practices based on the beliefs that they hold' (Buehl & Beck 2014), not to mention that making teachers aware of mismatches between their beliefs and practices can encourage reflection which aids professional development. It could also have implications as far as learner outcomes are concerned since teachers guide the learning process and impact their students' achievements (Baeshin 2016).

2.6.2 Beliefs on Translation in English Language Teaching (ELT) research

Empirical research into the use of translation in ELT with respect to attitudes towards and the purposes of its use has been conducted by a host of researchers. Liao's (2006) study was conducted in the Taiwanese context and explored university-level students' attitudes towards translation through a survey and follow-up interviews. The study found that the overwhelming majority of respondents held positive beliefs about the use of translation in language learning, believing that it plays an instrumental role in 'acquiring' the language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking), in addition to being useful in 'acquiring' idiomatic expressions in the language. The students who took part in the study also reported that they most frequently employed translation to 'learn English vocabulary, idioms, phrases, and grammar, to read, write, and speak English, and to check their reading and listening comprehension' (Liao, 2006, p.203). In the same study, the students for the most part believed the use of translation in the process of learning English to be inevitable (Liao, 2006), although they also had reservations about translation since they believed it could cause interference between Chinese and English and could be a hindrance as far as thinking in English was concerned. Thus, they believed that there should be less translation and more English as they progressed with respect to their English proficiency. This view has also been supported theoretically by Butzkamm (2003, p.36), who notes that 'with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of the mother tongue becomes largely redundant and the FL will stand on its own two feet'.

The inevitability of having to make use of the students' mother tongue also appeared in responses to Hall and Cook's (2013) global survey, which aimed to explore teachers' attitudes towards the use of students' own language and translation in ELT. Although the majority (61%) of 2,785 teacher respondents teaching English in 111 different countries around the world (79 of whom were Saudi based) considered that the students' mother tongue should be excluded, 73.5% still reported allowing it at certain points in a lesson. Most of the teachers in this huge worldwide study reported employing their students' mother tongue to translate vocabulary and explain grammar when they deemed it necessary. Many of them also noted the positive role translation played in building rapport with their students, in addition to creating a good atmosphere in the class. What is more, Hall & Cook (2013) found that the overwhelming majority of students were reported to call upon their own language almost invariably in the classroom, using bilingual dictionaries and comparing English grammar to that of their respective mother tongue. The findings also revealed that students, particularly those at lower levels of proficiency, were reported to engage quite frequently in oral and written translation activities.

In Ireland, Kelly & Bruen (2015) investigated the attitudes of 12 faculty members at a higher education institute teaching German and Japanese in predominantly English-speaking undergraduate language classes. They found that the overall attitude towards translation in foreign language teaching was positive. According to the findings, the teachers believed translation to be conducive to vocabulary and grammar acquisition, checking comprehension and creating a fun atmosphere in the language classroom. However, the teachers noted that translation should be used with caution, warning against its overuse. The minority of the lecturers who reported not using any translation cited time pressure and the 'negative press' associated with translation in the literature as reasons.

Kharma & Hajjaj (1989) investigated the use of the mother tongue in the L2 classroom in Kuwait through a survey, observing classes, and interviewing teaching staff. They concluded that the majority of the teachers and students viewed using the mother tongue as facilitating L2 acquisition. Indeed, the findings revealed that most students (81%) felt 'happy' when able to draw upon their L1, especially when they knew something but were unable to express it in English. Furthermore, in terms of the purposes for using the mother tongue in the class, translation came first (71%), with teachers reporting they translated to explain new or difficult

lexical items, followed by translating to explain grammatical points (66%). These results are similar to the findings of recent studies investigating the same phenomenon (e.g. Alkhudair 2019; Bukhari, 2017; Liu et al., 2004).

Bukhari (2017) carried out a PhD study at a Saudi Arabian university, a similar context to this research, and found that translation was the third most common purpose for using the students' L1 in the class. Indeed, 16% of the Arabic utterances detected in classroom observations were Arabic translations of English vocabulary, or vice versa. Dealing with administrative issues (e.g. classroom management) and grammar explanation were two other common purposes for using the students' L1.

In a UK-based study, Carreres (2006) asked second- and third-year students doing a course in modern languages at the University of Cambridge whether they viewed translation as a useful language learning activity. All the student participants without exception were in favour of translation being 'taught' in a modern language degree. As Carreres (2006, p.9) noted, 'translation is unambiguously perceived by students as conducive to language learning'. Asked what area of the language they felt translation improved most, all students cited vocabulary (100%), and grammar and writing received the second highest scores (96%). Furthermore, over half the population surveyed did not believe they would make faster progress in learning the foreign language through other methods, as opposed to translation. This suggests that they hold the view that 'translation is among the most effective methods to learn a language, if not the most effective' (Carreres, 2006, p.9). Although the general attitude was positive and translation was perceived as being conducive to learning, responses to whether translation classes were enjoyable were less positive, indicating that they were not universally viewed as fun.

2.6.3 Beliefs on Translation in ESAP-focused studies

Concerning the use of translation in ESAP-focused contexts, Kavaliauskienė & Kaminskienė (2007) surveyed the views of 45 ESAP students enrolled in a Social Sciences college at a Lithuanian university. The data generated from the students, who were doing a degree in Psychology and Social Work, suggested that 'all the students are quite positive about the use of mother tongue in English classes' (Kavaliauskienė & Kaminskienė, 2007, p.136). The findings also indicated that the less proficient students had more positive attitudes to drawing on their mother tongue compared to those who were more proficient. The researchers further concluded

that all students naturally relied on their mother tongue in ESAP learning, but how much of the native language might be needed depended on their proficiency in general English and also on their chosen specialisation, i.e. ESAP domain. Consistent results were generated in a similar study carried out in the same context by Janulevičienė and Kavaliauskienë (2015), who concluded that ESAP students relied heavily on their mother tongue. Indeed, all the students without fail, regardless of the domain of ESAP and proficiency level, emphasised the need for translation when it came to subject matter terminology, with the vast majority reporting using bilingual dictionaries. Moreover, Kavaliauskienë and Kaminskienë (2007) concluded that translation activities are valuable in raising students' awareness with respect to language transfer and could even serve to aid their L2 development. These findings are in line with Tudor's (1987) conclusion almost 20 years earlier; implementing translation activities from German to English served to 'heightened their awareness of English' (p.272).

More recently, Xhemaili (2013) administered a survey and conducted interviews with ESAP students and teachers at the faculties of Law and Public Administration in a North Macedonian university to gauge their attitudes towards the use of the mother tongue in ESAP pedagogy. The results showed that 75% of the students expressed a preference for using their L1, Albanian in this context, in the ESAP class. In particular, the overwhelming majority of the students (82%) stated they would like their L1 to be drawn upon when 'explaining difficult concepts' and 'translating unknown words and difficult words' (Xhemaili, 2013, p.193). The position of the teaching staff when it came to using the mother tongue in the ESAP class was far less positive, with over half of them disapproving of its use.

Chirobocea's (2018) study presented a questionnaire with open-ended and close-ended items to a set of undergraduate students studying for a degree in biology, ecology, agriculture, and horticulture at a Romanian university. The questionnaire was administered after the researcher implemented translation activities from the L1, Romanian, to English in her class to:

> …introduce, practise or revise specialised vocabulary, as a means to exemplify the use of certain domain-specific phrases and collocations, but also as a means to identify and eliminate negative transfer from Romanian into English, in the context of the specific domain. (p.221)

Translation from English into the students' L1 was employed to ease understanding of difficult subject-specific terms, phrases, and collocations. The findings were favourable concerning the

use of translation in ESAP, with over 85% of the students contending that translation activities were conducive to achieving a better understanding of specialised English. In addition, a significant number of the students found translation activities during the lessons most useful for both grammar and vocabulary equally. Furthermore, almost 84% of the students believed their understanding of ESAP concepts would further improve should the number of translation activities in class increase (Chirobocea, 2018).

In Saudi Arabia, the context of this study, AlTarawneh & AlMithqal (2019) sought to investigate the perceptions of ESAP teachers and students in a PY programme at an applied medical college. The findings from data generated via a survey and interviews indicated that the teachers and students alike held negative attitudes towards the use of L1 in English for medical purposes classes. The general consensus was that using the L1 was rather a hindrance in such classes. However, some of the teaching staff approved of the use of translation in certain, limited situations, namely when teaching new, difficult medical terms, or giving complex task instructions. The findings also revealed that some teachers were in favour of providing more clarification in L1 with 'weak students' (p.25). Another Saudi Arabian study with a focus on medical English generated considerably different results. Rushwan (2017, p.247) stated that 'In this research, it became clear that the use of translation in ESP medical classes is instrumental and beneficial for the learners'.

2.6.4 Translation in EGAP and ESAP classrooms: Why and what for?

With the use of translation in bilingual teaching deemed inescapable, whether as part of own language use generally or as the main focus of attention in other situations (G. Cook, 2010), research has further shown it to be called on for various functions and reasons. These include explaining grammatical points, explaining vocabulary, checking comprehension, saving time, classroom management, giving instructions, reducing students' anxiety, and dealing with students' low proficiency in the L2 (e.g. An & Macaro, 2022; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Bukhari, 2017; Baeshin, 2016; Alsuhaibani, 2015; Hall & Cook, 2012; Macaro, 2005; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989).

Reviewing the existing literature, it is apparent that it is quite common for teachers to rely on translation to facilitate vocabulary acquisition. Indeed, translation has long been recognised by influential theorists in the field as being efficient, if not crucial, when it comes to teaching

vocabulary (G. Cook, 2010). In Dickson's (1996, p.14) study, teachers reported 'explaining meaning' as the most challenging function to carry out in the target language describing it as a 'quite difficult' task. In this regard, research has shown that L1 glosses are more effective than L2 glosses, especially with beginners: 'L1 glossing led to higher gains in vocabulary learning than its L2 counterpart' (Kim, Lee & Lee, 2020, p.6). Similar findings have been reported by Macaro (2005), who notes that evidence now exists to support the notion that some terms are better taught and learnt through the provision of their L1 translations rather than explaining them exclusively in the L2. The author goes on to conclude that 'there is no evidence so far that teacher codeswitching is detrimental to lexical acquisition' (Macaro, 2005, p.49).

Little wonder, then, that even in studies where the teachers were L2 speakers with allegiance to an L2 only ideology, the use of L1 to deal with new vocabulary was considered to be of benefit. There is particular recognition of its merits when it comes to classes where specialised lexicon features frequently. For example, An & Macaro (2022) carried out a study in a Chinese context where the teachers were native speakers of English with almost no command of the students' L1. Despite the teachers adopting the virtual and maximal positions (Macaro, 2001; 2009), i.e. that the L1 should be excluded and discouraged, some teachers recognised the pedagogical value of translation as far as vocabulary learning was concerned, conceding that although they 'do not encourage [it] but they do it themselves anyways' (An & Macaro 2022, p.14). Further, in Hartmann & Hélot's (2019, p.101) study, some teachers acknowledged the use and usefulness of resorting to translation to ensure vocabulary comprehension having failed to do so through other strategies, such as drawing and miming. Teachers are also willing to allow their students to use a bilingual dictionary and one teacher even expressed a wish they spoke the students' L1 so they could provide their students with L1 equivalents when needed (An & Macaro, 2022). Similarly, in Costa Rica, one teacher who was in favour of an L2-only approach recounted allowing her students to translanguage until they achieved full comprehension of a word if her L2 explanation proved insufficient (Fallas-Escobar, 2020).

Indeed, Chirobocea (2018) notes that translation is particularly useful when new vocabulary is being presented, more specifically when it is specialised terminology, which of course represents a significant aspect of ESAP learning. She further adds that the teacher can either present the new words with their translation equivalents in a list or allow students to use bilingual dictionaries. In support of this, students in An and Thomas (2021) and An and Macaro

(2022) said they would appreciate the teacher pausing every now and then for them to look up new words in a bilingual dictionary. In line with this, teachers at a higher education institution in Ireland reported finding translation appropriate to deal with complex terminology, an approach which the students showed appreciation for (Kelly & Bruen, 2015). According to Swan (1997), resorting to translation when the students are introduced to new words is inevitable and research has shown that teachers accept its inevitability even if they are not in favour of any L1 use in their practice (e.g. An & Macaro, 2022). When translation is used to facilitate vocabulary acquisition, the teachers may have further motives in addition to ease of vocabulary comprehension. These include, but are not limited to, maintaining students' interest (Copland & Neokleous, 2011) and saving time (Kelly & Bruen, 2015).

Translation has also been found to be a popular approach in teaching grammar (e.g. Akramy, Habibzada & Hashemi, 2022; Turnbull, 2018; Bukhari, 2017; Alsuhaibani 2015; Hall & Cook, 2013; Copland & Neokleous, 2011). According to V. Cook (1999; 2001), while deciding which of the two languages, the students' L1 or the target language, is most effective in teaching grammar remains a practical issue, multiple studies have demonstrated that 'even advanced L2 users are less efficient at absorbing information from the L2 than from the L1'. In Dickson's (1996) study, most teachers found teaching grammar using the target language to be the most difficult function. It is therefore hardly a surprise that teaching grammar or explaining grammatical concepts that students may find too difficult to understand in the target language has been given as a common reason for teachers making use of translation and for own language use in the classroom (e.g. Bukhari, 2017; Macaro, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994; Franklin, 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Mitchell, 1988). Indeed, 88% of the teachers in Franklin's (1990) reported that the learners' own language was their medium of choice for explaining grammar.

Also, learners' feedback has been found to be positive in some studies, reporting better understanding of grammatical concepts, namely prepositions of place and time, when explained in their own language (Tang, 2002; Macaro, 1997). In Tang's (2002) study, 72% of the students were in favour of including their own language in explaining complex grammar points, deeming it necessary. Similarly, students in Kelly and Bruen's (2015) study viewed the L1 as helpful in ensuring every grammatical point was fully understood, with one claiming that it would not have been possible to grasp grammatical points without the L1. Furthermore, in Polio and Duff's (1994) study, all six teachers teaching different languages, including Korean, Slavic and

German, confirmed using the learners' own language, English in these cases, in their grammar instruction. In fact, teachers were even reluctant to incorporate the target language when explaining grammar, more notably where they considered the two languages to be quite different as far as grammar was concerned (Polio & Duff, 1994). Similar findings were reported in Hall and Cook (2013), with most learners, from beginner up to advanced, employing their own language to compare the grammar of English to that of their own language.

Researchers such as V. Cook (2001), Butzkamm (2003) and Edstrom (2006) believe that L1 use can be a positive tool and may sometimes be necessary in teaching grammar. Turnbull (2001) is in tune with this argument, noting 'it is efficient to make a quick switch to the L1 to ensure that students understand a difficult grammar concept or an unknown word' (p.535). In this regard, even teachers who prefer teaching to be exclusively delivered in the L2 find the students' L1 of benefit when teaching grammar. One teacher in Baeshin (2016) revealed offering one-to-one grammar explanation should a student struggle to comprehend a grammatical point, adding she would even teach grammar in the L1 to the whole class in the case of incomprehension.

Furthermore, learners believe the inclusion of their own language in teaching grammar allows them to observe structural similarities between the two languages, which, according to them, further facilitates the learning process (Brooks-Lewis, 2009). This exact point was the reason why one teacher in Borg's (1998, p.18) study regularly encouraged his students to refer to their L1 when teaching grammar, calling it a 'useful' strategy which works as a 'eye-opener' for the students. Comparing the grammar of the L2 to that of the students' L1 was also among the most frequent functions for which the L1 was used in Turnbull's (2018) study. This supports Widdowson's (2003, p.153) view that:

> …explicit reference to the L1 would assist the learner in making the input comprehensible. Furthermore, such explicit reference would have the additional advantage of making formal features of the second language meaningful and noticeable at the same time…

In addition, translation has been found to be beneficial in reinforcing a grammatical point after finishing the lesson or straight after explaining the grammatical point. For example, Chirobocea (2018, p.73) provided translation activities in her ESAP classroom and noted that the learners tended to achieve better understanding of grammatical points 'when these are explained and practiced in comparison with L1, particularly difficult elements of English grammar that have

no or different correspondent in L1'. These, she recounted, might include present perfect, modal verbs and conditional rules. Additionally, the use of translation seems to have a key role in grammar instruction through facilitating the understanding of 'grammatical terminology' (Borg, 1998). In this regard, Antón and DiCamilla (1999, p.239) observe that 'L1 use also has a metalinguistic function when students are trying to produce complex linguistic forms or understand why they are using a particular linguistic form'. Indeed, students interviewed by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) reported that utilising the L1 to understand metalinguistic terminology played a facilitative role as far as grammar acquisition was concerned. Similarly, Scott and de la Fuente (2008, p.110) found that the L1 helps 'foster the development of metalinguistic terminology' and in turn eases comprehension of grammatical rules. In much the same vein, integrating the L1 in grammar teaching 'was seen to facilitate language skills development and various aspects of language learning i.e., metalinguistic awareness, input comprehension' within an ESP context in Turkey (Çelik, 2020).

Research also shows the use of L1 is a common practice in giving and explaining classroom instructions, with V. Cook (2005) recognising its value in that it is 'a short-cut for explaining tasks, tests, etc' (p.59). Teachers across many different contexts have reported using the students' L1 for the purpose of 'giving complex procedural instructions for carrying out an activity' (Macaro, 2005, p.69). It was indeed the most notable purpose for which teachers used the students' L1 in observations of language classrooms in England (Macaro, 1997). In the same study, the teachers noted that giving activity instructions in the L2 further complicated what could already be a difficult task, rendering use of the students' L1 the ideal way of dealing with such a challenge. Cameron (2001) and Butzkamm (2003) concur, noting that some task instructions are more complex than the task itself. Thus, it is perhaps the sensible approach for teachers to prefer 'one minute of instructions in the L1 and 9 minutes in the L2 doing the task than 9 minutes of instructions in the L2 and 1 minute in the L2 doing the task' (V. Cook, 2005, p.59). Evidently, this indicates an appreciation for the role of the L1 in saving time and speeding up classroom proceedings.

Atkinson (1987, p.243) acknowledged the communicative value of giving activity instructions in the target language but called for a careful approach when setting up activities for beginner learners, recommending 'a satisfactory compromise' for the benefits of the activities to be reaped. He suggested providing the instructions in the target language and then asking the

learners to repeat them in their own language to make sure everyone is fully aware of what they have to do, although it may be time-consuming. A more time-efficient approach has been proposed by Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009, p.53), who share the concern with respect to the complexity of activity instructions, particularly as far as lower-level students are concerned, and thus recommend using '*the sandwich technique*'. Sandwiching the translation of potentially complex words found in the instructions is thought to be an ideal way of using students' own language as it helps maintain genuine communication and creates a proper foreign language atmosphere in the pedagogical setting, which excessive use of own language, e.g. translating every word in the instructions will fail to achieve (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Further, Wilden and Porsch (2020) add that a major aim of using the L1 in setting up activities is likely to be 'saving time as well as increasing time-on-task by ensuring that all learners can follow (p.637).

Others have found giving instructions in the L1 advantageous in terms of getting students involved and engaged in the given task (Bukhari, 2017). Two teachers in de la Campa and Nassaji's (2009) study said they preferred the use of the L1 when giving activity instructions since it 'allows students to quickly engage with and practice using L2' (p.756). Sometimes, teachers may struggle to get an activity going if they only attempt to give the instruction in the L2 (Macaro, 1997). Indeed, ensuring the full message has successfully been conveyed is important for students to carry out tasks in the foreign language classroom. This was apparent in Macaro's (2001, p.539) research, in which using the student's own language was the teachers' favoured means of giving procedural instructions, citing fear of 'losing the class' should the learners fail to understand fully what they had to do among reasons why they did so.

It is little wonder, then, that using the L1 for the purpose of giving instructions was likewise quite popular among the teachers in Tang's (2002) study, since the students would sometimes look confused and puzzled having received instructions in English. The teachers in the same study noted they were keen on holding the students' attention and ensuring they fully understood and were following along. One teacher was even observed to translate his instructions into Chinese having provided them first in English, seemingly to 'ensure that every student was clear about what was said' (Tang, 2002, p.39).

There is also a tendency for students to use their L1 amongst themselves when they are faced with complex activity instructions. Melibari (2015) carried out a study in the same context as this inquiry and observed that students taught by language teachers with no Arabic proficiency tended to turn to their peers for translation of the instructions after their teacher had delivered them exclusively in English. Students who were still unable to understand the instructions failed to complete the given task and the teacher was unaware of the issue. In contrast, according to Melibari (2015), in classes taught by teachers who spoke their students' L1, they drew upon Arabic to ensure everyone understood. In a similar vein, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) found that through using their L1 in activities, students 'provide mutual help to each other that will lead to the solution of the problem' and in addition 'maintain each other's interest in the task throughout its performance' (p.237). This is important as otherwise the learning process can be significantly impacted, with the students becoming 'disengaged from the activity' due to not knowing what to do, especially if their proficiency level is weak (Melibari, 2015, p.134).

Furthermore, teachers translate or use the L1 in their classes to give instructions relating to a range of issues, such as exams and assessment (Bukhari, 2017; Yao, 2011; Burden, 2001; Franklin, 1990), or to maintain discipline (Kang, 2008; Franklin, 1990). According to one teacher in Tang's (2002) study, using the L1 to maintain order in class was more effective than using English. Studies have also demonstrated that teachers use translation as they deem it effective in terms of time-management in class (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Tsagari & Diakou, 2015; Mitchell, 1988). Teachers in de la Campa & Nassaji's (2009) research preferred to use the students' L1 when setting up exercises in the class as they considered it 'an important time saver', which in turn brought more benefits in terms of maximising the students' opportunities for L2 exposure (p.756). Mitchell (1988) reported that one teacher noted he relied on his students' L1 since it was conducive in terms of 'speed of communication' (p.31). Similarly, Macaro (2005) observed that across many different contexts, teachers make recourse to translation 'in order to speed things up because of time pressures (e.g. exams)' (p.205). Sometimes, teachers find themselves in situations in which they are required to cover an awful lot of material over a specified timespan, which may not be sufficient. In such a case, several teachers in Baeshin's (2016) study said that they were 'forced' to rely on their students' L1 (Arabic) to save time as teaching in 'English only is time-consuming', presenting an obstacle to completing the syllabus (p.462). Similarly, three out of four teachers in Copland and

Neokleous's (2011) research used the students' L1 (Greek) when explaining grammar and cited time saving as one reason, among others, including success of learning and reducing students' stress.

Studies have also shown that teachers take the psychological aspect into consideration in their practices (Alrabah, Alotaibi & Aldaihani, 2016; Kelly & Bruen, 2015; Copland & Neokleous, 2011). Indeed, language classrooms can be an intimidating environment even for adults, which may lead to anxiety and confusion if the class is delivered exclusively in the L2 (Çelik, 2020; Meyer, 2008). One teacher echoed this sentiment in Kelly and Bruen's (2015) study, suggesting 'It can also be somewhat of a shock if the students only hear the L2 in the classroom' (p.9). Little wonder then that several lecturers investigated by the same researchers in an Irish higher education context reported relying on the students' L1 as it 'helped to create a less intimidating and more relaxed atmosphere in the classroom' (Kelly & Bruen, 2015, p.9).

In this vein, Meyer (2008) believes incomprehension is mainly to blame when students experience feelings of stress and anxiety in the L2 class. Indeed, teachers in Tang's (2002) and Baeshin's (2016) research said their students looked confused and puzzled when they seemed unable to comprehend what was being said in the L2. It is for this reason Meyer (2008) argues that 'it is imperative that the students' comprehend what is happening both administratively in the classroom, and pedagogically with the target language' (p.148). To this end, most teachers tend to use the students' L1 to ensure their students understand, especially when they seem lost (Hartmann & Hélot 2019; Macaro, 2005). In Bukhari's (2017) work, teachers relied on translation to increase their students' comprehension and the students reported feeling more comfortable when their teachers used their L1, while learners in Çelik (2020) believed that translation boosted their self-confidence and lowered their stress and anxiety, in turn contributing to increased willingness to participate.

Although Atkinson (1987) notes that translating to check comprehension is an approach that is suitable with all students, regardless of where they are in terms of L2 proficiency, its use seems far greater with low-level students. Indeed, the issue of students' proficiency level appears quite frequently in the wider literature especially when teachers discuss the reasons they use their students' L1 (e.g. Kelly & Bruen, 2015; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Kang, 2008; Tang, 2002). Interestingly, studies have shown that the teachers will go as far as to flout institutional policies

forbidding use of the L1 when they realise their students lack adequate L2 proficiency (e.g. Lau, 2020; Bukhari, 2017; Baeshin, 2016). One teacher in Baeshin's (2016, p.285) study claimed to have been forced not to comply with the policy in place banning the use of Arabic as it transpired that teaching was 'sort of impossible and very very challenging' owing to the students' poor L2 competence.

Moreover, in a study exploring the use of translanguaging in the Malawian context, Lau (2020) found that all the teachers cited their students' lack of English proficiency as the biggest challenge they faced, rendering teaching and learning virtually impossible. To address the issue and ensure the students understood and were not left behind, one teacher reported that 'We come to mix with Chichewa a little bit so that we get to say what's important' even though 'it [Chichewa use] is not allowed' (p.214). In addition, Hall's (2020) survey of translanguaging in practice worldwide shows that drawing upon languages other than English is more common among teachers with classes of lower proficiency, 'defined here as beginner to pre-intermediate learners' (p.81). In Oman, Al-Balushi (2020) took up a teaching role at a national college where English only was the official policy. She noted she was committed to going by the English-mandated policy before she realised it was anything but feasible as she was astounded at how poor the students' L2 proficiency was: therefore, 'this led me to use L1 in some cases, especially when some students were struggling to understand the grammatical points introduced in class' (Al-Balushi, 2020, p.57).

Interestingly in this regard, the factors leading to the use of translation in the L2 class can at times be teacher-related. That is, in Kang's (2013) study in a South Korean context, the L1 was used in abundance by one teacher who attributed her reliance on Korean to her low proficiency in English. She said 'I fully understand that my English proficiency is low. This awareness definitely causes anxiety during classes' and as a result 'out of anxiety, I use Korean rather than English in many cases' (Kang, 2013, p.158). Similarly, also in South Korea, teachers in Liu and others' (2004) study cited a lack of self-confidence concerning their oral proficiency in English as a main reason for resorting to their L1. In fact, one teacher voiced a deep personal concern that his 'broken English' could harm students' English learning (Liu et al., 2004, p.628). Teacher's lack of confidence in using the L2 also has appeared in other studies across different contexts (e.g. Al-Shidhani, 2009; Franklin, 1990; Mitchell, 1988). In one study, language teachers 'openly admitted to using the L1 in order to compensate for a lack of L2 proficiency'

(Wilden & Porch, 2020, p.644), while grammar-translation remains a popular teaching method in EFL contexts in Afghanistan due to the teachers lack of L2 proficiency (Akramy, Habibzada & Hashemi, 2022).

Merritt et al. (1992, p.119), conducting research in Kenya, observed that teachers tend to express concern about their L2 linguistic competence, calling this phenomenon 'linguistic insecurity'. They noted that this insecurity seems to occur more when teachers are dealing with scientific concepts, particularly since the teachers they observed demonstrated a great deal of L2 competence in their practices (Merritt et al., 1992, p.119). Indeed, the nature of the material ESAP teachers deal with is deemed challenging (Melibari, 2015). Discussing the difficult nature of discipline-specific language, Woodward-Kron (2008) notes that 'a striking feature of scientific discourse is the presence of Graeco-Latinate affixes and roots in the technical terms, a feature which can create a barrier to comprehension'. This barrier was observed by Haroon (2005) in the tertiary Malaysian context, where teachers translated when they struggled to clarify new vocabulary, as calling it 'linguistic insecurity' (p.14).

Teachers may also sometimes rely on their students' L1 out of frustration at a lack of interaction and engagement from the students in their classes. Baeshin (2016) reported that one teacher made her feelings very clear on this issue: 'I was very frustrated. I was forced to use Arabic' (p.460). In this regard, students' unresponsiveness in L2 classes seems to arise when the teacher follows a monolingual approach which in turns creates a comprehension issue. Indeed, students in Çelik (2020, p.218) attributed their lack of interaction to the teacher 'relying on use of English as medium of instruction', an issue solved by utilising the L1. At other times, teachers may resort to the L1 out of 'sheer laziness' (Edstrom, 2006, p.14). Mitchell (1988) found that teaches cited tiredness as the reason why they relied on translation in their classes. In this regard, Turnbull (2001) suggests that teachers could make a habit of using translation in their practice as it is a tempting option when they feel tired. Furthermore, there are external factors, such as keeping up with the pacing guidelines provided by their institutions, the time available and preparing students for exams (Baeshin, 2016). Relatedly, teachers in de la Campa and Nassaji's (2009) study were critical of a course set up at a German university which required them to cover an awful lot of material in the L2 over a period of time that was deemed too tight. To mitigate this, the teachers reported drawing on their students' L1: 'The problem is that the

courses are too tightly structured, too much material that the students have to learn in too short a time' (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009, p.754).

2.7 Translation: An Issue of Definition

At the outset, while the popular view is that translation essentially entails transferring meaning from one language to another, it must be stressed that there is little agreement when it comes to how translation should be defined. Indeed, even though many translation scholars and researchers have attempted to provide a possible definition (see Ghazala 1995; Newmark, 1988; Catford, 1965), there continues to be a lack of consensus. Newmark (1991, p.34), commenting on the lack of agreement concerning exactly what translation is and what it involves, suggested that the term translation 'is complex and difficult to define' and thus many people would be hesitant to offer a definition if asked.

Sharing a similar view, G. Cook (2010, p.54) has argued that defining translation is a far from straightforward task, which is why the term translation 'is often used without a definition'. Why there is as yet no common, exhaustive definition of translation could be attributed to a host of reasons but want of trying is certainly not one. The literature on translation offers numerous definitions, but they usually represent specific, differing views of what translation is and how it should be practised. Widdowson (2014) suggests that the difficulty in defining translation lies in the ambiguity of the term and the conventional view of its nature, i.e. that one needs special expertise to translate.

Translation has sometimes been defined as 'an almost automatic transfer of meaning from one language into another', a similar notion to the principle underpinning the Grammar-Translation Method (Carreres, Noriega-Sánchez & Gutiérrez, 2021, p.13). However, objecting to such a limited view, Pym (2018, p.13) asserts that 'translation is not just one thing, and not just two things either. It is very probably not what many language teachers think it is'. For Pym (2018), translation is communication, since all the principles that communicative approaches are premised on can be incorporated in translation activities.

Discussing this issue, Colina (2015, p.12) notes that the challenges encountered in defining translation are a consequence of 'a multiplicity of perspectives on translation which are often governed by culture, purpose and genre'. Interestingly, some of the divergent perspectives that have contributed to the problem of definition have come from neighbouring academic fields. To

elaborate, translation studies – the academic field concerned with the study of translation – is a rapidly growing discipline, albeit relatively new (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997). Still finding its feet, the field has nonetheless attracted interest from other disciplines, such as linguistics, sociology, psychology and literature; in consequence, some of their theories have been imported into translation studies. As Jixing (2012, p.35) put it, 'The introduction of the theories from various kinds of disciplines and thoughts not only offers new perspectives for translation studies, but also brings new turns to it', thereby influencing how translation is defined.

It seems that translation has perhaps fallen victim to its own multi-faceted nature. That is, due to its versatility, it makes no sense to delimit translation to one or two definitions. Indeed, endeavours to define and confine translation have 'run into all sorts of problems' (G. Cook, 2010, p.xix). At the same time, as the nature of translation continues to be understood differently, coming up with a definition that covers all existing perspectives on translation is simply 'impracticable' (Colina 2015, p.12).

2.7.1 Definition of translation in language teaching

It is not hard to imagine that the confusion surrounding the definition of translation would affect its place within other disciplines to which it might have a contribution to make in one way or another. Translation in English language teaching, in particular – the focus of this research – has undoubtedly been impacted. Whenever there is a mention of translation, it is not unusual to come across the question of what translation is. What is more, a multitude of different terms have been used to refer to translation in language teaching, posing further challenges to arriving at a common definition and in turn affecting the application of translation in language pedagogy. One reason for there being a variety of terms to describe translation in language teaching is the need felt by some (e.g. Schäffner, 1998) to differentiate between translation as a means – the various forms of translation taking place in language pedagogy – and translation as an end – the purpose being to train and produce professional translators.

Among the various terms used in the literature by different researchers to describe the forms of translation in language pedagogy are the following: 'pedagogical translation' (Leonardi, 2010; Klaudy, 2003), 'scaffolding translation' and 'mental translation', 'pedagogic translation', 'educational translation' and 'didactic translation' (Laviosa, 2014), 'real translation' (Klaudy, 2003),'school translation' and 'professional translation' (Gile, 1995), and more recently

'dynamic translation' (Barnes, 2021). Most of these terms describe the same form of translation; namely, pedagogic translation, pedagogical translation, educational translation, didactic translation and school translation are all defined as 'the use of translation and translating in language learning and teaching' (Laviosa, 2022, p.13).

Arguing that clarifying terminology is an important step in restoring and reassessing translation in foreign language teaching, Gutiérrez (2018) notes that these terms have not usually been well received or embraced by scholars, researchers, or teachers. The term 'pedagogical translation', for instance, does not tend to be widely used. Gutiérrez (2018) believes that this could be down to the term not being 'widely known outside language pedagogy', or that it is considered an unreliable interdisciplinary term. She adds that 'the development of interdisciplinary areas often entails a certain degree of suspicion and scepticism in the fields involved, and this in turn affects terminology' (p.9).

Furthermore, it may not be easy for scholars unfamiliar with current issues in language pedagogy to identify new concepts, such as pedagogical translation; indeed, they may not be able to identify such terms at all (Carreres et al., 2017, pp.101–102). G. Cook's (2010, p.xxi) take on the terminological controversy is not particularly different, noting that the already established terms represent established views. He adds that for a writer on the topic of translation in foreign language teaching, using different terms is a trap they will fall into and they will eventually find themselves in a situation in which they either question the current terms and propose new ones, or embrace the existing ones and what they represent while using their own for conciseness. Therefore, the different terms that refer to the same concept 'blur the boundaries and hinder the development of translation in language pedagogy' (Gutiérrez, 2018, p.8).

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

According to Crotty (1998, p.2), methodology is 'the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes'. In this primary research study, the term methodology is used to refer to the general approach adopted in the endeavour to investigate and answer the research questions. The purpose of this chapter is therefore to outline the research approach and the research design, followed by revisiting the research aims and a presentation of the research questions and the participants recruited. This chapter will also discuss the methods and instruments selected to collect data for this study in terms of the typology and rationale. After that, a detailed discussion of the data collection procedures is provided. This is then followed by an outline of ethical considerations and the approach taken to analysing the quantitative and qualitative data. The research limitations and challenges encountered are discussed briefly and where necessary throughout the chapter, as these will be extensively discussed in Chapter 6.

3.2 Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research is borne out of the notion that quantitative and qualitative methods can be applied in tandem rather than being viewed as wholly incompatible. Mixed methods research thus combines quantitative and qualitative approaches aiming to generate more accurate and substantial knowledge about a particular social phenomenon than what only one of the two approaches would yield (Coe et al., 2021, p.181). Generally speaking, such research includes a combination of numbers (i.e. statistics) and words (e.g. via interviews). Although not new, mixed methods research has only gained prominence and become popular in educational research since the 1990s (Coe et al., 2021). In fact, the new-found prominence of mixed methods research has been so significant that some have described it as the 'third methodological movement' (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In this vein, Jonson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.15) aver 'mixed-methods research sits in a new third chair, with qualitative research sitting on the left side and quantitative research sitting on the right side'.

It is believed that the rise of mixed methods research over the past few decades has been helped by 'the paradigm wars' in the 1970s and 1980s, in which researchers had to pick a side, either quantitative or qualitative. According to Dörnyei (2007, p.163), the tension of the time was

followed by reconciliation, as proponents of the two approaches began to engage in dialogue having accepted the need for a greater integration between the two.

What mixed methods research recognises most is that each of the two approaches, quantitative and qualitative, has its strengths and weaknesses and adopting a single approach will only result in a partial understanding of the topic being studied. Combining the two is therefore a more appropriate choice to gain as full a picture as possible. Moreover, mixed methods research acknowledges that the world should be viewed in multiple ways rather than entirely – and only – quantitatively or qualitatively:

> Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems and questions than either approach on its own. This is, in part, because research problems are not exclusively quantitative or qualitative, hence using only one kind of data (quantitative or qualitative), one methodology, one paradigm, one way of looking at the problem or one way of conducting the research, may not do justice to the issue in question. (Creswell, 2012, p.535)

Indeed, it is far from rare for research with a quantitative focus to provide contradictory, inconsistent data and to lack any explanation for this issue. This absence of justification when contradictory results are produced in quantitative-based studies tends to lead researchers to state that 'further research is needed to understand why'. However, by bringing a qualitative dimension into the study, that further analysis can be carried out immediately, facilitating a thorough understanding of the phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007, p.40). In other words, while the 'what' questions may be answered by quantitative research, the 'why' and 'how' questions can be answered by qualitative research (Yin, 2003). Denscombe (2014, p.147) concurs and notes that mixed methods research can produce a full picture of the topic being researched as the integration of the two approaches ensures their strengths are exploited and the biases of monomethod research are reduced. Furthermore, data generated through the triangulation of methods are likely to be more accurate and reliable (p.160). It is an approach which 'in short; delivers what works' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.49). Furthermore, as this inquiry was driven by research questions requiring the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, mixed methods research was deemed the appropriate methodology since 'methodology follows from the purposes and questions in the research rather than vice versa' (Greene, 2007, p.13).

3.3 Triangulated Research Design

Developing an appropriate research design is undoubtedly a crucial step before conducting any form of research. The development of the methodological design for this inquiry included identifying the appropriate methodology – mixed methods research – the methods, i.e. the techniques to be used, such as interviewing and surveying, as well as the tools, namely questionnaires, interviews and observation schedules. How best to generate credible answers to the research questions was the main consideration when developing the design for this study, but other factors, such as time, cost and context, also had to be carefully thought through. Most notably, the ongoing health emergency meant that this study had to be carried out entirely remotely; this played a massive part in the planning and development of the methodological design.

Having selected mixed methods research as the approach to be followed in conducting this inquiry, the next step was to choose the design most appropriate in terms of addressing the research questions. Within mixed methods research, there are four main types of research design, termed by Creswell & Plano Clark (2007) as 'the Triangulation Design, the Embedded Design, the Explanatory Design, and the Exploratory Design' (p.59). The triangulation design, which was chosen to carry out this research, is the most popular for mixed methods, its main purpose being to glean rich, divergent, but complementary data on the same phenomenon to best answer the research questions and understand the topic studied.

More specifically, this study followed what has been termed by Creswell & Plano Clark (2007, p.46) as 'concurrent triangulation design', which is a monophase design in which researchers employ quantitative and qualitative methods in the same time span. That is, each set of data is collected independently but in parallel, with equal weight assigned to the data sets. According to Creswell & Plano Clark (2007), a researcher employs this design when the aim is to gather and analyse quantitative and qualitative data on the same topic separately; this is then followed by converging the findings during the interpretation phase, i.e. the divergent results are compared and contrasted. As stated by Creswell & Plano Clark (2007, p.65), 'The purpose of this model is to end up with valid and well-substantiated conclusions about a single phenomenon'. In recognition of this merit, Dörnyei (2007, p.172) adds that 'the main purpose of this design is to broaden the research perspective and thus provide a general picture or to test how the different findings complement or corroborate each other'.

The study of human behaviour is complex. This is particularly the case when it concerns the attitudes of teachers and students towards issues such as the use of translation and the use of the mother tongue in general in English language teaching and the factors influencing those beliefs. Based on surveys offering broad insights into attitudes towards translation within the target population, observations investigating actual practices across the context and interviews generating an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon, I believe methodological triangulation to be well suited to addressing the research questions within this particular context. Examining the advantages, Cohen et al., (2011) state that triangulated data collection and analysis aim to 'explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint' (p.195). To this end, with a rationale aimed at benefiting from the best of the two worlds, this inquiry included a quantitative strand employing surveys with Likert-type responses, together with semi-structured interviews and semi-structured observations for the qualitative strand. The design of the study is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

(a) Triangulation Design

QUAN   QUAL

Interpretation based on
QUAN + QUAL results

(b) Triangulation Design: Convergence Model

| QUAN data collection | → | QUAN data analysis | → | QUAN results | | | |
| QUAL data collection | → | QUAL data analysis | → | QUAL results | → Compare and contrast → Interpretation QUAN + QUAL |
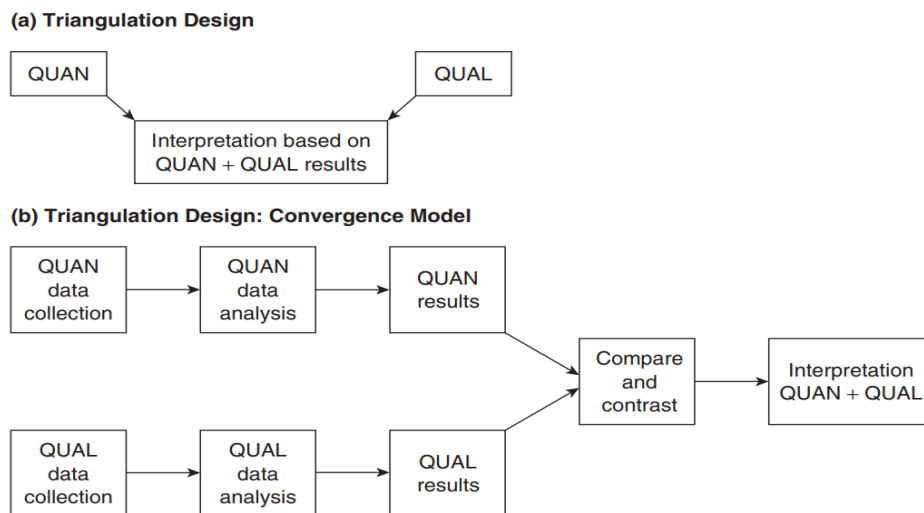
Figure 3.1. Triangulated research design (author's own elaboration)

3.4 Research Aims

This study aimed to investigate the attitudes of teachers and students with regard to the use of translation in ESAP. In particular, a primary aim of this study was to gain an in-depth understanding of teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual use of translation within an ESAP setting. The study also aimed to investigate the purposes for which translation was utilised, the factors leading to its use, and whether the enforced shift to remote instruction due

to the COVID-19 pandemic had an impact on attitudes to and practices of translation relying on the experiences of the ESAP teaching staff before and then throughout the COVID-19 pandemic.

3.5 Research Questions

In pursuit of achieving the research aims, the study has sought to answer the following questions:

RQ1:   How is translation used by teachers and students in ESAP?

RQ2:   What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP?

RQ3:   What factors influence teachers' and students' use of translation in ESAP?

RQ4:   What are teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP?

RQ5:   Do teachers' attitudes and reported behaviour match their actual practice?

RQ6:   Do teachers report differences in attitudes towards and use of translation due to the shift to online teaching because of the Covid-19 pandemic?

Table 3.1 summarises the research design based on the research questions.

Table 3.1. Summary of research design (author's own elaboration).

Research question	Type of data	Method used to collect data
Q1. How is translation used by teachers and students in ESAP?	Qualitative	Semi-structured classroom observations (Online)
Q2. What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP?	Qualitative	In-depth interviews and semi-structured observations (Online)
Q3. What factors influence teachers' and students' use of translation in ESAP?	Qualitative	In-depth interviews (Online)
Q4. What are teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP?	Quantitative	Closed-ended surveys In-depth interviews (Online)
Q5. Do teachers' attitudes and reported behaviour match their actual practice?	Quantitative and Qualitative	Closed-ended survey Observations In-depth interviews
Q6. Do teachers report differences in attitudes towards and use of translation due to the shift to online teaching because of the COVID-19 pandemic?	Qualitative	In-depth interviews (Online)

3.6 Participants

This study recruited teachers and students from the Saudi university. The teachers were staff members in the English Language Centre (ELC), whose responsibilities are to provide English language education for students and staff of the university in particular and the wider community in the area. The students recruited were all enrolled in the Preparatory Year (PY) Programme at

the host university, which offers a range of compulsory modules, including physics, chemistry, mathematics and English. They are required to pass these to enter their college of choice, specifically the College of Medicine, the College of Applied Sciences, and the College of Business Administration. All modules are taught in English across the two semesters.

A total of 22 teachers took part in this study and completed the questionnaire, 9 of them were interviewed and 6 were observed. They were of mixed origin: native speakers of Arabic, native speakers of English and native speakers of other languages (e.g. Urdu and French). All the teachers recruited for this study confirmed that, at the very least, they understood Arabic, even if they could not speak it properly. As far as their academic qualifications were concerned, all the teachers held a Master's degree relevant to the area of English language teaching. In addition, most of the staff who participated in this study had no fewer than five years of experience within the field of English language teaching (see Table 4.3). Furthermore, as tertiary education is gender segregated in Saudi Arabia, all the teacher participants were male.

In terms of the students, a total of 258 took part in the survey, 150 of them were observed and 6 were interviewed. All of the students were Saudi nationals. Moreover, they were all male. Their level of English proficiency could not be determined as the host university had to cancel the placement test for the academic year 2020–2021 due to concerns about social distancing necessitated by the coronavirus pandemic. Instead, the students who took part in the survey were asked to self-rate their English proficiency level, discussed further in Chapter 4.

3.7 Research Instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires, also variously called *surveys*, *inventories*, *scales*, and *profiles*, are a popular, useful data collection method commonly chosen by researchers in education and applied linguistics (Rose et al., 2019). In a questionnaire-based study, respondents are presented with a set of the same questions or statements to which they respond by giving a written answer or selecting from a range of given responses. According to Dörnyei (2003), there are three forms of questionnaire, each of which is associated with different purposes and generates a particular type of data. That is, a questionnaire may elicit facts, behaviours, or attitudes, though most surveys tend to comprise 'a combination of at least two of these types because researchers

generally collect demographic information about their respondents in tandem with measuring their behaviours or attitudes' (Rose, Mckinley & Baffoe-Djan, 2019, p.154).

In terms of application, questionnaires have long been applied in a paper-pencil format, but with the increased use of the Internet, e-based surveys have emerged as a more attractive option, being more economical in terms of time and money, and easily and widely distributed, in addition to enabling rapid completion and return and fast data entry and analysis (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.359). Indeed, what makes surveys popular is the fact that they are easy to administer and distribute, easy to apply to a large population, and enable rich data collection in a relatively short space of time. Furthermore, the vast amount of data generated by surveys when administered to a large population means the findings are likely to be representative, therefore enabling generalisations to be made. As put by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p.335), 'Their attraction lies in their appeal to generalizability or universality within given parameters'. In addition, surveys can ensure anonymity and allow respondents adequate time to read through the items and answer at their own pace, which is likely to increase the accuracy of the data collected (O'Leary, 2004). All of these advantages made surveys a good fit for this study and answering the research questions, particularly the question pertaining to teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP classes.

Surveys are not without their shortcomings. These are often related to how they are administered, the quality of the data they yield, or the participants themselves. In particular, as noted by Bryman (2008), online surveys tend to suffer from low response rates since respondents need to be motivated to take part or complete them. The length of the survey and the items therefore need careful consideration so participants will not lose interest or become fatigued and begin to tick boxes randomly without reading the items, or repeatedly tick the same option on a scale resulting in a 'response set' that impacts the validity of the study. Open-ended surveys may also suffer from respondents skipping questions as they may be deemed time-consuming; however, the issue did not arise in this study as it employed a close-ended questionnaire. Data obtained through surveys may also be superficial and limited in terms of quality, given that participants, especially if the survey is close-ended, are not afforded scope to expand on or clarify their answers. That was not a major issue for this study as respondents were given the option to share their contact details and take part in an interview if they wished.

3.7.2 Interviews

Interviews are a data collection method that entails an interviewer asking an interviewee a set of questions, usually open-ended and concerning a topic of mutual interest (O'Leary, 2004). They are the qualitative method most often chosen and are regularly used in different areas of applied linguistics for various purposes (Dörnyei, 2007, p.134). As a data collection instrument, interviews are deemed powerful since they yield rich data on the topic under study, offering the interviewer an excellent opportunity to explore issues in detail and therefore gain an in-depth understanding, in addition to asking for or providing explanation where and when a question or answers are unclear (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). There are three main interview types, varying from rigid to free in terms of their design and application. O'Leary (2004, p.164) outlines these as follows:

1. The fully structured interview uses pre-established questions, asked in a predetermined order. Means for prompting and probing the interviewee are predetermined and used in defined circumstances.

2. Semi-structured interviews are neither fully fixed nor fully free and are perhaps best viewed as flexible. Interviewers generally start with some defined questioning plan, but pursue a more conversational style of interview that may see questions answered in an order more natural to the flow of conversation. They may also start with a few defined questions but be ready to pursue any interesting tangents that may develop.

3. The unstructured interview attempts to draw out information, attitudes, opinions, and beliefs around particular themes, ideas, and issues without the aid of predetermined questions.

In the quest to collect qualitative data for this study, semi-structured interviews were chosen since they are the most suitable type for studies in which the researcher has a good enough level of expertise on the phenomenon concerned (Dörnyei, 2007, p.136). This is key because it enables the researcher to build a set of broad questions before the interview, thereby increasing the chance of gaining more depth and breadth in the interviewee's response as opposed to when the answers are ready-made, i.e. in structured interviews. On this, Dörnyei (2007, p.134) notes that the open-ended nature of this interview type and the pre-prepared guiding questions invite the interviewee to 'elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner' and offer the

interviewer the opportunity to 'follow up on interesting developments' in the responses if and where they appear.

Neither of the other two interview types, structured and unstructured, was chosen in this study. While the latter offers the most flexibility of all, unstructured interviews lack a clear focus, being conducted without a predetermined outline of topics to be covered (Dörnyei, 2007). The structured type was similarly avoided since it was unfit for the primary purpose, namely eliciting information with as much richness and depth as possible from the respondents.

There are weaknesses in conducting interviews in research, a main disadvantage being their time-consuming nature in terms of arrangement and application (Dörnyei, 2007, p.134). In this study, conducting interviews was further complicated by the fact that they had to take place remotely due to the COVID-19 pandemic. To minimise the effect of this, I needed help from the administration of the ELC to contact as many teacher participants as possible. In addition, assistance was needed from teachers to spread the word among their students to come forward should they be interested in taking part in an interview.

3.7.3 Observation

Observation is defined as 'A systematic method of data collection that relies on a researcher's ability to gather data through his or her senses' (O'Leary, 2004, p.171). According to O'Leary (2004, p.173), observation can be employed in three different ways. First, *structured observations* are thoroughly systematic, with the researcher having arranged a set of pre-determined criteria and categories related to the people or practices being studied before visiting the context. Second, *semi-structured observations* identify a pre-determined range of issues to be observed but are less systematic and more responsive to what is being observed. That is to say, the researcher is open to documenting any unexpected patterns that may emerge over the course of observation. Third, in *unstructured observations*, the researcher will go into a situation to observe without any pre-determined categories or agenda and will endeavour to document more or less all that he/she observes. After the observation has taken place, the research will look for patterns of interest in the data and make decisions as to which patterns are most relevant and important to the inquiry (O'Leary, 2004).

When researchers observe, they are not merely looking at events; rather, they closely observe people and document how they behave and act in events and interactions, i.e. what they actually

do rather than what they say they do. In addition, the use of observation as a research instrument is likely to generate more valid and authentic data than any other method since it allows the researcher to collect first-hand, live data in the actual, exact context, rather than relying on what participants report or second-hand accounts (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p.542) add that this is 'observation's unique strength', namely the opportunity to note verbal, non-verbal, and physical interactions in the flesh, *in situ*. Thus, observation 'will provide a reality check' if what people report they do differs from what they actually do, which adds to its appeal as a data collection method (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.542). Furthermore, observations are considered advantageous and preferable in situations in which the participants may not possess excellent verbal skills, or perhaps are just not willing to sit for an interview.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

3.8.1 Pilot study

Conducting a pilot study is considered a crucial step in research to pre-test the data collection methods. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) assert that piloting is a necessary part of the data collection process as it helps the researcher uncover some of the problems that may arise when the main study takes place, in addition to its usefulness in assisting the researcher address issues that may be related to ethics, clarity, layout, length of time, or ambiguity. Subsequently, the researcher will be able to refine the instruments and be optimally prepared to gather data when it is time for the main study. Furthermore, discussing why a pilot study is paramount, van Teijlingen & Hundley (2001) cite 16 reasons, including improving the research questions, assessing whether the full-scale study is feasible, identifying logistical issues that may arise with the selected data collection methods, and determining whether the research instruments are adequate and effective.

Enforced change of plans

Key to the success of the large-scale study and based on some of the aforementioned reasons, the decision was made to carry out a pilot study over a six-week period in March and April of 2020, with the main study to follow almost 10 months later. The initial arrangements were made with the aim of conducting the study in person at the host university, in line with Glense's (2016) advice that the pilot study should take place in an environment as close as possible to that identified for the actual research.

Consequently, ethics approval was sought and granted by the Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow and site access was granted by the ELC at the Saudi university. However, upon arriving in Saudi Arabia early in March 2020, in the wake of the spread of coronavirus from its origins in China in the latter months of 2019, major unforeseen disruptions were experienced. To respond to the global health crisis and combat the spread of the virus, Saudi Arabia imposed a partial lockdown, followed by total lockdowns a fortnight later; as a result, all teaching across the Kingdom was brought to a halt, resulting in the plans for the pilot study having to be abandoned.

When it was confirmed that teaching would resume fully, but remotely, from September 2020, new arrangements were made for the pilot study to take place over the Internet. A point worth noting here is that even though teaching was to restart online, partial lockdown and strict restrictions were still in place. Also, the importance of the pilot study was further magnified by the lack of clarity about when face-to-face teaching would return to normal. In other words, with the continued uncertainty concerning what lay ahead for teaching in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere and with the time scheduled for the main study fast approaching, it began to look increasingly likely that even the large-scale study would have to be carried out in the same remote form. As a result, the pilot study was not only instrumental in trialling the research instruments but was also essential to familiarise myself with the novel world of remote data collection in unprecedented and highly unpleasant circumstances. The revised timeline for data collection is presented in Figure 3.2.

The pilot study:
October - November 2020

Main study begins:
18 January 2021

Stage 1 of data collection:
Classroom observation

Stage 2 of data collection:
Surveys

Stage 3 of data collection:
Interviews

End of data collection:
30 May 2021
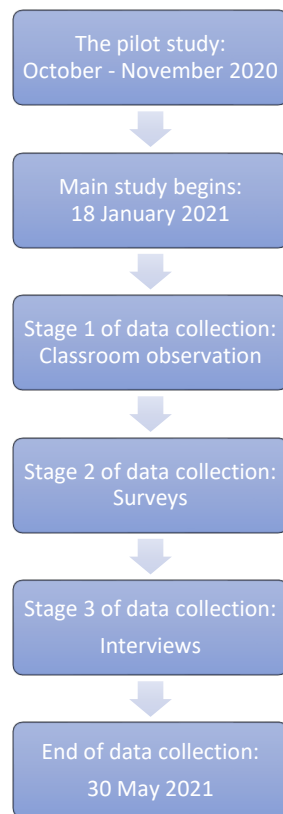
Figure 3.2. Timeline of data collection

Remote pilot study

Given the circumstances briefly touched upon in the previous section, the pilot study was carried out remotely over a six-week period during October and November of 2020. A total of 20 participants – 18 students and 2 teachers – took part. They were all involved in the PY Programme at the Saudi university, meaning that they shared similar characteristics and the same context as those expected to participate in the actual study, which is deemed beneficial when conducting a pilot study as it 'brings you closer to the research context, enabling you to fine-tune your plans to the realities of the research situation' (Coe et al., 2021, p.69). Also, all the student participants were Saudi nationals with Arabic as their mother tongue, while one of the two teachers was a native speaker of Arabic and the other was a native speaker of English. As education in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated, all the participants were male.

The first of the three stages of the small-scale study comprised observing a couple of online classes held on WebEx, the platform used for online teaching by the Saudi university, the research setting, as face-to-face classes were suspended. I was a non-participant observer

documenting the uses of translation by the teachers and students in practice, in addition to pre-testing the observation form and practising taking notes while observing the online classroom. The participants were then provided with links to a survey on the SurveyMonkey website, one for the students and another for the teachers, designed to gauge their beliefs concerning the use of translation in ESP teaching and learning. Finally, two in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with one teacher and one student to gain additional insights and more understanding in response to the research questions.

The pilot study was quite instrumental in preparing me for what was to come: a large-scale study conducted entirely remotely. I was able to familiarise myself with remote approaches to data collection and the challenges that would be almost inevitable in the process for the main study, such as gaining online access to the research site, recruiting participants, and building trust with them. In addition, online data collection relies heavily on an Internet connection and connectivity issues during the pilot study made me aware of the importance of arranging an alternative if those issues occurred again in the main study (for example, conducting interviews through phone calls, facilitated by my presence in Saudi Arabia throughout the data collection process). Furthermore, participants' feedback proved invaluable, especially in terms of the clarity of the surveys, with a fair number of participants noting that they were unclear on what exactly was meant by translation. As a result, in the main study, a definition of what translation entails (as far as the study was concerned) was provided.

3.8.2 Main study
Online classroom observation

The first stage of the data collection process for this study was classroom observation, which was employed to collect qualitative data. Six ESAP classes were observed during the second semester of the academic year 2021-22. Due to COVID-19 and the social distancing measures still in place, all of the classes took place online via WebEx, the platform used by the Saudi university for remote teaching. The type of observation followed was semi-structured, i.e. the purpose of the observation was established in advance, but there was flexibility in noting any unexpected events that might emerge over the course of observation.

To this end, an observation-focused form was developed with predetermined criteria, including documenting whether translation was used and/or allowed in the ESP classroom, identifying the

purposes for the use of translation, and whether it varied across the three disciplinary domains of ESP (medicine, science, business) within the target context. The form also made space for additional comments to be noted during the observations. As far as my role was concerned, I was a non-participant observer in all the classes I attended virtually; that is, I was a mere observer of the target community, who were fully aware of my presence. Given that observation is viewed as 'the most intrusive of all techniques for gathering data' (Simpson & Tuson, 1995, pp.55-56), often making those observed feel uncomfortable and behave unnaturally, I considered that being involved with events during the class, i.e. a participant observer, would have made matters worse. Thus, as far as the objectives of the study were concerned, taking the role of an unobtrusive observer maximised the benefits and minimised the negative influence of the process.

A total of 156 participants were observed, 6 teachers and 150 students. That is, there were six classes, with a different teacher in charge of each class and 25 students in each virtual room. Two classes in each ESAP domain were observed to gain as comprehensive a picture as possible of the use of translation in practice and to be able to make comparisons between the domains – medicine, science, and business – which shared learning English as the greater aim but differed in focus. Furthermore, to enhance the consistency of the data generated, all classes were observed for the same length of time (50 minutes for each session).

With the agreement of the teachers and students, all the sessions were video recorded. As noted by O'Leary (2004, p.176), 'The advantage here is that raw data is preserved for review and use at a later date'. In this regard, it is important to set the scene of where and how the observations were conducted. In all the sessions, only the teachers had their cameras and microphones on. Also, in all but one of the classes, the students chose to be on mute until they were spoken to or asked a question, or otherwise wished to participate. What is more, the teachers shared their screens, displaying a virtual board or the book, more or less most of the time. While video-recording observations is often an advantage, as recordings 'can help us uncover the subtle reality of classroom life' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.185) and allow the documentation of details related to events that are usually not seen, this was not fully possible for the aforementioned reasons.

A lack of engagement on the part of the students in the classes observed was not unexpected. Indeed, people often tend to alter their behaviour, positively or negatively, consciously or

unconsciously, when they know they are being observed. This awareness, along with the observer being in the same 'virtual' space, creates what is known as the 'observer effect', otherwise called 'the Hawthorne effect' (Rose et al., 2019, p.104). To minimise this, I made every effort to make the students feel relaxed and comfortable when I introduced myself at the start of each session I observed. I made it abundantly clear that I was not there to assess their language abilities, but simply had an interest in the nature of classroom interactions. In informal conversations with the teachers afterwards, they attributed students' lack of participation to virtual teaching and affective factors resulting from being in lockdown for a lengthy period of time owing to the ongoing pandemic, with one teacher saying 'I have never felt so lonely in a class'.

More significantly, I must note here that the full details of the particular focus of the study were not revealed to the participants prior to the sessions taking place. This decision was made to protect the validity of the data obtained, as full disclosure of a topic of this nature may result in the participants modifying their behaviour, thus negatively affecting the reliability of the study. Instead, they were briefed and given a broad idea of the focus of the study before they signed the consent forms via a link sent to them before each class. To elaborate, the participants were told that the general focus of the research was on classroom interaction within ESAP contexts in Saudi Arabia. I felt this was broad enough to preserve the interests of the study without being insincere with the participants and also not affecting the research objectives. Immediately after each observation session, the participants were told what the exact focus of the study was. Furthermore, they were given the choice to still opt out and have their resulting data destroyed should they feel uneasy with the procedure. This approach is in line with that suggested by the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2006).

Online surveys

Two anonymous web-based surveys were developed and distributed via SurveyMonkey to the two sets of participants, teachers, and students (see Appendix B & C). Due to the aforementioned reasons related to the pandemic and remote education, assistance was needed from the ELC administration and teachers to distribute the surveys to as many people as possible among the target population. To collect quantitative data related to the target community's attitudes towards translation in ESAP, the respondents were presented with a series of closed questions in self-administered surveys, with most of the statements being adapted from two previous studies

(Rushwan, 2017; Liao, 2006). Closed questions are considered advantageous as they allow rapid and straightforward data coding and analysis, whereas open questions are complex to analyse (Menter et al., 2011, p.105). Furthermore, closed-question surveys are useful since they are more focused, easily and relatively quickly completed, and they enable comparisons to be made across the groups taking part (Cohen et al., 2018, p.476). In addition, because closed-question surveys are quick to complete, they allow the inclusion of more items in the measure (Menter et al., 2011, p.105).

Out of 1,400 preparatory year students and 60 English teachers across the target population, a total of 280 participants (258 students and 22 teachers) completed the online surveys. Participants were asked to choose from a range of given responses on a five-point Likert scale (1 = 'strongly agree', 2 = 'agree', 3 = 'neither agree nor disagree', 4 = 'disagree', 5 = 'strongly disagree') aiming to measure their attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP pedagogy. The Likert scale, named after the American psychologist Rensis Likert, who developed the scale in 1932, is 'frequently used in asking for opinions and attitudes' (Cohen, et al., 2018, p.726). It is the best-known type of scale, widely used in applied linguistics research and most suitable for close-ended items (Dörnyei, 2007, p.101).

In terms of the number of points on the scale, an odd number of five points was chosen as this achieves validity, reliability, and differentiation, but also offers respondents the choice to be neutral instead of forcing them into agreeing or disagreeing with the given statements, as would be the case if an even number of points were chosen. This is consistent with the approach advocated by Rose et al., (2019, p.158), who state 'On balance, we recommend using an odd number of scalar points to avoid forcing participants' hands'. Another key point taken into consideration was the threat to reliability and validity at the item level posed by bias. To mitigate this, following the strategies suggested by Dörnyei & Csizér (2012), the items were written concisely, using simple, unambiguous language free from specialised jargon, and negative constructs were avoided entirely.

Further, a reliability analysis was conducted to measure the internal consistency and check the suitability of the instrument, as recommended by Cohen et al., (2018). The reliability of the surveys is assessed through 'the Cronbach alpha, frequently referred to simply as the alpha coefficient of reliability, or simply the alpha' which 'provides a coefficient of inter-item

correlations, i.e. the correlation of each item with the sum of all the other relevant items' (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 270). The Cronbach alpha for the teachers' survey was 0.76, while the students' survey scored 0.84, reflecting good and consistent level of reliability. In this regard, Dörnyei (2007) states that an alpha score of 0.60 or above reflects acceptable reliability level in second language studies, while a score of 0.70–0.79 or 0.80–0.90 respectively indicates 'reliable' and 'highly reliable' level of reliability, as per guidelines suggested by Cohen et al,. (2018, p. 774).

Also, with a view to ensuring clarity and considering issues that might put the reliability of the data at risk, the students' survey was fully translated into Arabic. Given that they were first-year students who may not have reached a level of proficiency in English adequate to understand the language used in the survey, it was felt that translating the survey as a whole, as recommended by Rose et al., (2019, p.162), would aid the completion procedure and prevent any issues with comprehension. Furthermore, it is also believed that 'that the quality of the obtained data improves if the questionnaire is presented in the respondents' own mother tongue' (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012, p.79). As I hold a Master's degree in translation studies, I undertook the translation into Arabic myself and it was then reviewed by a former colleague of mine who now lectures in translation studies at Prince Nora University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

SurveyMonkey was chosen as the platform used to develop and administer the surveys for several reasons, not least because it was user-friendly and catered for Arabic, which was vital given that the students' survey was in Arabic. Also, when it was trialled in the pilot study, implementation was smooth and successful.

Online interviews

In the last phase of data collection, 15 interviews were conducted with 9 staff members and 6 students. There were several reasons for leaving the interviews until last. Successfully fulfilling the research objectives was a particular concern when this decision was made: if the interviews had taken place in the initial stage of the data collection process, the exact objectives of the study would have been revealed to the participants. This would have negatively affected the reliability of the data gathered during the classroom observations since the respondents would have been fully aware of the precise reasons why I was there, thereby potentially altering their behaviours.

In addition, leaving the interviews until last was beneficial as the development of questions was informed by the earlier stages of data collection, covering certain issues and aspects that may not have been detected during the observations owing to the virtual learning environment, for example, students' actual use of translation during classes and whether they had something like a WhatsApp group they used for discussion and communication with their peers during classes. Furthermore, the fact that the whole study had to be carried out from a distance posed a challenge in terms of building trust with the respondents, not least recruiting. In leaving the interviews to the end it was hoped that those who had completed the survey or at least been made aware of the nature of the study would offer to take part. This was especially key considering that recruitment for the online interviews required the assistance of the ELC administration and staff, who spread the word among their students. Indeed, building trust between the researcher and the researched can go a long way, not only in terms of recruiting participants and arranging interviews but also in yielding candid data in the end (O'Leary, 2004, p.51).

The interviews were conducted to gain an in-depth understanding of the topic from the two sets of participants, using a method that would allow them to express their views in their own words. Interviews are a powerful method as they offer researchers the opportunity to converse with those who are 'the best sources of the desired information' (Dressler & Oths, 2015, p.506). This method provides detailed insights into the participants' experiences and therefore yields 'in-depth, rich data' (Angouri, 2010, p.33) on the topic under investigation, in this case, the use of translation in ESAP classes. The interviews were semi-structured to provide flexibility and enable a combination of 'probes, prompts and open or closed questions' (Adamson 2006, p.3). The flexibility provided by this type of interview is advantageous as the interviewer is given the freedom to 'interpret responses from interviewees' (Adamson 2006, p.3) and adapt to the circumstances of the particular interview. Semi-structured interviews also allow respondents to expand on issues they feel are of interest and significance to them (Longhurst, 2010, p.103). Consistent with the semi-structured approach, the interviews followed a schedule designed to explore the predetermined topics, i.e. they were not fully unstructured (see Appendix D & E).

The interviews were conducted online through Zoom, the software recommended by the University of Glasgow and the Saudi university for online interviewing. Interviewing took place in a synchronous fashion, meaning that the interviewee and I were present online at the same time in the same virtual room, exchanging questions and answers instantly. According to Flick

(2015, p.234), 'This comes closest to the verbal exchange in a face-to-face interview'. This procedure was preferred to asynchronous interviewing, in which a question or list of questions is sent to the respondents and they return the answers at some point later without the need for the two to be online simultaneously. In this study, the inevitable delay between the question and the response would have affected the quality of the data and the interview might have lost direction (Flick, 2015).

Prior to interviewing each participant, I made sure that they had easy access to Zoom; other alternatives were lined up should that not have been the case. With the participants' knowledge and approval, all the interviews were recorded using Zoom's in-built recording feature. They were then stored in an encrypted folder on a personal laptop and subsequently uploaded to the university drive. Each interview lasted approximately 15–20 minutes and they took place at a time of mutual convenience, which was especially important during the times of distress resulting from COVID-19. I also ensured that the respondents were fully informed of their rights prior to beginning the interviews, namely their right to refuse to answer any particular questions, to refuse to be audio recorded and to end the interview at any point.

The interviews with the students were conducted in Arabic to make them feel comfortable and ease any nerves that might be induced as a result of feeling their language competence was being assessed, which might have been the case had English been used. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p.514) note that taking the participant's level of education and understanding into consideration is key to a successful interview. In addition, conducting the interviews in Arabic allowed students to concentrate on the questions rather than being concerned with the language and thus they expressed themselves freely and conveyed their ideas clearly. It also meant they spoke more during the interviews, which was beneficial and enriching as far as the purpose of the approach was concerned.

In terms of the interviews with teaching staff, it was left to those whose native language was Arabic to choose the language they were most comfortable with – Arabic or English. Thus, I avoided making assumptions regarding the informant's level of knowledge, as advised by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018), even though all the staff participants were sufficiently qualified to hold a teaching position at the host university. All interviews were then transcribed, translated where necessary and subsequently coded and analysed.

The interviews were informal and conversational in tone and nature. It was hoped that this relaxed form of interviewing would create an atmosphere conducive to establishing rapport and building trust, thereby enabling open and honest interaction. Formal interviewing is generally structured, with the interviewer often at a distance from the interviewee (O'Leary, 2004, p.164); this would have been far from ideal, particularly with the interviews taking place remotely and conducted by an interviewer (me) who most of the participants had not previously met.

3.9 Data Analysis

3.9.1 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data collected through the surveys were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a computer-based statistical analysis program. First, the data were analysed using descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages and measures of central tendency (means) for the participants' responses. This was also helpful in making sense of the numerical data presented before proceeding to determine whether significant statistical differences existed between the participants' attitudes based on a range of variables (e.g. whether there was a relationship between students' proficiency level and their attitudes towards the use of translation), for which Chi-square (χ^2) and Fisher exact tests were used. The Chi-square test 'measures the difference between a statistically generated expected result and an actual (observed) result to see if there is a statistically significant difference between them' (Cohen et al., 2018, p.789), while Fisher exact test provides an analogous alternative for situations where Chi-square test cannot be used, such as small sample size, the case for the teachers' survey in this study. More details will be provided in Chapter 4, which presents the analysis.

3.9.2 Qualitative data analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data obtained through the in-depth interviews and classroom observations. Thematic analysis is defined as 'a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organises and describes [the] data set in (rich) detail' (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.6). Thematic analysis is a form of qualitative analysis that is commonly used by researchers owing to its flexibility, which makes it possible to go through the data either inductively, i.e. searching for themes generated in the data without predetermined areas of interest, or deductively, i.e. based on specific areas of interest.

I employed a mix of inductive and deductive approaches in analysing the qualitative dataset. As I was coding the data, I was guided by the research questions, a rather theoretical, deductive approach, but I was also open to potentially developing questions if interesting patterns emerged, corresponding to inductive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.12). Thematic analysis, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2013), entails going through as many as seven stages: transcription, reading and familiarisation, coding, looking for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and finalising the analysis. Adding in translation, required for some data throughout the analysis stage, results in eight stages.

The qualitative data from the 15 interviews were fully transcribed and coded manually using Microsoft Word. I carried out all the transcription myself because even though it was a time-consuming, tedious task, I viewed it as an excellent opportunity to familiarise myself with the data. Indeed, it is argued that the transcription process itself is 'a key phase of data analysis' (Bird, 2005, p.227). Qualitative data from the observations were also fully transcribed having benefitted from the availability of full recordings of all the classes observed; instances of interest in which translation occurred were then documented and later coded and analysed. In terms of the translation of data from the interviews conducted in Arabic and the relevant observation data requiring translation, I carried out the initial translation and two fellow qualified translators checked and reviewed the translations to ensure reliability and validity and to avoid bias (Cohen et al., 2018, p.262).

3.10 Ethical issues

Ethical approval for this project was granted by the College of Arts Research Ethics Committee on 20 May 2020. Another ethics application was completed prior to commencing data collection as a prerequisite for obtaining site permission from the host university. From start to finish, every effort was made to ensure that the study followed the University of Glasgow Code of Practice, the College of Arts Research Ethics and Integrity Policy, and the BAAL Guidelines. Specific ethical concerns and how they were addressed are discussed below.

3.10.1 Confidentiality and anonymity

Immense care was taken to ensure all participants who took part in this study across the three different stages of data collection were fully anonymised and could not be identified in any way, shape, or form in the research. Participants whose data were transcribed were assigned

pseudonyms during the transcription stage; this was done to ensure their identity remained fully protected. All resulting data from the interviews and observations were treated as confidential. In addition, I alone had access to the audio recordings and any identifying data. All participants were also made aware of potential access to anonymised transcriptions of recorded data by my supervisors and examiners. All data were stored on a personal, password-protected computer and were then moved to an encrypted institutional OneDrive (University of Glasgow) as soon as was practically possible. I used pseudonyms to name files to ensure anonymity. Although participants' voices in recordings may make them identifiable and therefore present a potential confidentiality concern, this was not an issue as only I listened to them.

3.10.2 Consent

As it was not feasible to conduct the study in person, let alone obtain written consent forms, other alternatives were implemented to adapt to the ever-changing situation and obtain consent remotely. Thus, before attending classes remotely for the observations, all participants – the teacher and students – were sent an electronic consent form (see Appendix A) link created in Google Forms. The form, shared using WhatsApp with the help of the ELC administration and staff, provided information about the study and myself as the researcher, the objectives of the study, and what their participation would entail. They were also informed of their rights and that taking part was completely voluntary. At the bottom of the form, they were asked to tick a box to indicate their willingness to participate. I only visited the observed classes after I had received consent from every member of the class. Completing the online surveys was not possible without giving consent since the participants could not proceed to the questions until they had gone through the information and consent page and ticked the consent box. At the interview stage, participants willing to take part were sent a similar e-consent form containing information on the study and their rights.

All students' consent forms were translated into Arabic to ensure they fully understood what the research was about, what their participation entailed, and their rights, such as refusing to answer any question or to be audio-recorded, and the right to opt out at any time while the data collection process was still ongoing. WhatsApp was used to share e-consent links as participants favoured it over other methods such as e-mail. WhatsApp is suggested to be a secure service by the College of Arts Research Ethics Committee (2020). Furthermore, these approaches to gaining e-consent are in line with ethical guidelines for Internet research suggested by the Association

of Internet Researchers (2012) and the ethics guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society (2013).

3.10.3 Harm to participants

The precept '*Primum non nocere*' (First of all, do no harm), i.e. ensuring that no individual taking part in an investigation is harmed physically or mentally, is a fundamental aspect of ethics in educational research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.127; Dörnyei, 2007, p.67). I thus ensured that no harm was caused to the participants as a result of their involvement at any point, during or after the study. The protection of participants' mental, emotional and physical wellbeing was prioritised at every step of the process. Each phase of the data collection process was carried out remotely to avoid endangering participants' lives in light of the health crisis posed by COVID-19. This included the interviews, which were held at a time when total lockdown in Saudi Arabia had partially been lifted and people were allowed to meet outdoors as long as social distancing, a legal requirement, was maintained.

Furthermore, despite the research touching on an issue hotly debated among language teaching researchers and practitioners, i.e. using the mother tongue in English language pedagogical settings, it was not expected to cause significant stress to the teaching respondents. It is worth noting here that the ELC policy does not prohibit the use of learners' own language, unlike in other universities (Baeshin, 2016). Nevertheless, they were free to choose not to discuss certain questions in that regard. It was also made explicitly clear to faculty respondents that the permission gained from their department administration to conduct the study did not place any obligation on them to participate and they would only be considered if they fully and willingly consented to take part.

Chapter 4. Findings

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate the use of translation in ESAP-focused settings in a Saudi Arabian context. Through a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods, a primary aim of this study was to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' attitudes towards and actual use of translation within ESAP-focused environments, in addition to investigating the factors affecting their respective attitudes and actual practices, and the purposes for which they employed translation. This chapter aims first to present findings from the qualitative analysis of data collected through semi-structured classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, followed by the findings from the quantitative analysis using data from the close-ended online surveys.

4.2 Qualitative Findings

This section presents the findings from the analysis of the classroom observations and interviews with teachers and students respectively. Within each sub-section, the findings will be presented with illustrations from the data according to the corresponding theme (see Appendix J).

4.2.1 Classroom observation

I observed six classes, two within each disciplinary domain of ESAP taught in the research setting: medical, scientific, and administrative. Five of the teachers observed were native speakers of Arabic, and only one of them spoke English as his mother tongue (see Table 4.1). Arabic was also the mother tongue among all the students. All the teachers and students were male. My role as an observer was completely non-participatory, ensuring close observation of events without disrupting the usual proceedings within the classes. It is worth noting that the English Language Centre (ELC) offers its teachers flexibility in terms of using the students' mother tongue in class, although the unwritten recommendation is still to teach in English. Furthermore, I avoided revealing the exact objectives of the study before the observations took place to protect the validity of the data obtained, as full disclosure could have resulted in participants modifying their behaviour while being observed, thereby affecting the credibility of the data. The teachers were simply told that the general focus of the study was on classroom interaction within ESAP settings – a procedure fully in line with the approach suggested by the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL; see 3.7.3).

Table 4.1. Demographic information of teachers observed

Teacher identifier	Nationality	L1	ESAP domain taught
T1	Jordanian	Arabic	Scientific
T2	Jordanian	Arabic	Administrative/business
T3	Saudi	Arabic	Administrative/business
T4	Saudi	Arabic	Scientific
T5	Saudi	Arabic	Medical
T6	Canadian	English	Medical

Translation in practice: Purposes

The results presented in this section provide the basis for answering the following research questions:

> *RQ4: What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP classes?*
>
> *RQ1: How is translation used by teachers and students in ESAP classes?*

For the sake of clarity, instances of translation by participants are provided and highlighted in bold font, with Arabic phrases back-translated into English and provided italicised between brackets.

Vocabulary-related

The observations revealed that translation was used for various purposes within ESAP classes. A common, consistent use of translation in class was related to vocabulary. Indeed, resorting to translation when dealing with different types of vocabulary was frequently observed in all six classes without exception. In particular, translation was almost constantly called upon when dealing with specialised vocabulary, as can be seen in the following examples:

> **Extract 1**
>
> (a) T3: So let's look at this one here, we have **balance sheet** as I said, this means **قوائم مالية** [*financial statements*]
>
> (b) T4: After that we talked about the solar power car. So, the meaning of **solar** is **شمسي** [*solar]*
>
> (c) T5: Number seven: Designs special exercises for patients. This goes with **physiotherapy قسم العلاج الطبيعي** [*The natural therapy department*]

The above examples show that although the teachers mainly spoke in English, they still felt there was a need to provide their students with the Arabic translation of specialised terms.

A rather interesting example of using translation to deal with specialised vocabulary appeared in a class in the medical domain taught by T6, whose L1 was English. Although the teacher mentioned in a follow-up interview that his command of Arabic was fairly limited, he still attempted to provide his students with the Arabic equivalent for a medicine-related term, as shown in Extract 2:

Extract 2

T6: Your **immune system** is your جيش [*army*], دفاع [*defence*]

It is still worth noting that, in Extract 2, the teacher did not provide the exact Arabic equivalent to *immune system* – [جهاز المناعة] – but that might not have been his aim, of course, particularly given that his suggested translations seemed to have conveyed the meaning to the students. Still, it is worth noting that the same teacher (6) also mentioned in the follow-up interview that 'sometimes I wish I could speak Arabic'. This could well have been one of those times when he felt this.

The observations also revealed that translation was used by teachers to deal with other types of vocabulary, such as academic vocabulary, general vocabulary, and metalanguage-related lexicon. These instances, however, were less frequent and only appeared in half the classes observed. The examples in Extract 3 show the teacher (T1) translating metalanguage-related vocabulary as he was introducing his students to a new grammar lesson concerning comparison in English:

Extract 3

(a) T1: So you have to know in English we have something called **adjectives** يعني
[الصفات*which means adjectives*]

(b) T1: **Comparatives mean** مقارنة [*comparison*], **superlatives mean** [تفضيل*highest comparative*]

In addition, the teacher (T1) was sharing his screen, which displayed a board at home that included these same words with the Arabic translations next to them. In another class, as seen in Extract 4a, the teacher (T5), who used translation a great deal with domain-specific

vocabulary, also resorted to translation when dealing with general vocabulary. Also, Extract 4b shows the same teacher translating academic vocabulary:

Extract 4

(a) T5: We deliver the **post** all over the hospital. **Post** اللي هي بريد [*which means post*]

(b) T5: We **dispose** نتخلص [*get rid of*]

Teachers also used the students' L1 in class to give synonyms for different vocabulary items. An example can be seen in Extract 5, in which T5 and his students were dealing with a vocabulary-matching activity related to hospital departments. T5 used the students' L1 to note that different terms for the department in question, *renal unit*, could be used in other hospitals:

Extract 5

T5: **Renal unit,** هو الـ اللي يكتبوا في مستشفيات ثانية ممكن **nephrology** ثانية في مستشفيات ممكن يكتبوا **kidney, kidneys** [*Renal unit could be termed nephrology or kidney, kidneys in other hospitals*]

Instruction-related

Another notable, common use of translation observed in the ESAP classes was when teachers were giving instructions to their students. The use of translation for this purpose was observed in four of the six classes. In terms of the nature of the instructions translated, they varied from those related to assessment and examinations to those related to in-class management. An example of the former is shown in Extract 6, in which the teacher (T1) was updating his students on recent changes made with regard to how they were going to be assessed in listening:

Extract 6

T1: **I would like to discuss something very important with you today.** **جايكم في** موضوع مهم جدًا اليوم. التقييم هذا الترم حيكون مختلف تمام بخصوص الليسينينق [*I'm going to discuss with you something very important today. This term, the listening assessment will be totally different to the previous term*] .

فاكرين كيف كان التقييم؟ كان كويز من 5 درجات قبل الميدتيرم و10 درجات قبل الميدتيرم

[*Do you remember how you were assessed in listening in the previous term? How?]*

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It was a quiz of 5 marks before the midterm, and another quiz of 10 marks before the final. [*This term, it will be continuous assessment***]حيكون هذا الترم تقييم مستمر. Listening exercises during lessons will be part of your assessment now.**

A key observation here was that before giving this instruction in both English and Arabic, T1 went through a quick revision of the previous lesson almost fully in English. Given that the teacher then switched to English again to get on with the rest of the lesson, he may have chosen to translate in this instance due to his sense that the students needed to fully understand the changes to the assessment format. He may have felt that providing the Arabic translation of the instructions would make them more explicit. Furthermore, translation was used when other types of instructions were given. For example, as shown in Extract 7, T1 used translation to give his students instructions on how to perform a task:

Extract 7

T1: **They've given you an adjective next to each blank.** اعطاك قبل كل فراغ [*you're given before each blank*]

Use this adjective in the correct form, meaning use it as comparative or superlativeيعني استخدمها مقارنة أو تفضيل [*meaning use it in comparative or superlative form*]**. Use -ER THAN or more than, or use THE -EST or the most.**

Similarly, T5 concurrently translated an instruction related to a listening exercise, as shown in Extract 8:

Extract 8

T5: Okay, the following part, **you will listen to the same audio** راح تسمع لنفس المقطع الآن [*You're now going to listen to the same audio*]

An equally notable observation was that teachers translated into Arabic as they were giving their students independent learning instructions. This was more apparent when teachers seemed to wish to shed more light on vocabulary and grammar-related items. For example, as can be seen in Extracts 9a and 9b, the teachers (T2 and T3) translated as they were giving instructions to emphasise the importance of referring to the glossary at the end of the book:

Extract 9

(a) T2: **All these words** كل هذه الكلمات **are listed alphabetically at the end of the book** موجودة ومرتبة في آخر الكتاب *[All of these words are listed and well presented at the end of the book]*

(b) T3: **Let me take you very quickly to the glossary at the end of the book. It's very, very important. All the key words can be found here. And some of the words listed here, you won't have met with them in the units.** خليني اخدكوا على القلوساري بسرعة لأنه مهم جدًا جدًا ياشباب.. بعض الكلمات تحصلوها هنا ومش موجودة في الوحدات

Similarly, another teacher resorted to translation to give learning instructions related to grammar. Extract 10 shows the teacher (T1) translating to draw his students' attention to the grammar reference at the end of the book, where more explanations and examples could be found:

Extract 10

T1: Ok, these are the rules that I explained and if you want to find more information you can visit this page as you can see, grammar reference اللي قلتلكوا عنه امبارح شرحتلكوا/ **you find grammar reference if you need more information**, الكتاب أنا، قلتلكوا بآخر الكتاب **if you need more examples, you just go to this page, page 115 grammar reference** كمان أكثر،راح تلاقوا هذا القاعدة معطيك إياها بشروحات *[I explained this yesterday, I told you about it yesterday, you will find further explanation of this grammar rule. As I said, you can find it at the end of the book]*

The decision to refer students to these extra materials rather than allocating class time to dealing with them, as seen in Extracts 9 and 10, was particularly intriguing considering that T1 noted that there would be words in the glossary that students would not encounter in the core units of the book. There is a possibility that reduced class time in the era of COVID-19 may have played a role in the teachers opting to prioritise certain aspects of the lesson and therefore quickly translating to save what they considered precious class time.

Indeed, a notable use of translation by the teachers was related to the issue of saving time. The same teacher, T1, seemingly worried about running out of time, used translation to remind his students to work more quickly and smarter in various stages of his class. As shown in Extract 11a, T1 switched fully to Arabic very early in the class to stress the importance of moving

quicker, having just drawn his students' attention to updated instructions in relation to exams and assessment. Another example can be seen in Extract 11b, when the same teacher resorted to translation to encourage his students to work smarter rather than harder as they seemed to need some time to take notes. In another instance in the same class, shown in Extract 11c, T1 translated once again to urge his students to be quick as they were writing examples of the grammar rule he had explained and displayed on his board at home:

Extract 11

(a) T1: **هذا الكلام راح يتطلب منكوا يا شباب في أي مقطع استماعي بدي تكونا مركزين جدًا جدًا جدًا، أوكي؟**
طيب أنا عشان ما أطول عشان لازم نمشي في المادة

[*This means you have to pay attention and concentrate every time we have listening exercise and play a recording. Ok? Now, I don't want to take long on this as we need to move quicker*]

(b) T1: **We work smart but not hard** ‫، طيب، إحنا بنعمل بذكاء مش بجهد ماله داع‬ [*We work smart not too hard as that is unnecessary*]

(c) T1: Yeah, yes Please. **سريع يا شباب سريع Quickly, quickly guys**

Grammar-related

Translation was also commonly used to explain grammar. Resorting to translation for this purpose by both teachers and students was observed in three of the classes. This is hardly a surprise, as using translation to teach grammar has been identified as quite popular in previous research (e.g. Bukhari, 2017; Alsuhaibani 2015). Extract 12a shows the teacher (T4) translating to explain a grammatical point – how to compare using superlatives in English. Furthermore, in the same situation, as shown in Extract 12b, one student used Arabic as he sought clarification in relation to a relevant grammatical point. Not only did T4 seem fine with the student using his L1 in the class to ask the question, but he also answered in Arabic:

Extract 12

(a) T4: **Let's have a look at the one syllable adjective but in the superlative form.**
فورم التفضيل، كيف بنفضل؟ بدي أعمل علي أحسن من كل الطلا ب اللي في الصف، فبقول
Ali is ‫موجودة دائما The دايمًا بالتفضيل، دايما the بنضيف the اتطلع شو القاعدة بتقول‬
the + ‫دايمًا بالمقارنةthan بالتفضيل دائمًا، اللي موجودة the اللي موجودة فالقاعدة بتقول‬
adjective + -est

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[*The superlative form, how do we use it? If I wanted to say Ali is better than all the students in the class, 'the' is always there when you're comparing in the form of superlative, while 'than' is used when you're comparing in the comparative form. So, we always use 'the' with superlatives. The rule says: the+ adjective + est*]

(b) S1: **مع التفضيل much أقدر أستخدم دكتور؟**[*Doctor, can I use much with superlatives*?]

T4: **ما بتركب Amman is the much most modern city ما بتركب ما بتركب، مثلًا اذا حتقول much مع التفضيل أنا استخدمتها ما شفت ما وزي** [*No, it won't work. See, if I was to use it here – 'Amman is the much most modern city' – it doesn't work. I have not used much with previous examples of superlatives*]

Addressing technical issues

The observations also revealed that translation was used by teachers to address technical issues in the virtual classes. As stated earlier, all the classes were held remotely owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, meaning that teachers and students alike were required, at least, to have at home a functioning computer, good internet connection, headphones and a microphone. A lack of any of these would result in problems and – as shown in Extract 13 – T2 addressed this in English and Arabic during a listening exercise:

Extract 13

T2: S2, could you please unmute your mic?

S2: Silent. (But responds in the chat box, in Arabic, that he doesn't have a microphone. **(ماعندي مايك)** [*I don't have a microphone*]

T2: **عزيزي احنا اتفقنا قلتلكم في الاسبوع الماضي جيب أي مايك 10 ريال، 15 ريال ما اعتقد إنه ما بتقدر في كل محاضرة والتقييم listeningتجيب هاي المايك بعشرة أو15 ريال من أي مكان، لأنه راح يكون فيه عنا Listening quizzes،راح يكون في المحاضرة ولسه معنا** هذا الكلام قلته المرة الماضية، [*Dear, we agreed last week, I told you that you need to bring a microphone of any quality, get an SAR10 or SAR15 microphone from anywhere, I don't think that's unaffordable. I told you about this last time because you will be assessed on listening in every class, and there are going to be listening quizzes*]

In another class, translation was also used for a similar purpose as the teacher (T5) was trying to show his students a picture on his screen during a vocabulary-focused activity but was

unsuccessful. As can be seen in Extract 14, when addressing this issue and referring his students to find the picture in their books, the teacher translated his English utterance into Arabic:

Extract 14

T5: The second picture here you can see the porter talking to a man and then the third picture which is the reception. **You can't see it here but it's between the two pages.** بسبب أنه بين الصفحتين فما هي واضحة هنا. الصورة حتكون موجودة هنا. [*It's not clear to see since it's between the two pages, it's not clear here. You will find it here*]

Furthermore, translation was also used to address online-related issues that went well beyond merely possessing a microphone. That is, across all the observations, the students had their cameras turned off and were muted until they wished to speak or were called on. Thus, teachers were not able to see who was in attendance and would only find out when they called on a student and they responded. When there was no response, as observed in one class and shown in Extract 15, the teacher (T2) promptly switched to Arabic to make his displeasure fairly clear and to let it be known that he was fully aware some students were not present in the live session:

Extract 15

T2: S3, could you please unmute your mic? S3, can you hear me? (No response)

T2: OK. Who else? S4, can you hear me? OK.

T2: S5, can you hear me? OK شكلوا كتير طلاب اليوم فاتحين جوالاتهم وطالعين [*OK, it looks like a lot of the students have logged in through their phones but are not actually with us*].

Indeed, the sudden shift to online instruction was not without challenges as far as teachers were concerned. Contrary to bricks-and-mortar education, where teachers would be able to do a swift scan of the class, i.e. circulate to check in on students, see who was fully engaged with the lesson, or merely get a good gauge of the general atmosphere in the room, the situation seemed much harder in an online setting. This appeared to have been the reason for one teacher (T4) venting his frustration at the lack of interaction from his students, but it is the fact that he felt the need to translate his words of frustration into Arabic straight after that was of particular interest, as can be seen in Extract 16:

Extract 16

T4: **We have 25 students here but only 4 or 5 are participating? OK. 25 يعني معانا طالب لكن بس 4 أو5 اللي بيشاركوا؟**

Checking comprehension

Checking students' comprehension was another purpose for teachers using translation. This was observed in four of the six classes, including a class taught by a native speaker of English. Extract 17a shows the teacher (T1) checking in English and then in Arabic whether the students had understood the instructions he gave about their listening assessment. Extract 17b shows another teacher (T2) using translation to check if students had grasped a new technical term:

Extract 17

(a) T1: **Is that clear guys? Is that clear? واضح ياشباب؟**

S6: واضح[*clear*].

(b) T2: Accelerator, **it controls the speed تتحكم بالسرعة. Is that clear guys? واضح ياشباب؟**

Feedback and praise

Teachers in ESAP classes also used translation to give feedback and praise students. Using the students' L1 for these purposes was observed in four of the six classes. Extract 18a shows the teacher (T1) approving of the student's (S6) answer in a grammar activity in the chat box; he interestingly chose to do so in Arabic first and then translated exactly into English. Also, Extract 18b shows T2 praising a student's correct answer in English and Arabic, saying the word 'excellent' in English first and then in Arabic. In addition, he further praised him in Arabic by using an Islamic expression 'MashAllah Alaik/Allah has willed this for you', commonly used to praise someone and to keep the evil eye away from them at the same time:

Extract 18

(a) T1: Yes, **than هذي الجملة الوحيدة الي نقدر نستخدم فيها this is the only blank where we could use than.**

(b) T2: What does freebies mean?

S7: أشياء مجانية [*free things*]

T2: OK. In English?

S7: Free stuff.

T2: **Excellent.** طيب ممتاز ما شاء الله عليك[*Excellent. Allah has willed it for you*]

A comment that can be made here is that T2 may have resorted to the students' L1 seeking to alleviate potential L2 anxiety among them. T2 was observed using the same approach with his students multiple times during class. Having already expressed his displeasure at the lack of participants in his class, as can be seen in Extract 19, it was observed that more hands were raised, metaphorically speaking, as the class time wore on. Complimenting students with remarks indicating their shared culture or religion may have helped create a more comfortable atmosphere, leading to the students feeling less anxious and hence increasing their participation. T2 was later observed praising the whole class for their contribution during a listening activity:

> **Extract 19**
>
> T2: OK. Good. ما شاء الله عليكم. Thank you very much [*Mash Allah alaikum – Allah has willed it for you all – meaning well done!*]

Eliciting translation

A common approach observed in most classes was teachers attempting to elicit translation of different types of vocabulary from students. An example related to this function is shown in Extract 20, in which the teacher (T4) asked his student to provide the Arabic translation of the word 'collision' as he tackled a reading passage discussing cars in the modern day, even though he had already explained the meaning of the word in English. This instance is interesting since the teacher, having already explained the word in English, still felt the need to elicit its Arabic translation. He may have done so to ensure his students had understood:

> **Extract 20**
>
> T4: So, collision is like when two cars hit each other in the front so what does that mean? You could tell me that in Arabic. So, collision, what does collision mean?
>
> S8: تصادم [*collision*]
>
> T4: اصطدام/excellent yes ***collision***

Translation in practice: Students

The observations also revealed that there were various purposes and reasons for using translation among the other members of the class, the students. However, as will become evident in this section, there were far fewer examples of translation being used in practice by students

compared to the teachers. One explanation for this could be that the classes were almost fully teacher-centred, with the teachers doing most of the talking while students listened; the students only had the chance to speak when they were asked to participate or had questions. The shift to digital instruction might have made matters even more complicated for students in terms of classroom interaction, particularly being muted most of the time across all the classes observed. It would also be unwise to gloss over the circumstances under which the classes took place, i.e. living in a constant state of stress as a result of the pandemic, being in lockdown and thus experiencing a lack of social interaction, or perhaps just not being able to get a microphone for one reason or another. All these factors may have had an impact on the students' overall motivation and consequently their efforts and contributions in class.

Watching from behind a screen, I was able to pick up instances of the use of translation by students. In general, they tended either to request a translation from the teacher or attempt to provide a translation of a certain word when the teacher asked. An interesting example of the former is shown in Extract 21, taken from a vocabulary-related activity in which the teacher (T6), having just introduced a new specialised term to the students – *allergic* – urged them to use it correctly in a full sentence. As one student (S9) was attempting to do so, he seemed unsure of the English equivalent of the Arabic word عطر/*perfume*. He paused and sought help from his teacher, who confirmed that his translation of the said word was correct:

> **Extract 21**
> S9: Doctor, I'm allergic to... I don't know the word in English. عطر, is it **perfume**?
> T6: Yes, that's right.

Extract 22 shows another student (S10) being asked by the teacher (T4) about the meaning of the word 'communication'. The student answered by giving the Arabic translation of the word. Confirming the student's answer in Arabic, the teacher, who is in favour of teaching exclusively in English, did not seem to have an issue with translation being used here, although he then immediately switched back to English:

> **Extract 22**
> T4: Communication system between vehicles, what is communication?
> S10: تواصل؟[*communication?*]

T4: **OK. So, yes** تواصل so it's possible to communicate with other vehicles on the road, so yes تواصل [*communication*]

Students also used their L1 in the ESAP classes to ask for help from their teachers when they had difficulty pronouncing a word. Extract 23 shows a student (S11) using his mother tongue to indicate to the teacher (T3) that he was struggling to pronounce the answer of his choice. The teacher then encouraged him to try in Arabic. The student's attempt was successful and the teacher moved on.

Extract 23

S11: الكلمة صعبة يا دكتور مني عارف اقراها[*Doctor, this is a difficult word. I can't read it*].

T3: حاول [*try*]

So far, this chapter has focused on the purposes for using translation among ESAP teachers and students across all the classes observed. The following paragraphs present findings on how translation was used within those classes.

Translation in ESAP practice: Manner of use

The observations revealed different ways and techniques in terms of the use of translation by the ESAP teachers in the virtual classes. A very common way of using translation was the sandwiching technique, which involves sandwiching the Arabic translation of a certain term between the English word and its repetition, i.e. the word in L2 → the translation of the word in L1 → restating the same word in L2. The use of translation in such a way appeared more frequently when teachers were dealing with subject-specific terms, which they may have assumed the students had not encountered before or would have difficulty understanding in English. In a vocabulary-matching activity, T5 was observed using this form of translation in multiple situations when tackling medical terminology, as can be seen in Extracts 24a, 24b and 24c:

Extract 24

(a) T5: **Paediatric spoon.** ملعقة للأطفال. **Paediatric spoon**

(b) T5: **Scalpel. Yes.** المشرط. **Scalpel. Scalpel**.

(c) T5: So, **pharmacies dispense medicine** يصرف الأدوية، يصرف العلاجات. **Dispense medicine.**

Another interesting example of this form of translation appeared when one of the teachers observed (T4) seemed unsure of being able to explain the word 'hovercraft' in English when introducing the students to new vocabulary in a part of a lesson discussing modes of transport, as shown in Extract 25:

> **Extract 25**
>
> T4: Okay, **hovercrafts**. I'm not sure how to explain this one. حوامة **hovercraft.**

The observations also revealed that teachers used concurrent translation. That is, in various situations across the classes, they were observed supplying the Arabic translation immediately after every L2 statement. This form of translation appeared in various situations, such as when introducing specialised vocabulary and giving task instructions. For example, Extract 26 shows the teacher (T3) translating every English sentence in a business email as he was dealing with a reading exercise filled with finance-related terminology:

> **Extract 26**
>
> T3: **Dear Mr. Carson, here's a summary of the balance sheet** هذي خلاصة القوائم المالية **reporting your company's financial position** تبلغك عن موقف شركتك. **Carson Electronics holds $237,000 in Assets.** شركة كارسون عندها الان اصول قيمتها 237,000 $. **Your fixed assets amount to $47,000 in property and equipment.** الأصول الثابتة من **Carson Electronics is currently responsible** الممتلكات العقارية او الاجهزة قيمتها 47000$. **for $230,000 in liabilities** شركة كارسون حاليًا مسؤولة عن 230000$ من المتطلبات.

Translation was also used in the form of online bilingual dictionaries and digital learning tools. Although it was not possible to see whether students made use of bilingual dictionaries during the classes owing to each member of the class having their microphone and camera off, the teachers were observed referring to and urging their students to look up the Arabic translations digitally. This occurred in different classes and different situations, although commonly to deal with technical terminology, as can been seen in Extracts 27 and 28:

> **Extract 27**
>
> T3: Let's go for the words and discover their meanings, <u>they are already ready in your Quizlet with a proper translation</u>, and let's go for it.

Here, the teacher, having just gone through a series of finance-related vocabulary, was reminding his students that the Arabic translation for the technical terms had been made available on Quizlet, a mobile application that boosts students' learning via multiple study tools, including dictionaries. In Extract 28, one student asked his teacher (T6), a native speaker of English, whether two Arabic words translated into the same English term. Possibly owing to a lack of sufficient L1 knowledge in this instance, the teacher did not seem to understand the question fully and chose to encourage his students to use a bilingual dictionary for that purpose:

Extract 28

S12: [*Doctor, do cramp* شد عضلي وتشنج نفس الشيء في الإنجليزي لأن في العربي نفس الشيء؟
and convulsion mean the same thing in English like they do in Arabic?]

T6: I don't get it. Are you looking for the word spasm? Have you tried looking up the word in a dictionary? Look it up.

4.2.2 Interviews

This section presents the findings from the interviews with the ESAP teachers and students. As mentioned earlier, nine faculty members and six students were interviewed to gain a more in-depth understanding of their attitudes towards translation and the factors affecting them. The interviews also aimed to investigate in greater detail issues concerning the purposes for employing translation, in addition to whether the shift to remote teaching had impacted the attitudes of the teaching staff and their reported use of translation compared to pre-COVID times. This section first presents the findings from the teachers' interviews, followed by those from the students' interviews. All the interviews were held remotely via Zoom as the host university campus was closed, with Saudi Arabia being in nationwide lockdown in response to the global pandemic when these interviews took place. All the interviews were audio-recorded, then transcribed and translated into English where necessary. Table 4.2 presents the teachers' demographic information.

Table 4.2. Teacher participants (interview)

Teacher	Teacher's L1	Qualification
T1	Arabic	Master's
T2	Arabic	Master's
T3	Arabic	Master's
T4	Arabic	Master's
T5	Arabic	Master's
T6	English	Master's
T7	Urdu	Master's
T8	Arabic	PhD
T9	Urdu	PhD

The results presented in this section provide the basis for answering the following research questions:

RQ4: What are teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP?

RQ3: What factors influence teachers' and students' use of translation in ESAP?

RQ2: What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP?

RQ6: Do teachers report differences in attitudes towards and use of translation due to the shift to online teaching because of the Covid-19 pandemic?

Teachers' interviews

Teachers' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP classes

'English has to be the overwhelming language in the ESAP class.' (T4)

The wording may be different, yet the message was the same. The above quotation reflects the general feeling among the teachers concerning which language should be used in class. Indeed, the interviews revealed that the prevailing view amongst the ESAP teaching set-up at the ELC was that English should be the dominant language in class. Indeed, all the teachers without exception were in support of English being used as much as possible to the extent that one teacher (T8) claimed that 'the best way to teach English is through English'. However, most of the participants were less forceful, rather alluding to various issues that seemed to contribute to their support for more English in ESAP settings. The issue of exposure seemed of a particular concern to a few, with one teacher (T6) revealing that he tried to avoid using the students' L1 since L2 exposure outside the class was limited.

> 'I know students spend 16 hours a week with us to get exposed to as much English as possible. Because I know the environment, and I always tell them when you leave me after those 16 hours a week and you go on a holiday for two weeks or two days, there's a possibility you don't use the language with your family or friends. So, I always try to tell them in the first 2 weeks that I prefer that most of the time, 99% if you can immerse yourself in the language.' (T6)

T9 was in agreement and interestingly revealed that he took advantage of being non-Arab, pretending that he did not speak the students' L1, although his Arabic was fairly good according to him:

> 'I tell my students when I first meet them that I don't understand Arabic at all, I act and pretend. I prepare them mentally to the fact that English will be the top priority and requirement of the class.' (T9)

As a result, he claimed the students realised they had to use English and English only:

> '…students lose the chance to improve communication skills if Arabic is the dominant language.' (T9)

Practising the target language in class seemed to be high on the ESAP teachers' list of priorities, as T3 noted:

> 'I view language as a meal, and that meal has to be rich. Students therefore should be afforded the opportunity to practise their English with me.' (T3)

Teachers also feared that if they deviated from the English-only approach, they would end up going against the very purpose they were there to fulfil. As one teacher (T7) noted, anything other than English being dominant in the class meant that 'I will go against the purpose of teaching a language', whilst T9 stated that compromising on this 'means the purpose of language is defeated, especially in Saudi Arabia where English practice outside the classroom is lacking'. For some teacher participants, the support for more English within their classrooms was down to personal preferences. One teacher (T3) noted that 'speaking English makes the class more exciting', whereas T4 favoured more English in his classes as 'it's just personal preference'.

Identifying the reasons behind personal preferences is always difficult. Interestingly, however, the views of one teacher participant (T8), who strongly advocated an English-only approach, seemed to be highly influenced by the academic literature related to English language teaching. This became evident as he responded to a question on whether translation should be used in the ESAP class, saying 'If we go by the academic perspective, the scholarly perspective, we

shouldn't be using translation. It's deemed as an obstacle rather than a help'. This is unsurprising as the theoretical position on English language teaching has long been far from positive in relation to translation.

Although the general consensus among the teachers was in favour of as much English as possible in the ESAP class, there was still support for translation. In response to the question '*Do you use translation in your ESAP class?*', all the teachers interviewed reported having used translation to varying extents and for different reasons and purposes within their classes. One teacher (T8) said 'I do translation myself', while another (T1) revealed that he was 'open to it being used' in his ESAP class. Indeed, the interviews revealed that the teachers appreciated the perceived useful role translation could play within their classes. Discussing whether translation would be of value within ESAP classes, T6, a native speaker of English, noted that translation is 'a tool that you have which is very powerful in terms of ESAP'. Talking about translation in English language teaching *sensu lato* and within ESAP *sensu stricto*, T1 argued that 'translation is badly needed, especially when teaching medical and scientific groups'.

What became clear from the interviews with those in charge of the ESAP classes was that they had no issue with translation per se. As T6 said, 'I'm not strongly against it'. What the ESAP teachers did seem to take exception to was ESAP classes potentially filled with translation and students' L1 in general. It seemed that the teachers tended to prefer exercising caution with regard to translation in the ESAP class. Emphasising the importance of such a cautious approach, one teacher (T9) said:

> 'I'm of the opinion that the use of translation shouldn't be to the extent where the purpose of learning is defeated. So, it should be used carefully. It should be kept to a minimum as to not distort the learning process.'

In agreement with this, T7 noted that 'too much translation is not beneficial', and T5 also stated that 'too much translation means you are not teaching English'. There seems to be a serious concern among teachers that unrestricted use of translation will lead to the students' L1 being more dominant in the ESAP class; as a result, T7 was of the view that 'in the long run students won't learn anything'. Expanding on this issue, teachers expressed a notable degree of concern that if the use of translation was unregulated within the ESAP class, the consequences would be anything but positive as the students would develop the habit of using the L1, which would in turn serve as an obstacle to their progress. They reported as follows:

'…more reliance on translation would affect students as they would make speaking Arabic a habit and that's a barrier to them.' (T9)

'…students may get into the habit of using Arabic for communication which shouldn't be allowed.' (T7)

Interestingly, the perceived potential danger of falling into the habit of using translation was not only a matter of concern in relation to students' progress but also teachers' own practice. As T1 noted, 'When you start using the mother tongue, I feel I can't get rid of it'. Rather interesting was the view of T6, a native speaker of English, who shared a similar concern, noting that the students' L1:

'…is something that's very useful if you have it in your pocket. But at the same time sometimes I say thank God I don't know much Arabic because I would forget myself and use it a lot.'

Among the other reasons contributing to the ESAP teachers' cautious stance with regard to the use of translation, one teacher (T7) referred to his past experience, but as an EFL student rather than a teacher. T7, whose native language was Urdu, argued that translation 'won't take them [students] nowhere and that's from a non-native speaker of English'. Relating to his experience learning English as an L2, the same teacher added that:

'…translation won't improve your language or interlanguage inner system. Translation will hamper students' creativity. They won't be able to use words in different sentences. Their ability to think in L2 will be hampered.'

Another common belief expressed by the ESAP teachers was that translation should be a last resort. For example, T8 admitted that he was not a fan of translation and noted that 'translation should be the last resort after all else has failed'. The same sentiment was expressed by T5, who stated that 'my preference is that students immerse themselves in English, and only resort to translation after having tried everything they could in English'. The concern seemed to be that if translation were to become students' first go-to option:

'…it would ultimately end up being the option they prefer the most, rendering learning English difficult.' (T5)

T4 revealed that he gave his students the freedom to code-switch in his classes provided that they first tried in English:

> '[If] they're really unable to express themselves clearly; or they can't get their point across, I'd then allow them to codeswitch. I mean only if they really couldn't say it in English'.

One comment that may better serve to summarise the general attitude of teachers towards translation in ESAP practice can be found in the words of T9, who noted that 'translation should be long enough to cover, short enough to create interest', adding that translation is 'a skill that should be used cautiously' (T9)

When teachers were asked if they had used or would use translation activities, i.e. translating texts from one language to another, in their ESAP classes, only one teacher reported having done so:

> 'I give translation tasks sometimes. I use it for fun, but through this fun I know students benefit. Students love them.' (T2)

The widely held perception, however, was that translation should be a means, only used as a crutch for students to progress to advanced levels in terms of their L2 competence. Discussing this issue, T5 stated:

> '…translation is a tool with which students can improve their language skills. Once the four skills have improved, students won't need the help of translation.'

Indeed, translation was viewed as something students could survive without 'once someone has mastered the language' (T4), or rather as a skill and something that they 'won't probably need much once they've learnt good English' (T9). In other words, the perceived skill of translation is 'only appropriate for those seeking a career in translation' (T4). As for translation activities in the ESAP context, T4 also claimed that 'they won't add much to the students'.

Teachers' reported use of translation: Factors influencing its use

The teachers identified various factors driving the use of translation related to both themselves and their students, as detailed below.

- Students' proficiency level
    'Without using translation, students will be as quiet as a vase in a room.' (T3)

What emerged from the interviews was that all the teachers without fail reported having called upon translation for various reasons. The most common reason cited was the students'

proficiency level. Most revealed that their use of translation was almost always due to the students lacking sufficient L2 competence for teaching to be delivered fully in English. One teacher (T3), recalling a recent experience teaching an ESAP business class, said:

> 'If it was solely up to me, I would not use translation. But since there are weak students, it has to be used.'

Discussing this issue, T4, a strong advocate of an English-only approach in ESAP classes, revealed that not only was translation an option, but rather a first option owing to his students' poor proficiency level in L2:

> 'I have not used as much translation as I have this semester because the students were very weak. The students could not comprehend anything. Translation was therefore the answer. They were really weak, to the point where translation became my first go-to option.'

T8 also reported his students' proficiency level was really poor, to the extent that his ESAP class 'felt like an Arabic class'.

One possible explanation could be related to the fact that the ESAP teachers in the ELC were teaching mixed-ability classes when this study took place. This was due to the host university cancelling the usual placement test earlier in the year because of the global pandemic and the country being in lockdown. Thus, some teachers could find themselves teaching a class in which the majority of the students were at a low level in English. Referring to this issue, T8, who was not in favour of translation mainly because of its bad press in the literature, noted that he found himself having to use translation for what could be deemed the greater good:

> 'I would normally only use English if the majority of the students were at advanced level. But this year because there was no placement test, I found myself in situations where I had one student who was very good at English, and another student who was very weak. What can I do in such a situation? Whatever I do, whether I use translation or not, it would be unfair to one of them. But if I used translation, which I did, at least the good student will only feel bored, whereas the weak student would benefit.'

Sharing a similar sentiment, T9, an Urdu native speaker, noted that:

> '…you would hardly need any translation if [the students'] proficiency level were fine. But with weak students you find yourself relying more on translation.'

T9 also later added that using translation is advantageous for all concerned inside the ESAP class:

> 'Of course, translation helps both the teacher and the students.'

An Arab-speaking teacher (T5) was also in tune with this, attributing his use of translation to dealing with students of poor proficiency level:

> 'I would not use Arabic at all if the students were good. But when the students are weak you haven't really got much of a choice. What can you do?'

Furthermore, T7 revealed that the issue of the students' proficiency level was a talking point among the teaching staff at the ELC:

> 'I discussed that [using translation in ESAP classes] with the teachers, and we switch to translation more often with weaker groups.'

Interestingly, one student interviewee (S3) mentioned that his ESAP teacher, despite having a clear preference for 'only English in class', used translation because:

> '…he was understanding and aware that not everyone was good at English. He wanted them to learn.'

Further discussing the issue of students' proficiency, some teachers laid the blame at the door of the schools and general education in Saudi Arabia as a whole. One teacher (T9) stated that:

> '…definitely there's a backdrop to this scenario which is that students' English subjects at school.'

Another teacher (T8) noted that:

> '…the main reason as to why students are this weak is secondary school education and previous levels. If you see students' answers, you will feel as though they have memorized sentences. They definitely don't know enough to create a sentence.'

- Students' anxiety

Another notable factor that surfaced in the interviews as influencing ESAP teachers' use of translation was the issue of students' anxiety and stress within the L2 environment. There is extensive research on this topic in the literature (e.g. Levine, 2003; Horwitz, et al., 1986), and it is believed that the use of translation and students' L1 is beneficial in terms of alleviating

students' anxiety. Discussing this matter, T8, noted that he usually began his lessons speaking exclusively in English, but:

> '…as I gauge the general atmosphere amongst the students having spoken English for 3 minutes straight, I can sense that they become increasingly uncomfortable I therefore begin to translate.'

According to the same teacher, who was in favour of monolingual teaching within ESAP practices, 'as soon as I translate, I feel like students have started breathing again. Sometimes I end up translating every sentence'. Giving much thought to the psychological side of things, T9 revealed that he relied on translation since it:

> '…gives students kind of psychological security. When it's all English some students are intimidated by the English-only, so translation eases [students' fears], they don't feel intimidated.'

- Teacher's ESAP knowledge: 'I'm not a doctor. I'm not an engineer'

A discrete factor influencing teachers' use of translation in class was related to what seemed to be insufficient ESAP knowledge in the target language. The material teachers deal with across the different domains of ESAP can often be highly technical and very subject-specific. Of course, ESAP teachers are expected not only to be competent English teachers but also to handle the challenging nature of the discipline-specific material they teach. Touching on this issue, one teacher (T1) noted:

> 'No matter how much I prepare, I won't be able to cover all the information related to a certain topic. I'm not a doctor, I'm not an engineer. Doctors study for years to become qualified, that's not the case for us.'

The same teacher went on to add that translation is almost indispensable 'when teaching medicine and scientific groups but can be minimised with business groups'. Sharing similar views in this regard, T9 felt that subject-matter knowledge was the deciding factor, noting that calling upon translation in ESAP practice:

> '…depends on the teacher's expertise with the subject he's teaching. If the teacher is familiar with the subject and the terms.'

Adding a further comment from a wealth of first-hand ESAP experience, T9 recalled:

> '…over my years of experience of teaching medicine I've become much more familiar with the terms we find in the books we're teaching, so over the years I've got the

meaning and the synonyms of those words available to me. But, for example, when I was teaching the business books I wasn't as familiar with the terminology and in my short- and long-term memory I didn't have the exact definition in English, or I could explain in English but it would take more time, so I had to rely on translation and the students got the idea in a better manner.'

Responding to a question on this matter, the native English-speaker teacher's (T6) views were consistent with those of his colleagues, noting that the use of translation in ESAP was 'more related to my background of the subject'. Based on his experience, he called upon translation more 'when teaching science as I have more background compared to business terminology. But I use more translation when teaching medicine'.

While most teachers reported using translation due to insufficient subject matter knowledge in L2 in various situations and across the different disciplinary domains of ESAP, one teacher's (T4) experience was completely and interestingly different. For T4, an Arabic native speaker, 'it can be a struggle to find an Arabic equivalent for an English word'; namely, when teaching science-related content he noted, 'it is difficult to come up with an accurate translation'. The issue for T4 seemed to be related to subject-specific knowledge in both languages rather than one. This also seemed to be the case for T5, who revealed facing difficulty with the ESAP material in both languages and stated that some of the specialised concepts were 'difficult in Arabic let alone English'. However, Arabic remains their choice of the two languages 'to facilitate understanding' (T5).

- Teachers' frustration and students' expectations

Among the reasons mentioned for teachers resorting to translation in their practice was frustration. For one teacher, it was the main reason and he reported:

'In all honesty, the main reason why translation becomes my go-to option most of the time is frustration' (T3).

Asked to elaborate on situations when this might occur, T3 added:

'I may feel frustrated at the lack of interaction from students. You will have the odd one or two students participating, but that doesn't last long because they get bored.'

It appears that various issues left the teachers frustrated and thus they resorted to translation, reluctantly at times. One of these concerned the students' response in the ESAP classes. As T8 commented:

> 'I try to make English the main means of instruction in class, but if the students' reaction is not positive, I switch to Arabic and ultimately translate every sentence.'

For T4, the source of frustration was non-existent interaction within his ESAP classes until he began translating into their L1. In his words, 'There was no interaction whatsoever without translation'.

Rather interestingly, another teacher's frustration was caused by his students' expectations that he should translate:

> '…if you're not using translation students look at you and think you're not doing what's required, you're not doing your job properly.' (T7)

The same teacher, who was in favour of English being dominant in the class, said he felt 'obligated to use translation from the students' point of view'.

- Factors related to virtual teaching

The shift to remote teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic presented unprecedented challenges and the ESAP-focused classes in the ELC were not immune. These challenges were believed to have contributed to ESAP teachers calling upon translation more often. As one teacher (T2) noted:

> 'I don't know why but I clarify things a lot [in Arabic]. There could a reason for that which is you don't know about the situation of your students, so you feel you're not getting your message across.'

What T2 seems to be referring to here is the fact that he was unable to see the students' facial expressions or observe their body language during the class, which would presumably have helped him better gauge the online class atmosphere. More concerning to T2 was 'the students' lack of participation', which he considered was improved by translation as 'they became more interactive as I used more translation'. The issue of the lack of cues from body language was also discussed by another teacher (T9), who argued that:

> '…translation is needed more in online teaching … [Since] body language is missing when you're teaching online, that gap has to be bridged by translation in order to help the students be aware of what's going on in class.'

For other teaching staff interviewed, the unplanned move to digital education in response to the sudden, unfortunate change in the status quo meant that they needed to cope with unfamiliar and unexpected situations. This was described by T1, who stated:

> '…we didn't expect this at the beginning, we didn't think it would be difficult to teach online. We don't know whether the students are paying attention.'

A factor frequently mentioned by the teachers with regard to online teaching was the lack of interaction on the part of the students. T1 also reported that:

> '…sometimes I talk for 15 minutes without hearing anything back from the students.'

T5 said 'sometimes I feel like I'm talking to myself'.

It seems, as some teachers noted, that translation came to the rescue in the new unfamiliar environment, with T1 claiming that ESAP teachers were 'lost' in online classes so 'translation helps through the internet'. For another teacher (T4), the transition to online instruction created what he described as 'an electronic wall' that prevented him from 'being able to see the students and their facial expressions'. This seemed to give rise to a sense of guilt that he might not be doing his best:

> 'I therefore used more translation to ease my conscience.' (T4)

Sharing a similar but personally confusing version of events, T2 revealed that he found himself in a situation in which:

> '…the majority of the students had never been on the mic, but the majority still performed excellently in the exam. This suggests they are good students, but they just lack the desire to participate.'

However, for T2 the students performing well in their exam was not a sufficient measure of their L2 competence and comprehension of lessons, particularly with the lack of interaction from them, which made him 'feel like you're not getting your message across'. The answer for T2 was still to translate and he reported 'I've used it a lot online'.

Another factor related to the transition to remote teaching and the influence on ESAP teachers' practice with regard to translation was time. On this, T8, who also seemed to lament the lack of body language since 'it is essential to understand students', stated that translation was:

'…definitely called upon more regularly because of the impacts of COVID-19. I wanted to finish quicker. We were under pressure because we did not have enough time.'

It should be noted here that among the measures introduced to mitigate the impact of COVID-19, Saudi Arabia recommended that class time be reduced, and a royal decree followed ordering that the academic year would end six weeks earlier than scheduled. Touching upon this issue of time at a bit more length, T2 noted:

'If you're time-restricted like ourselves now, of course I will resort to translation. I'm not going to spend 10 good minutes trying to explain a term in English. I'm not going to ask the students to bring out a dictionary and look up the meaning of the word and its synonyms. I will translate and move on.'

Teachers' reported use of translation: Purposes

The nine teachers who took part in the interviews reported a host of different purposes for employing translation in their ESAP classes. Quite common was the use of translation to deal with various types of vocabulary. In particular, there seemed to be consensus among the teaching staff that the nature of ESAP material, typically full of subject-specific terminology, necessitates translation. A rather interesting take in this regard came from a native English-speaker teacher with limited Arabic competence, who noted:

'When it comes to ESP, sometimes they do get stuck with specific words like words related to bacteria, or words related to medical procedures. Even though I know I don't have the background of the language to use it as a specific context, I try to tell them maybe if you get stuck with this word you can take one bit of your time to look it up, they use apps for bilingual dictionary.' (T6)

The use of translation for the purpose of handling discipline-specific words was further mentioned by other teachers, with one noting:

'I use translation sometimes to explain technical terms, words which are difficult to explain or are just unexplainable in English.' (T4)

T3 also reported employing translation 'to explain technical terms'. For T8, who reported using and allowing translation in his ESAP class for the same purpose, the importance of translation with regard to subject-specific terminology lay in the fact that it conveyed the exact meaning of a given term, which he deemed essential in the early stage of their academic studies:

'Students join the preparatory year programme to leave with sufficient knowledge about their field of study. And in the second term, we deal with highly technical material,

which a freshman is not ready yet to understand only in English. Take the word 'camouflage' or 'infrastructure', for example, if I was to explain them in English, it would take me time and there is a possibility they wouldn't still understand what it actually means. They would get the gist, but we don't want them to only get the gist. Let them use an English–Arabic dictionary, that would be excellent, in fact.' (T8)

In other words, translation is used to ensure concrete understanding of a technical term, which in turn then allows students to 'use the term correctly in English' (T8). Meanwhile, much thought seemed to be given to the nature of the terminology being dealt with in the ESAP class. T5 mentioned that ESAP-related vocabulary items 'are difficult in Arabic let alone in English'. Consequently, to make students' lives easier, he said:

'I resort to translation to facilitate. If the term is too difficult or if the general meaning is unclear, I resort to translation.' (T5)

Sharing a similar sentiment, T9 stated that translation:

'…helps in explaining specialised terminology where grasping the concept is difficult, so you supply them with direct translation.'

Likewise, another teacher reported using translation quite often with difficult terminology:

'I use translation a lot when I feel that even the English definition of the word is still difficult. And I also use it sometimes to explain what a word means.' (T2)

There also seemed to be a general tendency to encourage students to look up discipline-specific words in a bilingual dictionary. As T7 stated, 'as far as vocabulary is concerned, I ask them to try and find the Arabic for that word, the ESP word in that text'.

Another main purpose for using translation in the ESAP class was saving time. For most of the teachers, translation offered a useful option in terms of time economy in class and they especially discussed situations in which it would be time consuming to rely solely on English. In other words, in various situations, it was possible to hit two birds with one stone using translation:

'Resorting to the mother tongue sometimes helps me spare time and achieve my goal. I can translate IVF in two Arabic words without going into so much detail. These are examples where translation is useful to both the teacher and the students. The students achieve understanding, and the teacher achieves his goal.' (T1)

Through translation, it seemed that the ESAP teachers could achieve classroom-related objectives, when realising these was dependent on effective time management. In this regard, one teacher noted that:

> '…translation saves a lot of the time … [and] … it takes away troubles when there are time constraints.' (T7)

Rather interestingly, T1 reported relying on his teaching experience in gauging how much time an aspect of the lesson would require, a presumed effective approach to time management in class:

> 'I reflect and ask myself; why not use Arabic here which can help me manage time and help students absorb the concept easily without taking them here and there to understand it.' (T1)

A theme that commonly emerged when the ESAP teachers spoke of the purposes for using translation concerned students' comprehension. Again, the perceived challenging nature of the ESAP material was alluded to. There seemed to be consensus among the teachers that they 'need it [translation] as a facilitative tool that makes the lesson a lot easier' (T3). Translation was believed to be effective in 'getting the message across' to the students according to some teachers, with T4 further noting that 'my sole and primary concern is that students understand. I'm not concerned about anything else'. Citing a similar purpose, T5 stated that 'my use of translation depends on whether students will understand'. The same teacher further reported:

> '…the ESP material we deal with is not easy. There are lots of difficult units and difficult terminology. So, my use of translation hinges on whether I feel students will understand.' (T5)

It appeared that it was sometimes a matter of teachers using their intuition when it came to the issue of students' comprehension. As T2 put it, 'I use translation if I feel students are struggling to comprehend something'.

Related to the importance of ensuring students' comprehension, for some teachers, translation was used to ease a sense of guilt. This appeared to be more the case with remote teaching, which presented issues, as already discussed, in terms being unable to see the students and the resulting missing cues from body language and lack of interaction. As such, teachers might find themselves in situations in which they could not determine their success in getting their message across, in contrast to face-to-face teaching where a nod, shrug, or shake of the head could serve

as a useful indicator. Thus, using translation was reported to help teachers at least feel that they had done their utmost to make use of all available resources:

> 'In the current semester and the previous one, I began to use the two languages in combination. I'd explain the word in English first, and then provide them with the Arabic translation. This means that I've made use of the all the tools available to ensure they understand. Translation is the last step in that process. I've used this approach a lot recently, it makes me feel that I've done my best.' (T4)

For another teacher (T5), translation was 'a source of reassurance' without which he wouldn't 'feel good and wouldn't be certain that the students have understood'. Translation helped him ensure that he and the students were 'on the same page' (T5).

Another main purpose reported for the use of translation was explaining grammatical points. For example, T9 noted that using translation in teaching grammar allowed the students to relate the point to the grammar of their own L1 and therefore facilitated the process of grammar acquisition:

> 'Most grammatical terms, for example tenses, it's difficult for students to explain them in English but they can grasp the idea very quickly when explained in Arabic. So translation helps a lot in grammar because the students can reach what's more familiar to them. If I talk about conditional sentences and say *aljumlah alsharteeah/conditional clauses*, they can grasp the idea very quickly.' (T9)

For another teacher, using translation to point out the differences between the two languages in terms of grammar was useful:

> 'I do use it in grammar and translate *the* to (*al altaaref*), so I tell them you can't use *(the) al altareef* for islands like Indonesia. You can't say the Indonesia as opposed to concepts like the Bahamas and the Caribbean. So, I basically point out the difference between the two languages and it's helpful.' (T6)

Another teacher (T5) noted that using translation when teaching grammar was rather essential when it was not possible to either draw similarities or point out differences between the two languages:

> 'Some grammar tenses are difficult to explain in English since Arabic doesn't have them. So, you need to use Arabic to make the process of understanding them easier. If I was to explain them in English, the student wouldn't be able compare between the two languages. For example, you can't explain what present perfect is in English because it doesn't exist in the Arabic language. You have to explain what it actually means.' (T5)

Discussing the use of translation for the same purpose, T2 interestingly stated that:

> '…proponents of the Grammar Translation method discussed the benefit of comparing the two languages, and we as speakers of English as a second language tend to think more in English than Arabic.'

Drawing on the literature in relation to his own practice, the same teacher said that he used translation 'to compare the two languages', giving the example of 'similarities between relative clauses' across English and Arabic.

Amongst other purposes for which the ESAP teachers used translation was giving instructions in class. Translation seemed to be instrumental for teachers in terms of ensuring everyone was on board, especially when it came to in-class tasks. As one teacher reported:

> 'I would say the first thing is the instructions. We say them in English and then repeat them in Arabic to make sure everyone understands what we're going to do, what's going on in class.' (T9)

Others pointed to a similar function in their ESAP classes, with T6 stating he too used translation:

> '…for instructions to ensure the activity we're going to conduct is clearly understood by the students, so they know what they have to do.'

For another teacher (T1), using translation when 'setting exercises especially in ESP classes' allowed students to better understand them and was also time-saving since 'it could take you time to give instructions' in English only.

Students' interviews: Views of and self-reported use of translation

The findings from the student interviews revealed that the prevailing view among them was that translation had a key role to play in their ESAP learning. As one student noted, 'I find translation quite important since it can help you enrich your knowledge in different areas' (S4), adding that 'it is even more important in the second term', when the lessons are ESAP-focused, in contrast to the first term when the classes are EGP-focused. According to the same student:

> '…in the second term, we encounter lots of words that I have never come across, so I have to use translation a lot' (S4).

The perceived need for translation to handle highly technical language was by and large a recurring theme across all the interviews conducted with the students. As such, it is perhaps

unsurprising that 'translation was quite popular amongst the students' (S1). Discussing this very issue, the same student stated that:

> 'I do [use translation] because it facilitates understanding and memorising. Understanding a medical term is made easier through translation as opposed to through English. I feel like I have to use translation..' (S1)

Similarly, S3 reported that 'translation is quite useful with discipline-specific terminology, and with new vocabulary as well' and S2 viewed translation as 'crucial to understand engineering-related vocabulary. I use Google Translate to look a word up'.

The students also seemed to view translation as a key tool that allowed them to make strides in their ESAP learning process. As S4 noted, 'there are a lot of words that I don't know. I don't think I can make progress without translation'.

The general consensus among the student interviewees seemed to be that the need for translation was greater in the early stages of learning the language, with one student noting that translation 'is very important at the beginning' (S2). The students appeared to view translation as a necessary crutch with the aid of which they would be able to arrive at a stage where they could firmly stand on their own two feet in terms of language competence. An interesting example was the experience of S1, who felt he needed translation despite being 'told translating every word you come across is the wrong approach'. He went on to say 'As my English improved with time, I no longer needed translation'. Another student noted:

> '…it is important to know the meaning of the words in Arabic when you're a beginner. As your English improves, you can then start looking up words in English.' (S2)

Discussing the use of translation in ESAP classes, most students reported that English was for the most part the dominant language in class. They also said that English was the language they were encouraged and urged to use when communicating and participating in class, with one student noting 'my teacher prefers that we only use English' (S2). Another student related that 'my teacher only speaks in English. He isn't Arab' (S5). Nonetheless, the majority also recounted that translation did take place in their ESAP classes, with one student interestingly stating that:

> 'My teacher isn't Arab, his native language isn't Arabic. He only knows a few Arabic words. But he does ask students to provide Arabic translation for a word, for example.

His method was excellent as students were interacting. He used translation to explain difficult terminology such as helicobacter pylori and fever.' (S1)

Another student (S2) reported that in his ESAP class:

'…the teacher translates the new words. He sometimes provides us with the Arabic synonyms of a term. He also uses translation in listening and speaking activities.'

The students also stated that despite their teachers favouring more English in class, they were encouraged to use bilingual dictionaries, as can be seen in Extract 29 from a student interview:

Extract 29

S3: My teacher was a foreigner. He used English with all the students.

Researcher: So, was translation not allowed in the class?

S3: No. Not at all. It's actually quite the opposite. He encouraged us to look things up in Arabic, using a dictionary or Google Translate. He even recommended English-Arabic dictionaries for us to use.

In this regard, S6 stated that in his own ESAP class 'the teacher is quite reserved' about using any language other than English; having tried 'every possible means to explain in English, the teacher then calls upon translation as a last resort'.

Translation in remote ESAP teaching

Owing to the coronavirus pandemic and the ensuing enforced shift to online classes, teachers and students alike faced a situation with no precedent. With these extraordinary circumstances affecting different aspects across education, the teachers were asked whether there was an impact on their practice in terms of their choice of language, and in particular the use of translation, as opposed to their experiences on campus before the age of COVID-19. As can be seen in Extracts 30a–d from different interviews with teachers, most reported that the transition to remote teaching had an impact on their practice concerning the use of translation:

Extract 30

(a) T1: Yes. Translation is really maximised when teaching online because we don't see the students. We didn't expect this at the beginning. We didn't think it would be difficult to teach online, because we don't know whether the students are paying

attention. Sometimes I talk for 15 minutes without hearing anything back from the students, all these things contribute.

(b) T2: I found myself use translation more in online teaching compared to face-to-face teaching. I don't know why but I clarify things a lot. There could be a reason for that, which is you don't know about the situation of your students, and you feel like you're not getting your message across.

(c) T3: I think so, yes. Online teaching is completely different to that of in-person. I feel like I've used a lot of translation.

(d) T4: I feel like I've preferred to use translation more this semester because of virtual teaching. I've used more translation I feel like I've done so unconsciously. I think it's the 'electronic wall', not being able to see the students and their facial expressions. I therefore used more translation to ease my conscience.

The students were not in a position to report on differences between face-to-face education and online classes concerning the use of translation since they were freshmen and had only attended online classes from day one at the host university. However, interesting findings emerged from their interviews when asked about their experiences of the new unfamiliar norm of attending a class from home away from the teacher's eyes. Although the students reported that translation was used and allowed in their respective classes, their responses also alluded to what might be deemed as taking advantage of the situation. Discussing this issue, S4 noted:

'I translated a lot attending classes from home. I don't think I would have been able to do so if the classes were in person. I wouldn't be able to use my phone in front of the teacher.'

Another student stated:

'I think students are more comfortable using translation in online learning as the teacher can't see them, as opposed to in-person classes where you can't hide.' (S1)

4.2.3 Summary of qualitative findings

In summary, these findings indicate that there is overwhelming support within the faculty set-up for teaching to be exclusively delivered in English. There is nonetheless a tendency to welcome the introduction of translation in the ESAP setting for specific academic purposes and in very limited situations. The prevailing view amongst the teachers interviewed was that translation should be called upon only when very necessary and only as a means to an end. Most

of the teachers held the belief that overuse of translation in the ESAP class should be avoided as this would negatively impact students' progress, in addition to defeating the purpose of learning an L2 if English were not dominant in the class. Part of the rationale for this belief is founded on the theoretical discourse surrounding translation in the literature, as revealed by several teachers.

What teachers reported in the interviews varied from congruent to incongruent with their actual practices. That is, the findings from the classroom observations suggest that translation is frequently – and at times heavily – used in the ESAP class. This could be because of students' low proficiency in L2, teaching virtually or to save time; teachers alluded to all of these. However, the teachers tended to use translation as a first option in multiple situations in practice, rather than as a last resort as they reported. They also employed translation for purposes that were not reported in the interviews, such as addressing technical issues, eliciting translation from their students and praising the students. For teachers to consciously or unconsciously under-report or underestimate their use of translation in practice is not uncommon (as discussed in Chapters 2 and 5). Translation was viewed more positively among the student participants. The students mostly believed that translation was essential to understand discipline-specific terms. Furthermore, the students tended to agree that the need for translation was far greater in the early stages of learning English. Interestingly, the teachers alluded to this and also concurred with students with regards to the difficulty of the ESAP material; both cited the challenging nature of the ESAP content as a reason to use translation.

4.3 Quantitative Results

Along with qualitative-based approaches, this study employed a quantitative approach in the form of close-ended surveys as I sought to gauge the target population's attitudes to the use of translation in ESAP pedagogy. To this end, a total of 280 participants (258 students and 22 teachers) completed two anonymous web-based surveys, which were developed and distributed via SurveyMonkey. The two sets of respondents were part of the PY Programme at the Saudi university, an integral aim of which is the provision of ESAP instruction. In terms of data analysis, descriptive statistics are reported to summarise the participants' responses to the survey items. Since all the variables are categorical in nature, frequencies (N) and percentages (%) are reported for all items. Descriptive analyses can help identify the overall patterns of participants' attitudes towards a particular phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2018), i.e. in this case the use of

translation in ESAP pedagogy. Moreover, to determine whether significant statistical differences exist between the participants' attitudes based on a range of variables, Chi-square (χ^2) and Fisher exact tests were used. SPSS v.28 was used for all analyses. The following sections present the results of the teachers' and students' surveys respectively, with further discussion of the results to follow in the subsequent chapter.

4.3.1 Teachers' survey

A 27-item web-based survey was administered. The survey included two items related to demographics (education level and native language) and two items related to teacher participants' experience of teaching ESAP (years of ESAP teaching experience and the domain of ESAP that they were currently teaching). The teachers were then asked 22 questions aimed at gauging their attitudes to the use of translation in the ESAP classroom. These items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Twenty-two teacher participants completed the survey. They all reported holding a master's degree as their highest university qualification relevant to English language teaching. Seven participants (32%) reported 0–5 years of ESAP teaching experience, five (23%) had 5–10 years of experience, another five (23%) had 10–15 years of experience, and five (23%) had 15–20 years of experience. Nine participants (41%) reported teaching English for medical purposes, eight (36%) for scientific purposes, and five (23%) for administrative or business purposes. Only two participants (8%) were native English speakers, while 9 (41%) reported Arabic as their native language and 11 (50%) reported another language. Full statistics are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Teacher characteristics ($N = 22$)

Characteristics	*N*	*%*
Highest completed degree relevant to ESP		
Bachelor's	0	0
Master's	22	100.00
PhD	0	0
Years of ESP teaching experience		
0–5 years	7	31.80
5–10 years	5	22.70
10–15 years	5	22.70
15–20 years	5	22.70
Domain of ESP currently teaching		
Medical	9	40.90

Scientific	8	36.40
Administrative/Business	5	22.70
Native language		
Arabic	9	40.90
English	2	9.10
Other	11	50.00

Teachers' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP pedagogy

The teachers were presented with 22 items to gauge their attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP. The results notably showed that there was no blanket ban on the use of Arabic as far as the ESAP teacher participants were concerned. Indeed, as shown in the responses to Item 21 below, no teachers agreed or strongly agreed that Arabic was completely banned in their ESAP classes, which suggests that they saw a place for translation in their practices. Answers to the same item show that 10 faculty members took the middle ground, which suggests that they might not be eager to report openly on what is deemed a sensitive issue in the field of language teaching. In this regard, research has shown teachers tend to be quite reserved when discussing the issue of L1 and translation in their practices in fear of being judged as unprofessional, lacking L2 competence or due to feeling a sense of guilt (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2014; Copland & Neokleous, 2011).

Table 4.4. Response to Item 21

21	Arabic is completely banned in my ESAP classes		
	Strongly agree	0	0.00
	Agree	0	0.00
	Neither agree nor disagree	10	45.45
	Disagree	10	45.45
	Strongly disagree	2	9.09

However, the majority of participants seemed to appreciate the merits of using translation for several purposes in their ESAP practices. For example, as shown in Table 4.5, most believed that translation helped save time ($N = 16$, 72.73% agreed or strongly agreed), that translation was essential for explaining cultural terms and references ($N = 17$, 77.28% agreed or strongly agreed), that translation was very useful for explaining informal or colloquial expressions ($N = 15$, 68.19% agreed or strongly agreed), and that translating into Arabic was necessary for exam instructions ($N = 14$, 63.64% agreed or strongly agreed).

Table 4.5. Responses to Items 4, 6, 15, 19, 22

	Item	*N*	%
4	**Using translation helps save time in the classroom**		
	Strongly agree	4	18.18
	Agree	12	54.55
	Neither agree nor disagree	1	4.55
	Disagree	4	18.18
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55
6	**Using translation is essential when explaining specialised vocabulary (e.g., medical, business, and scientific terms)**		
	Strongly agree	4	18.18
	Agree	7	31.82
	Neither agree nor disagree	4	18.18
	Disagree	7	31.82
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
15	**Translation is essential to explain cultural terms and references**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	14	63.64
	Neither agree nor disagree	2	9.09
	Disagree	3	16.64
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
19	**I find translation very useful when explaining informal and colloquial expressions**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	12	54.55
	Neither agree nor disagree	3	13.64
	Disagree	4	18.18
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
22	**Translating to Arabic is needed to explain exams instructions better**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	11	50.00
	Neither agree nor disagree	3	13.64
	Disagree	4	18.18
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55

The issue of interference seemed to be a matter of concern for the ESAP teaching staff. This manifested itself in the number of teachers who agreed with the statement (item 9), shown below, that students who use translation will produce Arabic-style English (*N* = 14, 63.64% agreed or strongly agreed).

Table 4.6. Response to Item 9

9	**Students will produce Arabic-style English if they are allowed to use translation**		
	Strongly agree	2	9.09
	Agree	12	54.55
	Neither agree nor disagree	6	27.27
	Disagree	2	9.09
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00

Meanwhile, over half of the ESAP teaching staff who took part in the survey ($N = 12$, 54.55%) agreed or strongly agreed that translation helped students understand new vocabulary. The teachers, as shown in Table 4.7, were similarly split over whether translation was essential for explaining specialised vocabulary (e.g. medical, business and scientific terms) ($N = 11$, 50.00% agreed or strongly agreed), whether only English should be used in the ESAP classroom ($N = 10$, 45.45% agreed or strongly agreed), that students should be allowed to use translation in ESAP classes ($N = 12$, 54.54%), that translation is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking) ($N = 10$, 45.45%), that students enjoy lessons more when translation is used ($N = 10$, 45.45%), that translation is essential to explain English idioms and phrases ($N = 12$, 54.55%), and whether translation activities should be included in ESAP teaching books ($N = 9$, 40.91%).

Table 4.7. Responses to items 5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 14, 16 and 20

	Item	N	%
5	**Using translation helps students understand new vocabulary**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	9	40.91
	Neither agree nor disagree	7	31.82
	Disagree	3	13.64
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
6	**Using translation is essential when explaining specialised vocabulary (e.g., medical, business, and scientific terms)**		
	Strongly agree	4	18.18
	Agree	7	31.82
	Neither agree nor disagree	4	18.18
	Disagree	7	31.82
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
7	**English should be the only language used in the ESAP classroom**		
	Strongly agree	4	18.18
	Agree	6	27.27
	Neither agree nor disagree	8	36.36
	Disagree	2	9.09
	Strongly disagree	2	9.09
11	**Students should be allowed to use translation in ESAP classes**		
	Strongly agree	2	9.09
	Agree	10	45.45
	Neither agree nor disagree	6	27.27
	Disagree	3	13.64
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55
12	**Translation activities should be included in the ESAP teaching course books**		
	Strongly agree	1	4.55
	Agree	8	36.36
	Neither agree nor disagree	2	9.09
	Disagree	9	40.91
	Strongly disagree	2	9.09

14	**Translation is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking)**		
	Strongly agree	2	9.09
	Agree	8	36.36
	Neither agree nor disagree	6	27.27
	Disagree	5	22.73
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55
16	**My students enjoy lessons more when translation is used**		
	Strongly agree	2	9.09
	Agree	8	36.36
	Neither agree nor disagree	8	36.36
	Disagree	4	18.18
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
20	**Using translation is essential to explain English idioms and phrases**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	9	40.91
	Neither agree nor disagree	5	22.73
	Disagree	3	13.64
	Strongly disagree	2	9.09

Fewer teachers, as shown in Table 4.8, agreed or strongly agreed with the rest of the items, meaning that most of the faculty members were either neutral or did not agree. To elaborate, only eight participants (36.36%) either strongly agreed or agreed that translation is essential to make students 'comfortable and less anxious' in the classroom, that translation is helpful with class management, that allowing translation would make them feel guilty, that translation was necessary when teaching ESAP online, while only seven faculty members viewed translation as essential in ESAP teaching.

Table 4.8. Responses to Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 10 and 18

	Item	*N*	*%*
1	**Using translation is essential to make students comfortable and less anxious in the classroom**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	5	22.72
	Neither agree nor disagree	11	50.00
	Disagree	3	13.64
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
2	**Using translation is essential in ESAP teaching**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	4	18.18
	Neither agree nor disagree	10	45.45
	Disagree	4	18.18
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55
3	**Using translation helps me with my class management**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.64
	Agree	5	22.73

	Neither agree nor disagree	6	27.27
	Disagree	7	31.82
	Strongly disagree	1	4.55
8	**Using translation helps students understand grammar rules better.**		
	Strongly agree	3	13.46
	Agree	4	18.18
	Neither agree nor disagree	2	09.09
	Disagree	10	45.45
	Strongly disagree	3	13.46
10	**I feel guilty if I allow translation in the classroom**		
	Strongly agree	1	4.55
	Agree	7	31.82
	Neither agree nor disagree	7	31.82
	Disagree	7	31.82
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00
18	**When teaching online, translation becomes almost necessary in ESAP classes**		
	Strongly agree	2	9.09
	Agree	6	27.27
	Neither agree nor disagree	7	31.82
	Disagree	7	31.82
	Strongly disagree	0	0.00

More teachers did not seem to view translation as a facilitative tool as far as grammar acquisition was concerned, with most disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the statement that translation helps students understand grammar rules better ($N = 13$, 59.09%, compared to seven teachers who agreed or strongly agreed). Similarly, more teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that translation helped students better understand listening passages ($N = 12$, 54.55%).

When asked if translation was a matter for professional translators only, more teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed ($N = 12$, 55.35%), which may indicate that they see a role for translation in ESAP pedagogy.

Table 4.9. Response to Item 13

13	**Translation is for professional translators only**		
	Strongly agree	1	4.55
	Agree	6	27.27
	Neither agree nor disagree	3	13.64
	Disagree	10	45.45
	Strongly disagree	2	9.09

Differences in teachers' attitudes according to teacher characteristics

To examine the potential relationship between teachers' attitudes to the use of translation and certain variables (native language, years of experience teaching ESAP, and the domain of ESAP taught), Fisher exact test was used. Generally, Chi-square tests are appropriate given the categorical nature of the variables of interest. However, Fisher exact test is appropriate when the assumptions of Chi-square tests ($\geq$ 80% of expected cell counts are > 5). Since the assumptions of Chi-square tests were violated for each relationship assessed, results from Fisher's exact test are reported. All tests used an alpha (α) level of 0.05 for significance testing which is the 'point we choose for deciding whether a p-value is extreme or not. In the field of L2 research, the alpha level is generally set at $\alpha = 0.05$' (Larson-Hall, 2016, p.473). As shown in Table 4.10, native language was significantly associated with believing that English should be the only language used in the ESAP classroom ($p = 0.03$). That is, non-native Arabic speakers were more likely to believe that only English should be used in the ESAP classroom (53.8% of non-native Arabic speakers compared to 33.33% of native Arabic speakers). Non-Arabic speakers were also significantly more likely ($p = 0.05$) to report feeling guilty about allowing translation in the classroom (38.5% among non-native Arabic speakers compared to 33.3% among native Arabic speakers). No statistically significant relationship was found between attitudes to translation in ESAP and teachers' years of experience, nor with the domain of ESAP taught.

Table 4.10. Relationships between native language and attitudes toward use of translation in ESAP teaching ($N = 22$)

Item	Arabic		Non-Arabic		*p-value*
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	
7. English should be the only language used in the ESAP classroom					
Strongly agree	0	0.00	4	30.77	
Agree	3	33.33	3	23.08	
Neither agree nor disagree	2	22.22	6	46.15	**0.03**
Disagree	2	22.22	0	0.00	
Strongly disagree	2	22.22	0	0.00	
10. I feel guilty if I allow translation in the classroom					
Strongly agree	0	0.00	1	7.69	
Agree	3	33.33	4	30.77	
Neither agree nor disagree	0	0.00	7	53.85	**0.005**
Disagree	6	66.67	1	7.69	
Strongly disagree	0	0.00	0	0.00	

4.3.2 Students' survey

A 27-item web-based survey was administered to students via Survey Monkey. The survey included three items related to the students' domain of ESAP in the preparatory year (PY) at the Saudi university, perceived level of English proficiency, and whether their English teacher was a native Arabic speaker or not. The participants were then asked 24 questions to gauge their attitudes to the use of translation in ESAP pedagogy. These items were measured on a five-level Likert-type scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

In all, 258 participants fully responded to the survey. Of these, 110 (38.0%) were students of English for business purposes, 77 (29.8%) were studying English for medical purposes, and 83 (32.2%) attended English for scientific purposes classes. Over one-third of the student respondents self-reported their English proficiency level as intermediate (N =102, 39.5%), 10.8% ($N = 26$) perceived themselves to be elementary, 29.8% ($N = 77$) considered themselves to be lower-intermediate, 15.5% ($N = 40$) perceived themselves to be upper-intermediate, and 5.0% ($N = 13$) believed their English competence was advanced. Almost all ($N = 248$, 96.2%) reported being taught by ESAP teachers whose L1 was Arabic, with only 10 (3.9%) being taught by ESAP teachers who did not speak Arabic as their native language. The participants' characteristics and learning context are summarised in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. Students' characteristics and learning context ($N = 258$)

Characteristics	N	$\%$
Domain of ESAP		
Business	98	38.0
Medical	77	29.8
Scientific	83	32.2
Perceived level of English		
Elementary	26	10.8
Lower intermediate	77	29.8
Intermediate	102	39.5
Upper intermediate	40	15.5
Advanced	13	5.0
ESAP teachers' native language		
Arabic	248	96.2
Non-Arabic	10	3.9

Students' attitudes towards translation in ESAP

Student respondents were presented with 24 items to gauge their attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP. Overall, the overwhelming majority of student participants held positive attitudes to the use of translation in ESAP, as can be seen in Tables 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14.

Table 4.12. Attitudes towards translation in ESAP

Item	N	%
1. Using translation helps me understand English grammar rules better		
Strongly agree	149	57.5
Agree	79	30.6
Neither agree nor disagrees	23	8.9
Disagree	5	1.9
Strongly disagree	2	0.8
2. I still translate mentally even when I try to think in English		
Strongly agree	111	43.0
Agree	103	39.9
Neither agree nor disagree	30	11.6
Disagree	11	4.3
Strongly disagree	3	1.2
3. Using translation helps me speak English		
Strongly agree	124	48.1
Agree	87	33.7
Neither agree nor disagree	34	13.2
Disagree	11	4.3
Strongly disagree	2	0.8
4. Using translation helps me memorise English vocabulary		
Strongly agree	155	60.1
Agree	91	35.3
Neither agree nor disagree	8	3.1
Disagree	3	1.2
Strongly disagree	1	0.4
5. Using translation helps me understand specialised terms better		
Strongly agree	166	64.3
Agree	79	30.6
Neither agree nor disagree	11	11.6
Disagree	2	5.4
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
8. Using translation helps me understand specialised reading texts		
Strongly agree	155	60.1
Agree	85	33.0
Neither agree nor disagree	16	6.2
Disagree	1	0.4
Strongly disagree	1	0.4
9. Arabic translation is essential to understand exam instructions		
Strongly agree	155	60.1
Agree	67	26.0
Neither agree nor disagree	23	8.9
Disagree	12	4.7
Strongly disagree	1	0.4
13. Using translation helps me learn English idioms and phrases		
Strongly agree	97	37.6
Agree	109	42.3
Neither agree nor disagree	27	10.5

	Disagree	17	6.6
	Strongly disagree	8	3.1
17.	**Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions**		
	Strongly agree	72	28.0
	Agree	125	48.6
	Neither agree nor disagree	42	16.3
	Disagree	16	6.2
	Strongly disagree	2	0.8
18.	**Translation helps me understand cultural references better**		
	Strongly agree	99	38.4
	Agree	120	46.5
	Neither agree nor disagree	24	9.3
	Disagree	11	4.3
	Strongly disagree	4	1.6
20.	**Using translation helps me understand listening passages better**		
	Strongly agree	84	32.6
	Agree	114	44.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	37	14.3
	Disagree	15	5.8
	Strongly disagree	8	3.1

Delving into the numbers, 228 (88.1%) of participants agreed or strongly agreed that using translation helped them understand English grammar rules better, 214 (82.9%) reported that they still used mental translation even when they tried to think in English, which seems to support evidence in the literature, touched upon in Chapter 2, that mental translation amongst foreign language students is inevitable (Oppenheim et al., 2018, p.2). Furthermore, most student participants (81.8%) reported that translation helped them speak English. The majority of participants also agreed or strongly agreed that translation helped them memorise English vocabulary ($N = 246$, 95.4%), understand specialised terms ($N = 245$, 94.9%), learn English idioms and phrases ($N = 206$, 79.9%), understand specialised reading texts ($N = 240$, 93.1%), exam instructions ($N = 222$, 86.1%), teachers' English instructions ($N = 197$, 76.6%), cultural references ($N = 219$, 84.9%), and listening passages ($N = 198$, 76.8%).

Table 4.13. Attitudes towards translation in ESAP

Item		*N*	*%*
6.	**Using translation helps me write English composition**		
	Strongly agree	135	52.3
	Agree	79	30.6
	Neither agree nor disagree	30	11.6
	Disagree	14	5.4
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0
7.	**Using translation helps me make progress in learning English**		
	Strongly agree	142	55.0
	Agree	97	37.6
	Neither agree nor disagree	14	5.4
	Disagree	5	1.9
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0

10. The more difficult the English assignments are the more I depend on translation		
Strongly agree	130	50.4
Agree	82	31.8
Neither agree nor disagree	37	14.3
Disagree	9	3.5
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
11. Using translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly		
Strongly agree	133	51.6
Agree	89	34.5
Neither agree nor disagree	24	9.3
Disagree	10	3.9
Strongly disagree	2	0.8
12. At this stage of learning I cannot learn English without translation		
Strongly agree	110	42.6
Agree	86	33.3
Neither agree nor disagree	35	13.6
Disagree	18	7.0
Strongly disagree	9	3.5

In addition, as can be seen in Table 4.13, 214 (83%) believed translation was useful for writing English compositions and 239 (92.6%) reported that translation helped them make progress in learning English. Moreover, 212 (82%) believed that they relied more on translation when tackling difficult assignments and 222 (86.1%) felt that translation helped them finish assignments more quickly. Indeed, 196 (75.9%) agreed or strongly agreed that they could not learn English without translation at this stage of learning.

Table 4.14. Attitudes towards translation in ESAP

Item	N	%
16. I feel anxious in the classroom if translation is not allowed		
Strongly agree	39	15.1
Agree	127	49.2
Neither agree nor disagree	55	21.3
Disagree	24	9.3
Strongly disagree	13	5.0
19. Assignments and in-class activities that require me to translate contribute to my language learning		
Strongly agree	117	45.4
Agree	91	35.3
Neither agree nor disagree	32	12.4
Disagree	13	5.0
Strongly disagree	5	1.9
23. I check the Arabic translation for every specialised term I encounter		
Strongly agree	68	26.4
Agree	116	45.0
Neither agree nor disagree	50	19.4
Disagree	19	7.4
Strongly disagree	5	1.9
24. Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books		
Strongly agree	107	41.5
Agree	81	31.4

	N	%
Neither agree nor disagree	47	18.2
Disagree	16	6.2
Strongly disagree	7	2.7

Over half of the sample ($N = 166$, 64.3%) reported feeling anxious if translation was not allowed in the classroom, indicating that translation was a form of stress relief for them in the ESAP environment. The vast majority of students believed translation activities in class played an instrumental role in their ESAP learning. In this regard, 208 participants (80.7%) reported that assignments and in-class activities that required them to use translation contributed to their language learning and 188 (72.9%) believed that translation activities should be included in course books. Using translation to check the meaning of technical terms seemed to be quite common among the ESAP students, with 184 (71.4%) reporting that they checked the Arabic translation for every specialised term encountered.

Table 4.15. Attitudes towards translation in remote ESAP classes

Item	N	%
21. I use translation more in online classes compared to in-person classes		
Strongly agree	39	15.1
Agree	66	25.6
Neither agree nor disagree	115	44.6
Disagree	33	12.8
Strongly disagree	5	1.9

In terms of using translation in remote ESAP classes, 105 students (40.7%) agreed or strongly agreed their use of translation was higher in online classes, 115 (44.6%) took the middle ground, and only a minority ($N = 38$, 14.7%) did not think they used translation more attending ESAP classes online than in face-to-face classes, as illustrated in Table 4.15.

Interference did not seem to be an issue as far as the students were concerned, in contrast to their teachers. That is, it is notable in Table 4.16 that only 59 (22.9%) felt using translation would lead them to produce Arabic-style English.

Table 4.16. Attitudes towards translation and interference

Item	N	%
14. I will produce Arabic-style English if I translate from Arabic		
Strongly agree	25	9.7
Agree	34	13.2
Neither agree nor disagree	68	26.4
Disagree	89	34.5
Strongly disagree	42	16.3

When asked whether translation was something only those with an interest in a career in translation or who aspire to becoming professional translators should be concerned with, the majority ($N = 203$, 78.6%) disagreed or strongly disagreed, as shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Is translation for professional translators only?

Item	N	%
22. Translation is for professional translators only		
Strongly agree	11	4.3
Agree	18	7.0
Neither agree nor disagree	26	10.1
Disagree	77	29.8
Strongly disagree	126	48.8

Relationship between students' proficiency level and their attitudes towards translation

Chi-square (χ^2) tests were conducted to determine the relationship between students' language proficiency and attitudes to the use of translation in class. The results are shown in Table 4.18.

As can be seen from Table 4.18, the results of the Chi-square tests revealed that students' English language proficiency was related to a number of items as follows: "*Using translation helps me understand English grammar rules better*" ($p = 0.02$), "*Using translation helps me speak English*" ($p = .04$), "*Using translation helps me memorise English vocabulary*" ($p = .004$), "*Using translation helps me make progress in learning English*" ($p = .02$), "*The more difficult the English assignments are the more I depend on translation*" ($p = .0008$), "*Using translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly*" ($p = 0.02$), "*At this stage of learning I cannot learn English without translation*" ($p = .04$), "*Using translation helps me learn English idioms and phrases*" ($p = .004$), "*I will produce Arabic-style English if I translate from Arabic*" ($p = .04$), "*I feel anxious in the classroom if translation is not allowed*" ($p = .006$), "*Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions*" ($p = .0002$), and "*Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books*" ($p = 03$).

Table 4.18. The relationship between students' proficiency level and their attitudes towards translation in ESAP

Item	Elementary		Lower Intermediate		Intermediate		Upper Intermediate		Advanced		p-value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
1. Using translation helps me understand English grammar rules better											
Strongly agree	6	46.2	56	72.7	55	53.9	20	50.0	12	46.2	
Agree	4	30.8	17	22.1	17	22.1	12	30.0	9	34.6	
Neither agree nor disagree	2	15.4	3	3.9	9	8.8	5	12.5	4	15.4	.02
Disagree	1	7.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	7.5	1	3.9	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	1	1.3	1	1.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
3. Using translation helps me speak English											
Strongly agree	5	19.2	44	57.1	44	43.1	19	47.5	6	46.2	
Agree	13	50.0	23	29.9	43	42.2	15	37.5	3	23.1	
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	8	10.4	10	9.8	3	7.5	6	46.2	.04
Disagree	4	15.4	1	1.3	3	2.9	1	2.5	2	15.4	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	1	1.3	2	2.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
4. Using translation helps me memorize English vocabulary											
Strongly agree	11	42.3	60	77.9	46	45.1	22	55.0	6	46.2	
Agree	12	46.2	16	20.8	36	35.3	13	32.5	6	46.2	.004
Neither agree nor disagree	2	7.7	1	1.3	11	10.8	3	7.5	1	7.7	
Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	8.8	2	5.0	0	0.0	
Strongly disagree	1	3.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
7. Using translation helps me make progress in learning English											
Strongly agree	10	38.5	53	68.8	53	52.0	20	50.0	6	46.2	
Agree	12	46.2	21	27.3	39	37.3	20	50.0	6	46.2	.02
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	3	3.9	7	6.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	53	52.0	0	0.0	1	7.7	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	

10. The more difficult the English assignments are the more I depend on translation

Strongly agree	7	26.9	53	68.8	51	50.0	13	32.5	6	46.2	
Agree	14	53.9	18	23.4	29	28.4	17	42.5	4	30.8	
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	6	7.8	17	16.7	9	22.5	1	7.7	.008
Disagree	1	3.9	0	0.0	5	4.9	1	2.5	2	15.4	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	

11. Using translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly

Strongly agree	13	50.0	49	63.6	51	50.0	16	40.0	4	30.8	
Agree	9	34.6	21	27.3	35	34.3	19	47.5	5	38.5	
Neither agree nor disagree	2	7.7	7	9.1	11	10.8	4	10.0	0	0.0	.02
Disagree	2	7.7	0	0.0	4	3.9	1	2.5	0	0.0	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	1	7.7	

12. At this stage of learning I cannot learn English without translation

Strongly agree	8	30.8	44	57.1	38	37.3	15	37.5	5	38.5	
Agree	11	42.3	23	29.9	35	34.3	13	32.5	4	30.8	.04
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	9	11.7	16	15.7	6	15.0	0	0.0	
Disagree	1	3.9	23	29.9	8	7.8	5	12.5	3	23.1	
Strongly disagree	2	7.7	0	0.0	5	4.9	1	2.5	1	7.7	

13. Using translation helps me learn English idioms and phrases

Strongly agree	12	46.2	38	49.4	37	36.3	8	20.0	2	15.4	
Agree	6	23.1	27	35.1	44	43.1	26	65.0	6	46.2	.004
Neither agree nor disagree	5	19.2	9	11.7	10	9.8	3	7.5	0	0.0	
Disagree	2	7.7	3	3.9	9	8.8	2	5.0	1	7.7	
Strongly disagree	1	3.9	0	0.0	2	2.0	1	2.5	4	30.8	

14. I will produce Arabic-style English if I translate from Arabic

Strongly agree	4	15.4	4	5.2	13	12.8	4	10.0	0	0.0	
Agree	6	23.1	4	5.2	15	14.7	7	17.5	0	15.4	.04
Neither agree nor disagree	8	30.8	30	39.0	23	22.6	6	15.0	1	7.7	
Disagree	5	19.2	27	35.1	36	35.3	15	37.5	6	46.2	

Strongly disagree	3	11.5	12	15.6	15	14.7	8	20.0	4	30.8	

16. I feel anxious in the classroom if translation is not allowed

Strongly agree	7	26.9	8	10.4	21	20.6	3	7.5	0	0.0	
Agree	12	46.2	47	61.0	43	12.2	19	47.5	6	46.2	**.006**
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	16	20.8	23	22.6	11	27.5	1	7.7	
Disagree	2	7.7	5	6.5	12	11.8	2	5.0	3	23.1	
Strongly disagree	1	3.9	8	10.4	3	2.9	5	12.5	3	23.1	

17. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions

Strongly agree	6	23.1	38	49.4	23	22.8	5	12.5	0	0.0	
Agree	13	50.0	28	36.4	55	54.5	22	55.0	7	53.9	**.0002**
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	9	11.7	19	18.8	7	17.5	0	0.0	
Disagree	3	11.5	2	2.6	3	3.0	5	12.5	3	23.1	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	2.5	0	0.0	

24. Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books

Strongly agree	9	34.6	33	42.9	43	42.2	15	37.5	7	53.9	
Agree	10	38.5	33	42.9	27	26.5	10	25.0	1	7.7	**.03**
Neither agree nor disagree	4	15.4	10	13.0	21	20.6	11	27.5	1	7.7	
Disagree	2	7.7	1	1.3	7	6.9	3	7.5	3	23.1	
Strongly disagree	1	3.9	0	0.0	4	3.9	1	2.5	1	7.7	

Elementary-level English students were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they would produce Arabic-style English if they translated from Arabic (38.5% vs. 10.4% lower intermediate, 27.5% intermediate and upper intermediate, 15.4% advanced). Also, students at the elementary level were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they felt anxious if translation was not allowed in the classroom (73.1% vs. 71.4% lower intermediate, 32.8% intermediate students, 55% upper intermediate students, 46.2% advanced).

Furthermore, lower intermediate-level students were more likely to agree or strongly agree that using translation helped them understand English grammar rules (94.8% vs. 88.5% elementary, 76.0% intermediate, 80.0% upper intermediate, 80.8% advanced). They were also more likely to agree that using translation helped them speak English (87.0% vs. 69.2% elementary, 85.3% intermediate, 85.0% upper intermediate, 69.3% advanced).

Students at lower-intermediate level were also more likely to agree or strongly agree that using translation helped them memorise English vocabulary (98.7% vs. 88.5% elementary, 80.4% intermediate students, 87.5% upper intermediate, 92.4% advanced). Lower-intermediate students were also more likely to depend on translation when dealing with difficult assignments (92.2% vs. 80.8% elementary, 78.4% intermediate, 75.0% upper intermediate, 77.0% advanced). Students of the same level were also more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation helped them finish English assignments more quickly (90.9% vs. 84.6% elementary, 84.3% intermediate, 87.5% upper intermediate, 69.3% advanced).

In addition, lower intermediate students were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they could not learn English without translation at this stage in their learning (87.0% vs. 73.1% elementary, 71.6% intermediate, 70.0% upper intermediate, 69.3% advanced). They were also more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation helped them understand teachers' instructions in English (85.8% vs. 73.1% elementary, 77.3% intermediate, 67.5% upper intermediate, 53.9% advanced). Students who perceived themselves to be at a lower-intermediate stage were also more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation activities should be included in language teaching course books (85.8% vs. 73.1% elementary, 68.7% intermediate, 62.5% upper intermediate, 61.6% advanced).

Meanwhile, upper intermediate students were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement that "using translation helps make progress in learning English" (100% vs. 84.7% elementary, 96.1% lower intermediate, 89.3% intermediate, 92.4% advanced). Students at

the same level were furthermore more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation facilitates the learning of English idioms and phrases (85.0% vs. 69.3% elementary, 84.5% lower intermediate, 79.4% intermediate, 61.6% advanced).

Relationship between the native language of students' ESAP teachers and their attitudes towards translation

The findings also revealed that there was a relationship between several items and the native language of students' teachers in terms of students' attitudes: "*Using translation helps me speak English*" (*p* = .03), "*I use translation more in online classes compared to in-person classes*" (*p* = .01), and "*Translation activities should be included in language teaching course books*" (*p* = .04), as shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Relationship between teachers' native language and attitudes towards use of translation in ESAP

Item	Non-Arabic		Arabic		*p*-value
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	
3. Using translation helps me speak English					
Strongly agree	1	10.0	122	49.4	
Agree	8	80.0	79	2.0	.03
Neither agree nor disagree	1	10.0	33	13.4	
Disagree	0	0.0	11	4.5	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	2	0.8	
21. I use translation more in online classes compared to in-person classes					
Strongly agree	3	30.0	35	14.2	
Agree	5	50.0	61	24.7	.01
Neither agree nor disagree	1	10.0	114	46.2	
Disagree	0	0.0	33	13.4	
Strongly disagree	1	10.0	4	1.6	
24. Translation activities should be included in language teaching course books					
Strongly agree	1	10.0	105	42.5	
Agree	4	40.0	77	31.2	.04
Neither agree nor disagree	2	20.0	45	18.2	
Disagree	2	20.0	14	5.7	
Strongly disagree	1	10.0	6	2.4	

Students whose ESAP teachers were native Arabic speakers were more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation activities should be included in English language course books (73.7% vs. 50% of those taught by non-native Arabic teachers). In contrast, those taught by non-Arabic native speakers were more likely to agree that using translation helped them speak English (90% vs. 51.4 % taught by Arabic native speaker teachers). Also, those taught by non-Arab teachers were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they used translation

more in online classes as opposed to in-person classes (80% vs. 38.9% taught by Arab teachers).

Relationship between students' domain of ESAP and their attitudes

Finally, the findings revealed that the students' domain of ESAP was associated with every attitudinal item in the survey. In particular, across all items, students in the medical domain were consistently more likely than to agree or strongly agree with every positively worded item regarding translation. For example, as can be seen in Table 4.20, medical English students were more likely to agree or strongly disagree that using translation facilitates the memorisation of vocabulary (97%). All medical students (100%) also agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that using translation helps make progress in learning English. They were also the most to report that they would check the translation of every specialised term they come across (88.4%). Not only that, medical students were also more likely to disagree or strongly disagree (93.5%) that translation is only for professional translators.

Table 4.20. Relationships between ESAP domain and attitudes towards translation

Item	Business		Medical		Scientific		*p*-value
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	
4. Using translation helps me memorise English vocabulary							
Strongly agree	52	53.1	57	74.0	46	55.4	
Agree	41	41.8	18	23.4	32	38.6	**.006**
Neither agree nor disagree	3	3.1	1	1.3	4	4.8	
Disagree	1	1.0	1	1.3	1	1.2	
Strongly disagree	1	1.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
7. Using translation helps me make progress in learning English							
Strongly agree	40	40.8	58	75.3	44	53.0	
Agree	44	44.9	19	24.7	34	41.0	**.001**
Neither agree nor disagree	9	9.2	0	0.0	5	6.0	
Disagree	5	5.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Strongly disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
22. Translation is for professional translators only							
Strongly agree	6	6.1	1	1.6	4	4.8	
Agree	9	9.2	2	2.6	7	8.4	**.001**
Neither agree nor disagree	16	16.3	2	2.6	8	9.6	
Disagree	39	39.8	20	26.0	18	21.7	
Strongly disagree	28	28.6	52	67.5	46	55.4	
23. I check the Arabic translation for every specialised term I encounter							
Strongly agree	22	22.5	28	36.4	18	21.7	
Agree	39	39.8	40	52.0	37	44.6	**.002**
Neither agree nor disagree	22	22.5	5	6.5	23	27.7	
Disagree	13	13.3	2	2.6	4	4.8	
Strongly disagree	2	1.0	2	2.6	1	1.2	

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction

Following on from the preceding chapter, which presented and analysed the results, the aim of this chapter is to further discuss those results and compare them with the wider, relevant literature relating to the use of translation and L1 in language teaching. In doing so, the objective is to provide answers to the research questions of this inquiry. Before proceeding to the discussion, the research aims and questions are revisited below.

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the use of translation in English for specific academic Purposes (ESAP) courses at a university in Saudi Arabia. This was accomplished by collecting and analysing data highlighting the ways in which translation is used, the factors influencing its use and how it is viewed in the target context. Guided by that purpose, the inquiry sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How is translation used by teachers and students in ESAP?

RQ2: What are the purposes for which teachers and students use translation in ESAP?

RQ3: What factors influence teachers' and students' use of translation in ESAP?

RQ4: What are teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP?

RQ5; Do teachers' attitudes and reported behaviour match their actual practice?

RQ6: Do teachers report differences in attitudes towards and use of translation as a result of the shift to online teaching because of the pandemic?

5.2 Translation in the ESAP Class: Manner of Use (RQ1)

Based on the evidence from the classroom observations and the teacher and student interviews, translation is enacted in the ESAP class in a variety of different ways and techniques. A popular use of translation was in the form of consulting bilingual dictionaries; several teachers confirmed allowing their students to use a bilingual dictionary. According to T6, a native speaker of English, 'I try to tell them maybe if you get stuck with this word you can take one bit of your time to look it up, they use apps for a bilingual dictionary'. Another said that he encouraged his students to use a bilingual dictionary to look up discipline-specific vocabulary: 'As far as vocabulary is concerned, I ask them to try and find the Arabic for that word, the ESP word in that text' (T7). The few students interviewed also reported that their teachers encouraged them to make use of bilingual dictionaries. S3 revealed that their teacher 'encouraged us to look things up in Arabic, using a dictionary or

Google Translate. He even recommended English-Arabic dictionaries for us to use'. These findings are congruent with those in the wider literature (e.g. An & Macaro, 2022; Hall & Cook, 2013; Celik, 2003; Nation, 2003). T3 even provided his students with a word list consisting of finance-related terms along with their Arabic translation on *Quizlet*, a mobile application that boosts students' learning via multiple study tools, including dictionaries. In this regard, heavily translation-based language learning apps such *Quizlet* and *Duolingo* are popular in UK language classrooms (Barnes, 2021), which could hardly be a surprise since employing L1–L2 word pairs has been found to be quite effective in terms of accelerating vocabulary acquisition and growth (Nation, 2001; 2003).

There also seemed to be a notable preference for digital resources when it came to looking up words and enhancing vocabulary acquisition. Two of the six students interviewed said they used bilingual dictionaries, citing Google Translate as a tool they used to translate new and technical vocabulary. Another student said he would consult bilingual e-dictionaries if he were allowed to use his phone in class. It is perhaps to this end that teachers have been recommended to 'help students choose and use the right bilingual dictionaries, especially the electronic ones, and assist them in acquiring the dictionary-using skills' (Boustani, 2019, p.19). These findings are in line with Alsuhaibani (2015) and Bukhari (2017), and further corroborate Chirobocea's (2018) observation that 'in recent years mobile devices and their applications have been rising in popularity, given their availability and easy internet connection, as well as their user-friendly quality' and thus they have 'become a major means of learning ESP vocabulary' (pp. 178–179). Interestingly, in this regard, when one teacher was discussing how students could best understand ESAP vocabulary, he believed that a monolingual explanation would be unlikely to be sufficient. That is, if a term were explained only in English, the students 'would get the gist, but we don't want them to only get the gist. Let them use an English–Arabic dictionary, that would be excellent, in fact' (T8). This clearly shows a preference for a bilingual dictionary since it better conveys the exact meaning of a term, perhaps unlike a monolingual dictionary. Indeed, students in Boustani (2019) cited the use of bilingual dictionaries as a valuable resource as far as vocabulary learning is concerned. This is consistent with Folse's (2004) argument that 'there is absolutely no empirical evidence – quantitative or qualitative – to support the familiar notion that monolingual dictionaries are better than bilingual dictionaries' (p.124). Further, T8 favoured a bilingual dictionary since he believed his first-year students were dealing with 'highly technical material, which a freshman is not ready yet to understand only in English', citing terms such

as 'camouflage' and 'infrastructure' as examples. This exact issue presented an obstacle for students in An and Thomas's (2021) research, which reported that the students wished they would be given time to look up new technical terms in a bilingual dictionary. Some teachers in An and Macaro's (2022) study allowed their students substantial time to look up science-related terms in their bilingual e-dictionary. This addresses the problem that according to Nation (2003), for students to use a monolingual dictionary effectively, they 'need to have an effective receptive vocabulary of 2000 words. Most learners of English as a foreign language do not achieve this until they have been studying English for five to six years' (p.4).

Another common use of translation was in the form of providing the Arabic translation between the English utterance and its repetition, i.e. the statement/word in English → the translation of the statement/word in Arabic → restating the same statement/word in English. Extract 24 shows one of many examples of this technique.

Extract 24

(a) T5: Paediatric spoon. ملعقة للأطفال.Paediatric spoon

(b) T5: Scalpel. Yes. المشرط. Scalpel. Scalpel.

This approach was devised by Dodson (1967) and termed 'the sandwich procedure'. It was then adopted, advanced and termed 'the sandwich technique' by Butzkamm (2003) and Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009). Using translation in this form mirrors the findings in Bukhari (2017), Baeshin (2016) and Celik (2003). In this study, it was unclear whether the teachers were aware of it as a popular bilingual technique proposed in the literature; it was never brought up in the interviews. Nonetheless, it was commonly used across the ESAP classes observed throughout the inquiry. Thus, it is possible that given the teachers being in favour of using as much L2 as possible in their practice, they implemented this technique as useful in fostering a genuine L2 classroom atmosphere. This would be in line with Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009, p.33) proposition that the sandwich technique offers a 'targeted yet discreet use of L1', which in turn 'makes it easier to achieve a foreign language atmosphere in the classroom'. Further, if this technique is properly implemented, 'the foreign language is initially only robbed of a negligible amount of time but can then become the vehicular language of the lesson much more quickly' (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p.33). It is also possible that the teachers made use of this technique to simplify the L2 message, consistent with Butzkamm's (2003) view that the sandwich technique facilitates

communication and helps students 'understand so clearly that they trust themselves to use the expression directly and to vary it according to their own needs' (p.32). The teachers may have also been in fear of running out of time when they chose to employ this technique, in agreement with the findings of Celik (2003), who concluded that the primary advantage of this technique concerns 'time' since 'preparation and implementation of this technique require minimal amounts of time' (p.366). All in all, by employing this technique, the teachers seemed to recognise the value of translation and may have called upon it to 'enhance learning more than by sticking to the second language', reflecting what Macaro (2009, p.36) labelled 'the optimal position'.

Translation was also used in the form of 'concurrent translation' (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p.35), where the teacher provides an immediate translation for each L2 statement or instruction. A possible explanation for this is that the teachers may have felt the proficiency level of their students was too poor for them not to translate consistently. This would confirm Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009, p.35) view that particularly 'in weak classes teachers feel they are right in translating every single instruction again and again to make sure everyone knows what to do'. Indeed, the teachers seemed keen on their message being communicated effectively and clearly understood by the students, even if they had to translate every L2 statement. They alluded to this concern when they were discussing the reasons for resorting to translation. T9 revealed that mainly when giving instructions 'We say them in English and then repeat them in Arabic to make sure everyone understands what we're going to do, what's going on in class'. For his colleague, T5, translating helped him feel reassured that he and the students were 'on the same page'.

Teachers' frustration (discussed in 5.4) couldn't be ruled out either, particularly given that T3, who likened his students to 'a vase in a room' as they were too quiet, was observed implementing concurrent translation in his class. Further, he later stated in the interview that 'the main reason why translation becomes my go-to option most of the time is frustration' (T3). Naturally, the teachers' reasons and purposes with respect to the use of translation varied. It is, though, worth noting Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) word of warning that using translation in this fashion can be a 'too easy escape' (p.35). The consequence is that the students will most likely begin to ignore L2 utterances or instructions since they can rely on the L1 translation that will be delivered shortly after (Cameron, 2001, p.26).

Less commonly, the teachers employed translation tasks, i.e. text-based translation activities, in the ESAP class. As T2 reported, 'I give translation tasks sometimes. I use [them] for fun, but through this fun I know students benefit. Students love them'. Indeed, translation activities can be the stone enabling teachers to hit two birds at the same time. Kelly and Bruen's (2015) case study of a higher education institute in Ireland found that teachers employed translation exercises for pedagogical purposes, but also because they were popular with the students. Similar findings were reported in Chirobocea's (2018) study, which introduced translation activities as part of an ESAP course design in a Romanian university and concluded that 'the majority of participants found the translation activities useful for the improvement of their knowledge of English, and also even enjoyable' (p.221). As far as this study is concerned, there is a possibility that translation activities and other forms of translation are used that were not observed or reported. Evidence in the literature shows that teachers tend to under-report their use of the mother tongue in their classes (Hall & Cook, 2013), or deliberately avoid using the L1 when observed in fear of being deemed less professional, less creative, or even lacking in L2 competence (Fallas-Escobar, 2020; Macaro 1998; Neil, 1997). In this vein, teachers were found to use translation covertly in the studies conducted by Kelly and Bruen (2015), Pym, Malmkjær and Plana (2013) and Lau (2020).

5.3 Purposes for Using Translation in ESAP (RQ2)

Translation is used in ESAP for a host of purposes as reported by the participants and observed in their actual practice. The most common, recurring purpose was to translate vocabulary. The participants reported and were observed consistently drawing upon their L1 and translating as they encountered different types of vocabulary they had difficulty comprehending. In particular, as the classes were ESAP-focused, subject-specific vocabulary was top of the list; teachers and students pointed out the greatest need for translation when dealing with highly technical terms. Indeed, one teacher (T5) even claimed that ESAP-related vocabulary items 'are difficult in Arabic let alone in English'. Vocabulary acquisition is an integral part of ESAP learning and having a command of discipline-specific terminology is essential for students to cope in their area of study and eventually their field of work. On this matter, Woodward-Kron (2008) notes that ESAP students 'need to adopt the specialist language in order to make meaning and engage with disciplinary knowledge' and that 'specialist language of the discipline is intrinsic to learning disciplinary knowledge' (p.246). Teachers in Bruen and Kelly's (2017) research referred to specialised business terminology as 'complex language' (p.373).

Notably in this regard, there was a particular emphasis on the importance of fully understanding the meaning of a specialised term rather than merely getting the gist. That is, in the words of one teacher (T8), 'we deal with highly technical material, which a freshman is not ready yet to understand only in English' and if an attempt at a monolingual explanation were to be made, 'they would get the gist, but we don't want them to only get the gist. Let them use an English–Arabic dictionary, that would be excellent, in fact' (T8). Thus, translation constantly appeared when dealing with such vocabulary and for this specific function in all the classes observed. Moreover, all participants without fail reported using translation to facilitate understanding of subject-matter terminology, similar to the results of previous research discussed in 2.5.3 (e.g. Chirobocea, 2018; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Rushwan, 2017; Janulevičienė & Kavaliauskienė, 2015; Xhemaili, 2013). Interestingly, even in relevant research that found translation was not viewed positively or was actively discouraged, employing translation to handle discipline-specific terminology, and medical and science jargon was deemed useful (An & Macaro, 2022; AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019).

It seems fair then to suggest that ensuring students could immediately and fully comprehend terminology was a priority for the teachers. This was clear when teachers with an allegiance to monolingual teaching expressed dissatisfaction with their students only getting the gist, or when, for example, one teacher reported that even showing medical students 'images of the large intestine and the small intestine' (T6) to facilitate vocabulary acquisition was not enough to achieve what he desired. This was one of those situations in which he told himself 'I wish I could say it in Arabic' (T6). Similarly, a native English speaker teacher in An and Macaro's (2022) study recounted that he wished he spoke Chinese 'to give students the Chinese equivalent for molecule' (p.13). Teachers clearly appreciate the challenging nature of the ESAP material students have to deal with. At the same time, there is also recognition of the benefit of translation in facilitating the learning process in such situations; indeed the students' L1 is viewed as 'something that's very useful if you have it in your pocket' (T6). In this regard, research has shown that L1 glosses are quite effective as opposed to glosses in the L2; 'when it comes to the explanation of new or unfamiliar L2 vocabulary, L1 input brings about more learning gains than L2 input, whether it is delivered through teachers' oral explanation or through glossary information' (Kim et al., 2020, p.16).

Speaking of unfamiliar terminology, the high degree of difficulty ESAP students face when encountering specialised terminology was highlighted by Woodward-Kron (2008, p.235), who noted that 'a striking feature of scientific discourse is the presence of Graeco-Latinate affixes and roots in the technical terms, a feature which can create a barrier to comprehension'. It then seems understandable that in this study, teachers and students alike alluded to this, with one teacher (T6) noting 'When it comes to ESP, sometimes they do get stuck with specific words like words related to bacteria, or words related to medical procedures', a sentiment repeatedly echoed by the students:

> I need translation when I deal with medical terminology. It really does facilitate understanding and memorising. I understand a medical term better when I translate it into Arabic as opposed to in English. (S1)

> [Translation is] crucial to understand engineering-related vocabulary. I use Google Translate to look a word up. (S2)

These findings agree with and further support Rushwan's (2017) and Chirobocea's (2018) conclusion that translation is necessary for ESAP learning, particularly in aiding students to acquire discipline-specific vocabulary, which is 'one of the most important goals in ESP' (Rushwan, 2017, p.179). In terms of other types of vocabulary the teachers translated, one point that merits attention here is that the participants usually referred to 'difficult terms' and 'new vocabulary' when arguing for the usefulness of translation. When probed, it turned out they were referring to subject-matter terminology for the most part, but observations of actual practice detected translation of more types of vocabulary. These included academic vocabulary (e.g. *dispose*), general vocabulary (e.g. *post*) and the metalinguistic lexicon (e.g. *adjectives*). These were less frequent, but such usage is consistent with the findings of previous research (Bukhari, 2017; Baeshin, 2016; Borg 1998). Further, in dealing with vocabulary of higher frequency Chirobocea (2018, p.147) suggests that 'the ESP teacher must not ignore or minimize the role of high-frequency words, or consider them already dealt with by previous teachers, as without them there is no understanding of a highly scientific or technical text'. An and Thomas's (2021) findings seem to support this, as they noted that much to their surprise, students struggled with non-technical vocabulary as well as the technical lexicon, which hindered comprehension and in turn restricted interaction and participation in class.

Explaining grammar was another key purpose for translation being called upon by teachers and students alike in the ESAP class. This is hardly surprising, as using translation to teach

grammar has been found to be quite popular in previous research (e.g. Bukhari, 2017; Alsuhaibani 2015; Hall & Cook, 2013; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). Furthermore, Grammar-Translation is still being employed in various teaching contexts around the world (Fereidoni, Baniadam & Tadayyon, 2018; Scheffler, 2013; Kim, 2011). These findings may well corroborate Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) suggestion that 'The [mother tongue] is the bedrock on which any subsequent language learning must be built, not only because it provides ready access to [foreign language] meanings, but because it is the magic key that unlocks the door to [foreign language] grammars' (p.14). Indeed, what the teachers reported in this regard could only be deemed as support for this, with teacher T9 maintaining that 'translation helps a lot in grammar because the students can reach to what's more familiar to them'. There was a consensus among the teachers who took part in this study that grammar acquisition is facilitated by employing translation as the students will be able to relate it to the grammar of their own L1. On this, T6, a native speaker of English, revealed that he used translation to 'point out the difference between the two languages and it's helpful'. Using translation to draw similarities and point out differences between the grammar of the mother tongue and the target language was a regular strategy implemented by teachers in Borg (1998), with one teacher arguing that referring students to their L1 grammar serves as an 'eye opener' for them (p.18). Further, respondents in Hall and Cook (2013) reported contrasting the grammar of the L2 to that of their students' L1 in a bid to raise the students' awareness and in turn facilitate grammar acquisition, with similar results also reported in Bruen and Kelly (2017) and Turnbull (2018). In fact, research has demonstrated that using translation to teach grammar accelerates acquisition and especially contributes to grammar learning (Soleimani & Heidarika, 2017; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). The findings of previous research and this study seem to support what Schmidt (1990) has termed *the noticing hypothesis*, i.e. being aware of similarities and differences can prove effective as a learning strategy.

In addition, translation was used to translate grammatical terminology, i.e. words such as 'adjectives', 'comparative', 'superlatives' (T1). This finding is line with the works of Borg (1998), Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and Scott and de la Fuente (2008). In line with this, Antón and DiCamilla (1999, p.239) noted the metalinguistic function of the L1 as their observations detected students relying on it and in turn successfully producing the correct grammatical form they were seeking. In addition, teachers in Baeshin's (2016) study found

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benefits in making cross-linguistic comparisons between the L1 and L2; hence, 'comparing Arabic and English could be valuable as a tool for stimulating learning' (p.399).

Translation was also deployed in the ESAP class as a tool for explaining various instructions, ranging from those related to assessment and examinations to those concerned with in-class management. Utilising the students' L1 for this particular purpose appears to be a popular function in the wider, relevant literature; Macaro (2005) notes that making use of the students' own language to give instructions is common practice amongst teachers across different learning contexts. In this study, the teachers were regularly observed providing instant translations for the instructions they were giving to their students. One of many examples can be seen in the following extract in which the teacher (T5) simultaneously translated an instruction related to a listening activity they were about to perform:

Extract 8

T5: Okay, the following part, *you will listen to the same audio* الآن راح تسمع لنفس المقطع

It seems that the role translation could play in facilitating the setting up of exercises in the ESAP classroom was universally appreciated among the teachers who took part in this study. This was evident in the response of one teacher when asked what he employed translation for in the class: 'I would say the first thing is the instructions. We say them in English and then repeat them in Arabic to make sure everyone understands what we're going to do, what's going on in class' (T9). Clearly, translation was deemed instrumental in making sure that the students clearly understood the instructions provided to them and that they were all on board. Granted, instructions for activities can sometimes be quite complex (Butzkamm, 2003; Macaro, 2000), even more difficult than the task itself (Cameron, 2001), particularly as far as low-level students are concerned (Melibari, 2015; Atkinson, 1987). Translation was thus said to help 'ensure the activity we're going to conduct is clearly understood by the students' (T9). One can understand why a non-Arab teacher at the ELC wished non-native Arabic-speaking teachers were provided with Arabic language classes to help equip them to explain instructions clearly to low-level students, as found in a previous study focused on the same context (Melibari, 2015). These findings are in line with those of Macaro (2000), Baeshin (2016), Bukhari (2017) and Pearce (2022).

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In addition to ensuring comprehension when giving instructions, the issue of time was raised by the ESAP teachers, with one faculty member stating that 'it could take you time to give instructions [in English only]' (T1). This is in line with Macaro's (1997) criticism that giving instructions in the target language only could be 'time-consuming' (p.82) and further supports V. Cook's (2001) proposition that the students' own language can effectively be called upon in a number of situations, one being giving instructions, especially when 'the time cost of the L2 is too great' (p.418). One potential reason that the teachers may have been more conscious of the time it took to give instructions was that class time had been reduced as one of the measures aimed at mitigating the impact of COVID-19 (see Chapters 3 and 4).

However, it is also possible that the teachers may have found themselves unable to adequately clarify a particular instruction exclusively in English; research has shown teachers may resort to the L1 for this reason (Macaro, 2001). In addition, it could have been that the teachers felt classroom participation would improve and the students would engage more if instructions were fully understood. When the teachers were discussing the impacts of COVID-19 and remote teaching on their practice, they alluded to the issue of a lack of participation in their virtual classes. One teacher said, 'Sometimes I feel like I'm talking to myself' (T5). Similarly, most of the teachers in Bruce and Stakounis's (2021) study cited students' lack of engagement and participation as a massive challenge they faced teaching online EAP classes in the UK during the pandemic. In this study, as the teachers were unable to put their fingers on why participation and interaction were an issue, given they were dealing with an unfamiliar set of circumstances, they might have considered translating their instructions to create a livelier classroom atmosphere. Switching to the students' L1 can be an effective technique to encourage students' participation and involvement, in addition to building rapport, considering that L1 is capable of creating 'a closer, warmer' teacher-student relationship as opposed to English, which 'indexes a more distanced, formal' teacher-student relationship (Ferguson, 2003, p.6). Indeed, attempting to teach exclusively in English has been found to have a negative effect on classroom interaction (An & Macaro, 2022; An & Thomas, 2021; Çelik, 2020), with L1 use reported to improve interaction. In fact, the majority of the students in Çelik (2020) attributed their unresponsiveness and silence in the ESAP class to the teacher teaching exclusively in English; 'the learners majorly complained about use of English as medium of instruction and suggested that they needed L1 (Turkish)' (p.215). Most teachers in Baeshin's (2016) study meanwhile showed a preference for the L1

to increase participation in their classes, while teachers in Bukhari's (2017) research said they observed increased student engagement and participation as soon as they switched to the students' L1. Similar results were also found by de la Campa and Nassaji (2009). In addition, in Copland & Neokleous's (2011) study, two teachers who were observed to use translation in abundance to explain vocabulary cited maintaining students' interest and motivation as the purpose for their approach.

Translation was also used to deliver instructions concerning assessment and examinations, in line with findings observed in Burden (2001), Yao (2011) and Bukhari (2017). Although using translation for this function did not come up in the interviews with the limited number of students, 86.1% of the much larger population who completed the survey agreed with the attitudinal item '*Arabic translation is essential to understand exam instructions*' and 76.6% endorsed that '*Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions*'. These findings are in line with those of Liao's (2006) and Bruen and Kelly's (2017) studies, in which the students reported preferring their teachers translate into their L1 when it came to discussing the nature of assessment. Partly pertinent to the issue of exams and assessment, T8, who strongly believed in an L2-only approach, reported entertaining translation in his classes as he gave much thought to how the students would perform in the exams: 'You want to ensure they pass the exam' (T8). Indeed, all other issues aside, the students' ultimate objective is to pass their exam, which is normally the measure of their proficiency that determines if they are to be offered a place in their college of choice. This was especially important in the context of this study as the students would not be able to attend their preferred college unless they met the language requirements for admission. This chimes with de la Campa and Nassaji's (2009) finding that teachers used the L1 as they believed it would help students be well prepared for the exams and in turn help them attain their objectives, which could just be passing the course to secure admission to their chosen study major. In this regard, research in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere has shown that students are quite often only instrumentally motivated when it comes to learning English, i.e. their main objective is to pass an exam for study requirement or career-related reasons (e.g. Javid, Farooq & Gulzar, 2012; Chan, 2009). Thus, teachers may switch to the L1 as they are keen for their students to be well prepared for exams, especially when they have to get through a lot of material in a short amount of time (Duff & Polio, 1990).

Another purpose for which translation was used in the ESAP classroom was to aid and check the students' comprehension, in line with the results of Polio and Duff (1994), Alsuhaibani (2015) and Bukhari (2017). Further, Atkinson (1987) cites checking comprehension as a function for which translation can be employed at all levels. Utilising the mother tongue for this particular function appeared in most of the classes observed, including one taught by a native speaker of English with little command of Arabic (T6). Interestingly, a native speaker making use of the students' own language to ensure comprehension is not unheard of in the wider literature. For example, an L2 teacher in Duff and Polio (1990) was found to use the students' L1 even more than L1 native teachers as he sought to ensure students' full comprehension. When the teachers were discussing the purposes for which they were likely to have recourse to translation, they repeatedly alluded to the importance of 'getting the message across' (T3) and their 'sole and primary concern … that students understand' (T4). Indeed, T4 said 'I'm not concerned about anything else'.

When there was a lack of interaction in class, the teachers suspected it might be an issue of comprehension, which made T2 'feel like you're not getting your message across'. Translation was therefore the answer for T2, who revealed 'I've used it [translation] a lot'. This was also the case with teachers in Macaro (2005), who felt that their students were confused and rather lost. In a related point, for one teacher (T5), translation provided a source of 'reassurance' that he and the students were 'on the same page'. T5's fears may have been well founded and his concern is definitely shared with others in the literature, with one teacher in Macaro (2001, p.539) admitting to reluctantly calling upon the students' L1 in fear of 'losing the class' as a result of 'lack of comprehension'. ESAP teachers may be forgiven for having concerns about comprehension in their classes and resorting to translation given the nature of the material they deal with. By using translation, they could potentially avoid obstacles such as those reported in An and Thomas (2021), who found virtually all students reported comprehension struggles because of the considerable quantity of technical terminology.

A common purpose for using translation in the ESAP setting was related to time management in the class. There was a clear consensus among the teaching staff who took part in the study that translation was a good option when it came to saving time in the class. For example, T7 noted 'translation saves a lot of time' and T1 stated 'Resorting to the mother tongue sometimes helps me spare time and achieve my goal…The students achieve understanding,

and the teacher achieves his goal'. These findings are consistent with previous research, which also found that translation was viewed as advantageous in saving time (e.g.; Baeshin, 2016; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Alsuhaibani, 2015; Hall & Cook, 2013; Macaro, 2000).

In this study, the teachers reported that translation was especially time-efficient when giving instructions and dealing with specialised vocabulary. During classroom observation, T1 made use of translation to give students updated instructions in relation to assessment and exams and also concerning listening activities. The same teacher reported he would 'use it when I'm setting exercises especially in ESP classes. It could take you time to give instructions so I resort to Arabic to save time'. This supports V. Cook's (2005, p.95) argument that the students' L1 can act as a 'shortcut', offering an option that is 'quickest and most effective' in terms of speeding things up in the class, particularly when giving task instructions. Translation was also believed to save time when 'explaining specialised terminology where grasping the concept is difficult…so you supply them with direct translation, and it saves time' (T9). Other teachers were also found to implement a similar approach when it came to complex ESAP terms:

> I would probably need 15 minutes to explain what IVF is in English, which is not ideal as far as time management is concerned. Offering the translation of a word in Arabic allows me to save time and get the meaning across, so hitting two birds with one stone really. (T1)

These findings are similar to those of Alsuhaibani (2015): two teachers in his study confirmed supplying students with the immediate translation of a term since the approach saved time. Further, T1's sentiment is shared by a teacher in V. Cook's (2005) study, who noted, albeit discussing a different classroom situation, that she would 'rather one minute of instructions in the L1 and 9 minutes in the L2 doing the task than 9 minutes of instructions in the L2 and 1 minute in the L2 doing the task' (p.95). While the teachers alluded to some reasons why they were conscious about time (discussed in 5.5), there is also the possibility that they viewed effective time management as important to allow as much time as possible for English in the class. The overwhelming majority of the teachers in the study were in favour of English being the dominant language in the ESAP class and thus translation may have been a tool they utilised to realise the objective of a predominantly monolingual ESAP class; this is a strategy that is in line with Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009, p.80), who suggest:

> …the [mother tongue] steals very little time away from [the foreign language], and, in fact, helps to establish it as the general means of communication in the classroom.

Paradoxically, then, a 'foreign language friendly' atmosphere is best achieved through the specific, albeit discrete use of the mother tongue.

Less frequent purposes reported for the use of translation and observed in class included addressing technical issues arising from the shift to remote teaching. This is hardly a surprise since the coronavirus pandemic presented both the teachers and students with circumstances that had no precedence. This led to considerable challenges, not the least of which were technical issues. Relatedly, research has shown that the enforced shift to online instruction left students across the globe facing technical issues and obstacles (e.g. Farrah & Al-Bakry 2020; Mahyoob, 2020). In addition, teachers were observed attempting to elicit translations of different terms (e.g. *range*, *freebies*, *collision*) from the students in various situations. The students would then respond in Arabic, which was met with the teacher's approval. There was also no hesitation from some students in requesting translation from the teacher; S9 interestingly asked his native English teacher about the English equivalent of the Arabic word عطر[*perfume*]. Although the student correctly guessed the word in the end, he still sought confirmation from his teacher, as shown in the following extract:

S9: Doctor, I'm allergic to... I don't know the word in English. عطر,is it *perfume*?

T6: Yes, that's right.

According to Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009, p.221), seeking verification or re-affirming provides yet another good example of 'how languages help rather than hinder each other'. These findings, eliciting and requesting translation, are consistent with those of Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), Alsuhaibani (2015) and An and Macaro (2022). In this vein, one teacher in Baeshin's (2016) work revealed eliciting translation from the more proficient students 'so they can translate for their classmates', albeit as a last resort if conveying the meaning in the L2 proved inadequate (p.275). Similarly, one teacher who could not speak the students' L1 in An and Macaro's (2022) study relied on students shouting out the L1 translation so their classmates could grasp a certain term; he reported often seeing 'a lightbulb go off' when that occurred having unsuccessfully attempted to explain the term in the L2. A teacher in Fallas-Escobar (2020) recounted that when her L2 explanation of a given word did not sufficiently convey the meaning, she would let her students translanguage until they arrived at the right translation. Indeed, teachers advocating a monolingual ideology tend only to entertain the students' L1 as an alternative or a last resort, particularly after an L2 explanation proved unsuccessful (G. Cook, 2010; Auerbach, 1993). In this vein, some

teachers in Hartmann and Hélot (2019, p.1) revealed resorting to translation 'when no other strategies work, whether miming or drawing'.

Further, teachers employed the students' mother tongue for the purposes of providing feedback and praise, producing similar results to those observed in Alsuhaibani (2015), albeit using L1 for these purposes was far less frequent, a similar case to the findings of Hall and Cook (2013) and Baeshin (2016). Last but not least, one teacher revealed he made use of translation activities in his classes, providing his students with texts to translate from English to Arabic or vice versa. He cited 'fun' as the reason, but their 'benefit' was the purpose. 'Students love them', T2 added. Indeed, previous research has shown students do engage in translation activities (e.g. Chirobocea, 2018; Hall & Cook, 2013).

5.4 Factors Influencing the Use of Translation in ESAP (RQ3)

A host of factors impact teachers' and students' in-class decisions when it comes to the choice of language. The most standout factor emerging from the interviews with the teachers concerned the students' L2 proficiency level, congruent with previous research (Lau, 2020; Baeshin, 2016; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Tang, 2002; Franklin, 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Mitchell 1988). All the teachers, without exception, cited their students' perceived lack of L2 competence as a reason for using translation in the ESAP class, to the extent that it was often the 'first go-to option' (T3). For this to be a common factor is also consistent with Hall and Cook's (2013) finding, namely that all teachers similarly referred to students' low proficiency as a reason for drawing on translation.

Interestingly, when the teachers in this study were discussing their use of translation as a result of perceived low levels of proficiency among their students, they used words such as 'weak' and 'poor'. This is of note here since as all ESAP students were expected to be at intermediate level prior to commencing semester two according to the ELC course description, having already had a full first term of general English classes. It appears that regardless of what policies dictate and what the expectations are, although ESAP students 'in theory… are at least intermediate in their proficiency' (Chirobocea, 2018, p.147), personal differences with respect to linguistic proficiency are inevitable, not to mention that a student's level in General English may not necessarily be appropriate for ESAP learning. The faculty members did not hold back when they discussed the issue of their students being 'weak' in the L2, offering interesting insights into what was, at times, an unprecedented situation. For example, T2 claimed he had never previously relied on translation as much: 'I

have not used as much translation as I have this semester because the students were very weak'. T8 said that his ESAP class 'felt like an Arabic class'. Thus, it seemed that ESAP teaching and learning would be almost impossible without translation due to the students' poor abilities in L2, leaving teachers with no choice but to put their preference for an English-only approach in class aside. In this regard, T5 noted 'I would not use Arabic at all if the students were good. But when the students are weak you haven't really got much of a choice. What can you do?'. T3 noted that the students would be 'as quiet as a vase in a room' without translation because they 'could not comprehend anything'. Indeed, research has shown that students may become unresponsive as a result of incomprehension when the teacher follows an English-only approach in the ESAP class (e.g. Çelik, 2020) Similarly, in Lau's (2020) inquiry in an EMI Malawian context, one teacher remarked that due to poor L2 competence, 'You speak, you talk, but they [the students] just don't get it'. In the face of such challenges, according to T2, 'Translation was therefore the answer'. In Lau's (2020) study too, teachers revealed having 'covertly' drawn upon their students' L1, despite the policy in place forbidding any use of the mother tongue.

The discussion became particularly interesting as the teachers further revealed that their students' perceived lack of L2 proficiency was a talking point in the offices of the ELC; one teacher reported 'I discussed [using translation in ESAP classes] with the teachers, and we switch to translation more often with weaker groups' (T7). In fact, one teacher from the exact same context, the ELC, touched upon this issue less than a decade ago in Melibari's (2015) study, expressing a desire for the ELC administration to offer non-Arab faculty staff Arabic language courses to help them deal with weaker students. Granted, much might be said about this issue in the ELC offices that the staff might not be too keen to share and that I was not privy to, but the responses in the interviews may serve to offer an insight. Indeed, the teachers were likely to have pointed fingers in different directions and one that was commonly referred to when discussing their inevitable use of translation owing to their students' insufficient abilities in L2 was their prior learning experience. That is, in the words of T8, 'the main reason as to why students are this weak is secondary school education and previous levels'. The native-speaker teacher concurred and added that 'definitely there's a backdrop to this scenario which is the students' English subjects at school' (T5). For teachers to blame poor L2 competence on prior learning experiences is in line with previous research on this matter (Lau, 2020; Baeshin, 2016). This is brought up here because it could indicate an interesting phenomenon. In other words, while teachers may have a point that English

education in Saudi Arabian schools falls short of the expected standards in terms of outcomes (Al-Johani, 2009), it is not possibly to rule out other reasons. For instance, it is possible that they felt guilty about using a language other than the target language in class, a practice that is believed and has been found to contribute to a sense of guilt on the teachers' part (Hall, 2020; Lau, 2020; Bukhari, 2017; Pym, Malmkjær & Plana, 2013; Macaro, 2009). This may serve to show that there is an association between using the students' L1 and feeling guilty, as suggested by Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009, p.19) who state, 'Time and again, using the mother tongue is accompanied by feelings of guilt'. Having someone shoulder the blame for students' poor proficiency in L2 and in turn justifying teachers' ensuing practice, translating in the ESAP class, may have alleviated this sense of guilt. Teachers tend to justify using the students' L1 in practice perhaps because otherwise it might signify incompetence on their part (Baeshin, 2016). Thus, bringing up the issue of students' previous learning experiences may have been one way of justifying what they would not consider the ideal approach. This is also in line with Baeshin's (2016) research and Macaro's (2001) maximal position that L1 is of no pedagogical value and is only drawn upon as a result of factors that render ideal learning conditions unattainable.

When the teachers were discussing the implications of the shift to online instruction due to the outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic and the ensuing stringent measures taken by authorities to combat the spread of the disease, translation was viewed as a tool that could ease a potential sense of guilt. As discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, the sudden, unplanned move to remote teaching presented immense challenges with no precedent. The new mode of teaching left teachers, in particular, facing a set of tricky challenges that were difficult to navigate. One concerned online classes being too quiet, with T1 recalling a recent experience in a class of his 'sometimes I talk for 15 minutes without hearing anything back from the students'. The majority of the teachers interviewed repeatedly alluded to the issue of lack of interaction in their digital spaces, which is in line with recent research in relation to online learning (Naqvi & Zehra, 2020). In this study, some teachers suspected the students were too quiet due to their lack of L2 competence, while in a related vein, some others felt it was to do with lack of comprehension. Indeed, research has shown that students tend not to engage in class due to lack of comprehension, which results from low L2 competence (An & Thompson, 2021; Lau, 2020; Bukhari, 2017; Melibari, 2015). It is also possible it could have been a lack of motivation; research has shown students tend to feel less motivated in online

classes (Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020). In fact, 68% of 50 English teachers across Saudi Arabia felt the students were less motivated to learn online (Mahib ur Rahman, 2020).

Either way, these issues gave rise to a sense of guilt as far as the teachers were concerned. They reported feeling that their message was not being effectively communicated; T2 stated that students' lack of interaction made him 'feel like you're not getting your message across'. They also felt that they were not doing their best (T4). As a result, teachers reported that they turned to translation to address these challenges and alleviate their guilt: 'I therefore used more translation to ease my conscience' (T4). Some teachers in Alsuhaibani's (2015) research said they never felt guilty about using the students' L1, viewing it as essential for communication and ensuring the message was properly conveyed. Further, in Lau's (2020) study, teachers said they covertly drew on their students' L1 so they were not left behind, which shows teachers are willing to go so far as to ignore institutional policies to ensure that their students benefit and progress.

Another online-related factor that led to teachers resorting to the students' L1 was a lack of discipline. For example, when T2 called the names of students to take part in an activity but received no response, he made his displeasure clear in Arabic:

Extract 15

T2: S3, could you please unmute your mic? S3, can you hear me? (No response)

T2: OK. Who else? S4, can you hear me? OK.

T2: S5, can you hear me? *OK وطالبين جوالتهم فاتحين اليوم طالب كتير شكلوا OK, it looks like a lot of the students have logged in through their phones but are not actually with us*].

In this regard, research has shown students tend to miss online classes as they do not take them as seriously as those conducted in person (Naqvi & Zehra, 2020). In addition, T4 was seemingly frustrated at the lack of participation from students, as shown in Extract 16, using translation to voice his frustration and perhaps emphasise his annoyance.

Extract 16

T4: *We have 25 students here but only 4 or 5 are participating? OK. يعني معانا 25 طالب لكن بس 4 أو 5 اللي بيشاركوا؟*

Teachers tend to rely on the students' L1 and translate to maintain discipline (e.g. Alsuhaibani 2015; Franklin, 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). This is consistent with Auerbach's (1993, p.24) view that drawing upon the L1 is a 'bonus' as far as classroom management is concerned, particularly where 'there are attendance problems, or problems with uneven participation'.

A further factor partly related to the transition to remote teaching and thereby influencing ESAP teachers' practice was time. As stated earlier, the coronavirus pandemic was in full swing when this inquiry was being carried out. Among the measures taken by the Saudi authorities to mitigate the impacts of the pandemic were reducing class time and ending the academic term six weeks earlier than planned. As such, teachers reported feeling severe time pressure, having to cover the material in a considerably shorter period of time than previously allocated. Even in normal circumstances, teachers often report concern about being unable to cover the material in the curriculum fully in time for the exams. One teacher in Duff and Polio's (1990) study alluded to this issue and claimed that covering the material exclusively in the L2 would be impossible, so L1 would be used to help move things faster. One can then only imagine how difficult the situation was for the teachers in this study. They were informed that the exams were being brought forward and were due to take place in a month's time when they thought they had two months of teaching remaining. What is more, covering all the units in the book was essential. Thus, T8, for example, reported having relied on translation 'more regularly because of the impacts of COVID-19. I wanted to finish quicker. We were under pressure because we did not have enough time'. A similar sentiment was echoed by T2, who stated 'If you're time-restricted like ourselves now, of course I will resort to translation. I'm not going to spend 10 good minutes trying to explain a term in English'. This latter quote is consistent with Voicu's (2012, p.214) suggestion that translation is a time-efficient practice: 'Instead of going through long explanations in the target language, it is sometimes easier and more efficient to give a translation of a vocabulary'. These findings are in line with those in previous research (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Alsuhaibani, 2015; Duff & Polio, 1990; Franklin, 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Macaro 1995; 1997).

A further factor influencing teachers' use of translation in the ESAP class was frustration. The teaching staff concerned ascribed their frustration to various causes. One was the lack of interaction from their students. According to T3, 'I may feel frustrated at the lack of interaction from students' and thus 'the main reason why translation becomes my go-to

option most of the time is frustration'. Another teacher commented in this regard that 'There was no interaction whatsoever without translation' (T4). For T7, whose L1 was Urdu, frustration stemmed from the fact that his students seemed to expect translation of L2 input at all times: 'If you're not using translation students look at you and think you're not doing what's required, you're not doing your job properly'. Therefore, he felt 'obligated to use translation' (T7). These findings are consistent with Baeshin's (2016) research, in which the teachers reported feeling frustrated at the lack of interaction until Arabic was used.

In fairness, one can understand the frustration of the teachers. However, what is of particular interest here is the fact that a dose of the mother tongue, albeit reluctantly by the sounds of it, seems consistently to have done the trick. That is, the outcome was always what the teachers were aiming for, i.e. increased interaction. Interestingly, this is precisely what could be lacking in ESAP classes, in which interaction levels tend to be quite low. Almost all the students in An and Thomas's (2021) research attributed their limited interaction to the amount and challenging nature of the technical lexicon, further complicated by the teachers' L2 input, which was full of additional specialised terms. The students therefore recommended they be allowed some time to look up new words in a bilingual dictionary if they were expected to keep up and engage more in meaningful interactions with their teachers in class (An & Thomas, 2021). This serves to indicate several points. One is that it could support Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) argument that avoiding the L1 impacts the communicative quality of the lesson, which only improves once comprehension is aided through translation because the two 'go hand in hand' (p.37). It is also possible that the students felt uneasy about the lack of L1 bearing in mind the sheer lack of proficiency among the freshmen as perceived and reported by their teachers. Using translation might help elicit responses from the students, reducing heightened levels of anxiety amongst them and motivating them to interact in the class, as shown in previous research (An & Macaro, 2022; Hall & Cook, 2013; Liao, 2006; Harbord, 1992).

In relation to the psychological aspect in L2 learning settings, the teaching staff interviewed cited student anxiety as something they took into account and led them to use translation. Extensive research in the literature has looked at the issue of students' L2 stress and anxiety with keen interest (e.g. Levine, 2003; Horwitz et al., 1986) and translation is believed to help make students more comfortable and confident in the class, especially in the early stages of learning the L2 (G. Cook, 2010; Auerbach, 1993).

One example that supports this claim can be observed in T8's version of events in his classroom. A highly experienced teacher and a strong advocate of an English-only approach, T8 said he tended to speak exclusively in English for three minutes straight to 'gauge the general atmosphere amongst the students'. Their reaction, in T8's words, was that they would start to 'become increasingly uncomfortable' and thus he would 'begin to translate' and 'as soon as I translate, I feel like students have started breathing again'. Similarly, T9 recounted that when 'it's all English some students are intimidated by the English-only'. For teachers to turn to translation to alleviate students' anxiety could indicate that they are aware of the crucial role the L1 can play and its potential advantages. T9 noted that 'translation eases [students' fears], they don't feel intimidated'.

One thing to note here is that as the study was being carried out at a time of distress owing to the coronavirus pandemic, the mental aspect instantly became of paramount importance. Research in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere has shown moderate to severe levels of anxiety among students arising from the outbreak of the deadly virus (e.g. AL-Shahrani, 2021; Wang & Zhao, 2020). When students experience feelings of stress and frustration, or even feel 'upset' in the L2 class, 'learning stops' (Meyer, 2008, p.148). Meyer (2008) further warns it could even have future implications and L2 students may end up viewing learning a new language as a 'hopeless endeavour' (p.148). The teachers in this study may have had this in mind, i.e. dealing with multiple sources of anxiety rather than one, when they used translation in their remote classes. When students are experiencing low anxiety or are free from anxiety, they will be more psychologically secure and this in turn is conducive to L2 education (Krashen, 1985). L2 classrooms can be intimidating for students, causing anxiety which affects them negatively, as shown in previous research (e.g. Han et al., 2022; Yan & Liang, 2022), a situation likely to have been compounded by the pandemic and remote learning. It is thus vital that teachers are aware of the classroom environment and are cognisant of the fact that students take time to adjust to 'new surroundings' and 'educational approaches' (Meyer, 2008, p.147). Drawing on the students' L1 seems to have been a way of creating a less anxiety-provoking atmosphere, mirroring findings of previous research in the literature (e.g. Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Bukhari, 2017; Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

A discrete factor said to have influenced teachers' use of translation is related to what appears to be insufficient ESAP knowledge in English, i.e. specialised content knowledge, knowledge of learners' needs and professional development knowledge (Ferreira &

MacDiarmid, 2019). The ESAP teachers had in most cases embarked on their teaching careers as EGAP teachers but were expected to be equipped with a skillset well beyond a teaching methodology. The transition from teaching EGAP to ESAP, an annual reality for the teaching faculty who took part in this inquiry, has been deemed a major challenge due to 'the concomitant shift from the focus on 'delivery' to focus on 'content' (Campion, 2016, p.60). Indeed, the nature of ESAP material requires a fair degree of specialist knowledge in a range of disciplines, such as science, medicine and law, to name but a few. This presents a challenge for English teachers who may never have thought they would be candidates to teach ESAP and thus never received any kind of ESAP training. Discussing the potential difficulties ESAP teachers are likely to encounter, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.158) note they are likely to 'struggle to master language and subject matter beyond the bounds of their previous experience'.

Further, ESAP teacher training programmes are almost non-existent and training is an area that is almost entirely neglected in ESAP research (Basturkmen 2017; Mahapatra, 2011). Woodward-Kron (2008) also noted a lack of 'any guidelines for teachers to understand the nature of the specialist language of different academic disciplines'. Less than a decade ago, teachers in the exact same context – the ELC at the Saudi university – cited lack of institutional support and training as significant issues they faced in view of the challenging nature of ESAP material, which requires a notable degree of specialised knowledge (Melibari, 2015). In this study, T1 touched on this issue, justifying his reasons for using translation in an ESAP medical class and stating 'I'm not a doctor, I'm not an engineer. Doctors study for years to become qualified, that's not the case for us'. For him, the use of translation in ESAP 'depends on the teacher's expertise with the subject he's teaching', but he insisted that it was essential, especially when teaching 'medical and scientific' material. A colleague of his, T9, also said 'when I was teaching the business books I wasn't as familiar with the terminology and in my short- and long- term memory, I didn't have the exact definition in English' and thus 'I had to rely on translation'.

Teachers can struggle with subject matter material even if they are highly competent in the L2, as found by Merritt et al. (1992). Notwithstanding, while it is true that ESAP teachers and students are likely to encounter more specialist, disciplinary-specific language than those engaged in EGAP, the classroom observations revealed that translation was not always used solely to deal with specialist language. That is, as already illustrated and discussed,

teachers were observed translating vocabulary that was not discipline-specific. This can be attributed to several potential factors. One is that it could be their L2 ability is limited in certain respects, prompting them to prefer L1. In this vein, there are concerns regarding the English proficiency of Saudi teachers and this is an issue that is yet to be addressed adequately according to Al-Hazmi (2003) and Melibari (2015). Drawing on the L1 for this reason would mirror the findings of previous research that have shown L1 to be a preference for teachers with low proficiency in the L2, making up for their own linguistic weaknesses (e.g. Wilden & Porsch, 2020; Izquierdo et al., 2016; Kang, 2013). Such teachers may be insecure and resort to their L1 in fear of making mistakes in front of their students (Deters-Philipp 2018; Dörr 2018, cited in Wilden & Porsch, 2020). Haroon's (2005) investigation of higher education mathematics and science classes in Malaysia found that teachers used the L1 due to what he labelled 'linguistic insecurity' brought on by difficulty explaining the meaning of a new term in the L2. Indeed, the teachers in Kang's (2013) study said that their perceived limited ability in the L2 made them feel anxious in class.

Another reason could be what Edstrom (2006, p.14) referred to as 'sheer laziness' and tiredness. Sharing an honest account of her practice, she noted that 'there were many instances in which I could have used the L2 and could identify no reason, other than laziness' (Edstrom, 2006, p.14). Similarly, in this study, T1 stated that 'Sometimes you use translation because you want to get the lesson over and done with'. Burden (2000) and Turnbull (2001) also suggest that the L1 may become tempting for teachers when they feel tired.

5.5 Attitudes Towards the Use of Translation in ESAP (RQ4)

In this section, the discussion will focus on teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP, providing an answer to the first research question.

5.5.1 Teachers' attitudes

The overwhelming majority of the ESAP teachers who took part in this study did not hold hugely positive attitudes towards the use of translation in their classes. The responses from most teachers evidently display a higher preference for English to be the predominant language, or at times the only language used in the classroom environment, consistent with previous research (An & Macaro, 2022; Hall, 2020; Lau, 2020; Baeshin, 2016; Hall & Cook, 2013). The English-only ideology emerged as a popular belief among the ESAP teaching staff at the ELC, who adopted positions reflecting what Macaro (2001, p.535) identifies as the virtual position, i.e. teaching through the L2 and excluding the L1 as it has no

pedagogical value, and the maximal position, namely near-exclusive use of L2 but permitting L1 as a last resort since the ideal classroom does not exist. For example, only 4 teachers out of 22 who completed the survey disagreed with the statement '*English should be the only language used in the ESAP classroom*', indicating they might even reject any use of the students' mother tongue in the classroom.

The criticism levelled at translation and the huge support for monolingualism in the ELT literature, as discussed in Chapter 2, has without doubt influenced how some teachers view translation. That is evidenced by those against the use of translation citing the 'negative press' translation has received in the ELT literature as a reason why they do not favour it, which is also consistent with Kelly and Bruen's (2015) findings from interviews with teachers in Ireland. Another teacher (T8) argued that 'the best way to teach English is through English', a belief that evidently reflects 'a mostly unquestioned assumption that the best way to learn and teach English is through English, and English alone' (Kerr, 2015, p.2).

Indeed, translation has always been a hotly debated issue in the ELT literature and the relevant theoretical discourse has long seemed to have one direction of travel, viewing translation with misgiving and even treating it as a pariah. As such, it is perhaps unsurprising that some teachers would choose not to be in favour of what erudite, big-name Western scholars argue against (G. Cook, 2010). This was also apparent with most teachers (63.64%) agreeing with the statement that '*Students will produce Arabic-style English if they are allowed to use translation*'. Interference, which is said to result from drawing upon the mother tongue when learning a new language, is one of the main arguments made against translation in the literature, as discussed in Chapter 2. In justifying strong support for an English-only approach, one teacher (T8) claimed that 'interference is inevitable when Arabic is used', basing this on what one can find in the relevant ELT 'books and approaches'. The teacher is likely to be referring here to the Direct Method and Audiolingual Method, which share with the behaviourist theory of SLA the belief that the use of translation in teaching an L2 leads to interference and the best practice therefore is to teach exclusively in the L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Similar concerns with regard to potential interference when translation is used in the L2 class were shared by teachers in Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain's (2009) study. This stance also reflects 'the virtual position' (Macaro, 2001, p.535), namely that there is no pedagogical value whatsoever in using the students' L1 and that teaching

should take place exclusively in the L2 to avoid interference and enhance L2 fluency and competence.

In addition to resulting in interference, the use of translation is deemed unfavourable as it could deprive students of much-needed L2 exposure, particularly 'in Saudi Arabia where English practice outside the classroom is lacking' (T7). The emphasis is on maximum L2 exposure, which is especially significant in a context where opportunities for L2 exposure outside the classroom are anything but abundant, as is the case in Saudi Arabia. Reflecting previous research (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Atkinson, 1993), the teachers seemed very aware of the minimal exposure to the L2 outside the classroom, which in turn appeared to motivate their L2-only stance. The words of the experienced native-speaker teacher offer an insight into this matter and his approach to addressing it:

> I don't use it [translation] much. I try to stay away from it as much as I can because I know students spend 16 hours a week with us to get exposed to as much English as possible. Because I know the environment, and I always tell them when you leave me after that 16 hours a week and you go on a holiday for two weeks or two days, there's a possibility you don't use the language with your family or friends. So I always try to tell them in the first 2 weeks that I prefer that most of the time… 99% if you can, immerse yourself in the language. (T6)

Undoubtedly, 'the teacher has a duty to provide as much input in the L2 as possible simply because the class may be the only time when the students encounter the second language' (V. Cook, 2005, p.59). Nonetheless, such a stance shows an underlying assumption that when students immerse themselves in an exclusively L2 environment, it promotes their L2 development. As already touched upon, this is hardly an uncommon belief in the literature and it may well be influenced by well-known theories in SLA such as the comprehensible input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) and the comprehensible output hypothesis (Swain 1985), which argue that exposure to rich comprehensible L2 input and forcing students to produce L2 output effectively contribute to students' L2 development. Granted, an exclusive L2 environment guarantees L2 exposure in abundance. However, while there is no disputing the fact that exposure to the target language is necessary, it is not enough to guarantee success as far as language learning is concerned (G. Cook, 2001). This is because rich L2 input is not necessarily always comprehensible, i.e. the target language 'input must become intake' and 'must be understood by students' (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009, p.5). Students may not be at the appropriate level of proficiency to grasp the L2 input, a challenge pointed out in this study and elsewhere (e.g. An & Macaro, 2022; An & Thomas, 2021). The students

explained that they had difficulty comprehending the L2 input, particularly in ESAP classes, in which the nature of the material is challenging for teachers and students alike. It is perhaps for this reason that even though the majority of ESAP teachers were in favour of monolingual teaching in their practice, none of them agreed with the statement '*Arabic is completely banned in my ESAP classes*' (Table 3.2). This indicates that some teachers may be willing to compromise on their L2-only belief and entertain some L1 in their classes, perhaps recognising that 'principled first language use can facilitate intake and thereby contribute to learning' (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009, p.5).

Macaro's (2005, p.86) summary of the relevant literature may serve best to account for the apparent paradox; he notes the 'overwhelming impression that bilingual teachers believe that the L2 should be the predominant language' in the classroom, but at the same time the majority of teachers not being 'in favour of excluding the L1 altogether'. Furthermore, almost 55% of the teachers agreed with the attitudinal item '*Students should be allowed to use translation in ESAP classes*', which could be accounted for in several ways. One is that teachers may be resigned to the fact that their students will inevitably draw upon their L1; research has shown that teachers accept their students will always use their L1 regardless (An & Macaro, 2022). Moreover, they are powerless when it comes to controlling the language their students think in (Leonardi, 2010, p.27). Indeed, 82.9% of the students who completed the survey confirmed they translated mentally, even when they tried to think exclusively in English (see Chapter 4, Table 4.5), which is consistent with the results found by Boustani (2019). In this regard, previous research has demonstrated that translation does take place unconsciously in the brain during a foreign language comprehension process (Thierry & Wu, 2007). Another explanation could be an appreciation for the host of advantages translation can offer in certain situations in the language classroom, such as playing a facilitative role in '*explaining cultural terms and references*' (77.28% of teachers agreed with this), which is also consistent with findings emerging from Laio's (2006) and Rushwan's (2017) studies.

The teachers were split over whether translation activities should be introduced in ESAP classes. That is, when asked whether '*Translation activities should be included in the ESAP teaching course books*', 9 teachers agreed, 14 disagreed and the rest took the middle ground. Although one teacher reported having used translation tasks in his class, most teachers were of the view that translation activities 'won't add much to the students' (T4). The widely held

view amongst the teachers was that translation should be used as a means to an end, i.e. as a crutch for students to progress to an advanced level of L2 competence, by which point, according to one teacher (T5), the 'students won't need the help of translation' anymore. The consensus was that translation 'is a tool with which students can improve their language skills' (T5), but 'won't probably need much once they've learnt good English' (T9). This finding is in line with Hall and Cook's (2013) study, in which teachers agreed unanimously that the students' L1 was most needed with lower-level students in the early stages and the aim was to use 'less and less' as students made progress. The finding is also consistent with Wilkins' (1974) suggestion that once 'learners' competence has progressed to a level where the foreign language itself can be understood clearly, there will be no need to use the mother-tongue' (p.82). However, although the teachers were willing to compromise briefly on their stance favouring monolingualism until the students could stand on their own feet linguistically speaking, there remained a clear sense of caution. That is, even if there were clear benefits, the teachers emphasised the importance of not going over the top with translation, since 'too much translation is not beneficial' (T7) and 'too much translation means you are not teaching English' (T5).

The teachers were also concerned that 'students may get into the habit of using Arabic' if it were used excessively in the ESAP class and 'that's a barrier to them' (T9). In this regard, one teacher in Baeshin's (2016) research shared a similar sentiment, noting that the students' L1 could end up being 'obstacle if you use it excessively' and that 'if you use overuse Arabic then it's not an English class anymore' (p.252). The teachers' fears lay in the fact that translation could 'ultimately end up being the option they prefer the most' (T5). Teachers in Baeshin's (2016) study shared a similar concern and even reported that some of their students tended to use translation excessively. This potential issue was also raised by Atkinson (1987), whose words of caution to teachers were that overuse of translation in class could lead their students to rely on their L1 to the point where they would translate everything they came across, even if they could get the gist, 'rendering learning English difficult' (T5). One comment that best sums up the teachers' general attitude towards this issue was made by T9, who stated 'translation should be long enough to cover, short enough to create interest'. Otherwise, 'in the long run students won't learn anything' (T7). The views of the teachers concerning this issue in this inquiry are consistent with those observed in previous research (e.g. Bukhari, 2017; Baeshin, 2016; Hall & Cook, 2013).

5.5.2 Students' attitudes

In contrast to their teachers, the vast majority of the students showed positive attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP. Indeed, 92% of the students who completed the survey believed that translation helped them make progress in learning English, as shown in Table 4.6, further supporting the findings in previous research by Liao (2006) and Carreres (2006). In particular, a large, significant proportion of the students reported finding translation to be most useful in understanding grammar rules better and aiding vocabulary acquisition, particularly terms which are discipline-specific, producing results that match those observed in earlier studies (e.g. An & Macaro, 2022; Bukhari, 2017; Janulevičienė & Kavaliauskienë, 2015; Tudor, 1987). Further, the students were very supportive of the idea of introducing translation activities in ESAP books; 72.9% of them believed that '*Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books*'. What is more, 80.7% of the student population agreed with the statement that '*Assignments and in-class activities that require me to translate contribute to my language learning*'.

Such favourable findings concerning translation activities are consistent with those in the wider literature (e.g. Chirobocea, 2018; Carreres, 2006; Tudor, 1987). In addition, it was notable that translation was more popular among students at lower levels of English proficiency. For example, as illustrated in Chapter 4, students at lower-intermediate level were more likely to agree or strongly agree that translation helped them understand grammar rules and memorise vocabulary. Students at the same level were also more likely to agree or strongly agree that they would not be able to learn English at this stage without using translation. Similar findings can be observed in other studies (e.g. Kavaliauskienë & Kaminskienë, 2007), corroborating G. Cook's (2010, p.130) argument that translation is most needed by lower-level students and Butzkamm's (2003, p.31) view that translation is inevitable and vital in the earlier stages of learning English. Furthermore, elementary-level students were more likely to agree or strongly agree that banning translation in the class would induce anxiety. This indicates that translation provides students with a sense of security and comfort in the language classroom, showing similar results to those of Liao (2006) and Xhemaili (2013). This is an issue that has been discussed extensively in the literature, with classes in which the mother tongue is forbidden being described as 'demoralising' (G. Cook, 2010, p.130), 'worrisome' and 'stressful' (Brooks-Lewis, 2009). Therefore, it is understandable that students would turn to translation to feel comfortable in

the language classroom. Polio and Duff (1994) and Hall and Cook (2013) both reported that teachers cited alleviating student anxiety as a main argument for their use of translation.

Of the three ESAP domains investigated in this study, the students in the medical domain held more positive attitudes towards translation. That is, they were more likely to agree or strongly agree with every positively worded item regarding translation in ESAP, as opposed to students from the other domains. This is consistent with the findings observed in Rushwan (2017), but in complete contrast to AlTarawneh and AlMithqal's (2019) results, which were yielded from a smaller sample, among whom female students were more likely to hold negative attitudes towards translation.

5.6 Teachers' Attitudes, Beliefs and Practice: Do They Match? (RQ5)

There can sometimes be a discrepancy between what teachers report and what they actually do in their practice (Borg, 2003). In particular, when it comes to language use in the classroom, teachers have a tendency to either under-report or underestimate their use of L1 in their practice (Hall & Cook, 2013). The inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and their behaviour may be conscious or unconscious and could arise due to several factors, for example keeping up with pacing guides, addressing deficiencies in the students' proficiency level, or trying to comply with institutional policy with respect to L1 use in L2 classes. Moreover, teachers may not be entirely aware of the extent to which they use translation in their class and thus there will be contradictions between what they report in terms of their linguistic behaviour and their observed classroom practice (Polio & Duff, 1994). In this study, only two of the six teachers observed gave accounts of their linguistic behaviour that correlated with their actual practice. T2 and T6 were strong advocates of teaching exclusively in English and only called upon translation as a last resort; their stated beliefs correlated entirely with their practice.

The same cannot be said for the rest of the teaching staff interviewed and observed, although they too reported abundant support for monolingual teaching. For example, examining the interview data, T1 cited several situations in which he would employ translation, such as dealing with specialised vocabulary and giving instructions, but maintained that 'I don't need translation when teaching grammar'. Observation of his practice however captured the exact opposite; he used translation to explain a new grammatical point. Furthermore, the observations revealed that teachers used translation in situations that were not reported in the interviews, such as addressing technical issues in remote classes, checking

comprehension and providing feedback and praise. As already discussed, it is likely the teachers were unaware of the extent to which they made use of their students' L1, hence the divergence between what they said and what they did. But it is also possible that the teaching staff may have chosen to not give an accurate account of their practice out of concern they could be deemed incompetent. This would be in line with Copland and Neokleous (2011), who argued that 'It is hardly surprising… that [teachers] do not report accurately on their classroom practice. To do so would be to admit incompetence, and, perhaps more damningly, would challenge their personal philosophies of learning and teaching' (p.278). It cannot be ruled out that they may have felt ashamed about admitting using translation (Pym, 2018) and thus have chosen to keep quiet about using it in practice since 'it was politically somewhat incorrect to speak in its favour' (Witte, Harden & Harden, 2009, p.1). In addition, the teachers may have been concerned they would be viewed as lacking in professional competence if they admitted using their students' L1 (V. Cook, 2016). In this vein, G. Cook (2005, p.58) notes that over the past century, the typical measure of a successful teacher has been determined by how rarely they 'lapse' into the L1 in their practice. Indeed, as the use of translation is stigmatised (Levine, 2003), it is not uncommon for teachers to continue to 'translate while simultaneously denying that they do, and arguing that it is wrong' (G. Cook 2010, p.56). Further, teaching exclusively in the L2 is thought to represent a higher standard of teaching which could account for the 'disconnect between what teachers feel they should be doing and the reality and proof they have in front of them' (Barnes, 2021, p.45).

What is more, the discrepancy between beliefs and practice could sometimes be down to 'teachers' reverence for traditional grammar instruction' (Farrell & Lim, 2005, p.9), which may account for the conflict between T1's reported behaviour and his practice. Indeed, as discussed in (Section 2.2.3), Grammar-Translation remains popular amongst teachers and students alike in different contexts around the world (e.g. Akramy, Habibzada & Hashemi, 2022; Fereidoni, Baniadam & Tadayyon, 2018). The issue of time could well have been another factor, thanks to which something has to give, and in this case, it was the teachers' reported loyalty to teaching entirely in the L2. As previously discussed, significant disruptions were experienced in the wake of the coronavirus outbreak and the measures taken by Saudi Arabia to combat the negative impacts included a shift to remote teaching, reducing class time and ending the academic year earlier than scheduled. In this vein, Borg (1998) notes that the social, psychological and environmental realities of the teaching context are bound to have an impact one way or another on teachers' practice. There is evidence to

suggest that such factors, potentially further exacerbated by the exceptional circumstances in this case, impede teachers from applying in practice that which reflects their beliefs (Borg, 2003). Further, there is strong evidence that working conditions, one being the time factor, greatly affects what teachers do in class (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999).

The teachers' responses in the surveys were incongruent with what they reported in the interviews and what they did in practice. For example, the survey results showed that the teachers were split over whether translation would help students understand new vocabulary items ($N = 12$, 54.55% agreed or strongly agreed). They were similarly split over whether translation was essential for explaining specialised vocabulary (e.g. medical, business and scientific terms) ($N = 11$, 50% agreed or strongly agreed). However, in the interviews, all teachers without fail noted a need for translation when explaining vocabulary items, particularly discipline-specific ones. The observations likewise provided evidence that explaining vocabulary was the number one reason and purpose for which teachers used translation. Although the respondents were assured of confidentiality and that their contributions would only be used for research purposes, as extensively discussed in Chapter 3, there is a possibility that they still felt uneasy or suspicious in responding to the surveys. It is also worth bearing in mind that the research touched on a sensitive issue in the field – the use of L1 in English classes – potentially not helped by the fact that I was a colleague of theirs and hence they might have had a degree of concern that they would be judged one way or another. In this regard, treating surveys with apparent distrust has been raised by other researchers across different Saudi Arabian contexts (e.g. Baeshin, 2016;Al-Johani, 2009; Al-Mandil, 1999; Al-Ansari, 1995). There is a sense that teachers may sometimes view surveys as a potential threat, i.e. official documents that could be used against them, which may in turn endanger their future in the workplace (Al-Johani, 2009).

Al-Johani (2009) also suggests that Saudi respondents typically lack a sense of individualism due to being brought up in a collectivist environment. Saudi teachers may therefore end up choosing the answer 'they ought to, not what they were actually practising' since it is 'very important for the teachers to present themselves in a good and positive light and to conform to the group expectations' (p.107). All in all, the contradictions found between beliefs and practices as far as the teachers were concerned correspond to previous research (e.g. Arabah et al., 2016; Baeshin, 2016; Tsagari & Diako, 2015).

5.7 Differences in Attitudes Towards and Use of Translation Resulting from the Shift to Online Teaching (RQ6)

As already discussed, the outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic meant that all educational institutions around the world had no choice but to close their premises and turn to online resources to deliver teaching remotely as long as the crisis lasted. Saudi Arabia, the context of this inquiry, was not immune from the disruptions caused by the spread of the deadly virus. Schools and universities therefore shut their gates in March 2020 and education was suspended for a lengthy spell before resuming as distance learning late in the same year. The shift to distance learning presented challenges for teachers and students – and myself as a researcher trying to collect data – all navigating a territory that was far from familiar to say the least. With the pandemic presenting challenges and influencing various aspects of educational practice, teachers were asked whether their choice of language in the ESAP setting was affected compared to that of the on-campus experience before COVID-19 erupted.

Most teachers reported relying on translation more when teaching at a distance; one teacher noted 'I found myself use translation more in online teaching compared to face-to-face teaching. I don't know why but I clarify things a lot' (T2). T3 recounted 'Online teaching is completely different [from] … in-person. I feel like I've used a lot of translation'. The teachers particularly cited the inability to see their students as potentially contributing to translation being 'maximised when teaching online' (T1). Tellingly, T1 also said 'We didn't think it would be difficult to teach online'. In this regard, research has shown that teachers' practice could be influenced by 'environmental realities' and 'contextual factors' to the point where the practices they adopt may not necessarily reflect their underlying beliefs (Borg 2003, p.94). Thus, T1 spoke of the difficulty teaching at a distance, which he had not foreseen and which ended up influencing his pedagogical decisions, leading to more translation in this case, demonstrating similar results as in previous research. That is, teachers may sometimes find themselves in situations in which their decisions in practice are influenced by circumstances that are beyond their control (Borg 2003; Johnson, 1996).

Unhappy with the 'electronic wall', as described by (T4), created by virtual classes, it seems that teachers tended to pay a great deal of attention to students' body language and facial expressions. A teacher in Baeshin's (2016) inquiry reported translating every word having noticed her students' facial expressions, which indicated they were struggling to comprehend

what she said: 'I have to translate everything I say because I can tell from the look on their faces that they didn't understand' (p.284). The teachers who participated in this study were deprived of this benefit, being unable to see their students' faces since all the students had their cameras off. As these cues could not be detected teaching from a distance, T1 said 'we feel like we're lost in our classes when teaching online'. Therefore, T4 reported 'I've preferred to use translation more this semester'.

Given the teachers' preference for the L2 to be dominant in the ESAP class, the fact that they reported relying more on translation in remote classes could also be attributed to a lack of motivation. Indeed, research has shown that teachers at university level felt distressed during the pandemic and that impacted their motivation during classes (Akour et al., 2020). The teachers may not have felt able to adhere strictly to their teaching principles due to psychological issues resulting from living in constant fear and under the stress of their changed teaching environment. The teaching profession is demanding and can be highly stressful even under normal circumstances. The psychological challenges stemming from the pandemic could well have made things worse for teachers' mental wellbeing. This study was conducted in one of the cities hardest hit by the deadly virus, which recorded the most deaths and infections across the country and thus had to remain in lockdown for a comparatively longer time than other areas. Therefore, it would come as no surprise if these considerable psychological factors affected the teachers' overall practice and influenced the decisions they made. In this regard, research has demonstrated that 'teachers experienced worse psychological health during the COVID-19 pandemic than the general population' (Ma et al., 2022, p.20).

It is also possible that the teachers drew upon their students' L1 in the virtual class in a bid to establish rapport with those they had never met in person. The students had never been on the university campus or seen their classmates, who appeared only as names on the screen. Should that have been the aim of using more translation, it would be in line with previous research, which has demonstrated that the L1 eases students into proceedings in the L2 class, building rapport and increasing their interest (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2017). Further, the teachers may have also taken their students' psychological state into consideration, especially amid a global health crisis, which could have heightened their anxiety levels in the L2 virtual class. As such, the decisions to maximise the use of translation in the ESAP class may have been made with the intention of creating a relaxed, comfortable atmosphere

to aid the learning process. Previous research has shown teachers tend to employ their students' L1 to reduce tension and create a relaxed atmosphere in their classes (e.g. Bukhari, 2017; Alrabah, Alotaibi & Aldaihani, 2016; Baeshin, 2016), perhaps since 'fear is the worst enemy of the successful exploration of new learning material (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p.173).

5.8 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter has been to discuss the findings of the study, taking each research question in turn, drawing on findings from the data and comparing them with the wider literature. It is fair to say the teachers and their students were poles apart in their attitudes towards the use of translation in ESAP-focused classes. That is, the overwhelming majority of the teaching staff in the ELC were in favour of an English-only ideology. In contrast, the students' attitudes towards translation were extremely positive. With respect to the teachers, part of the rationale for the popular support of an English-only approach stemmed from the discourse in relation to English language teaching and translation, in which the monolingual approach is held up as optimal and translation is viewed negatively. As a result, the teachers felt that accepting the use of L1 in their classes would defeat the very purpose of what they were trying to achieve – teaching English through English.

Nonetheless, the teachers reported some flexibility and entertaining the use of translation in the ESAP setting for various purposes. They maintained that it should only be a last resort after all else had failed. However, their attitudes and reported behaviour were not always consistent with what was observed in their classes, with translation being used in abundance in most classes, at times as the first option rather than as a last resort. Indeed, translation was for the most part the norm rather than the exception. According to the teachers, various factors led them to use translation, key among these being the students' proficiency level, the challenging nature of the ESAP material and the difficulties brought about in the wake of the shift to online instruction as a result of COVID-19. The benefits of translation in facilitating the acquisition of subject matter vocabulary, explaining grammar, aiding and checking comprehension, and setting up exercises were recognised by the teachers and the students alike. Furthermore, the teachers and their students were in agreement that there was a greater need for translation in the early stages of learning English. That is, the use of translation is believed to enable the students to make strides in learning English and without it their progress would be so much slower. Importantly, in using translation, the teachers and

students employed different ways and techniques, such as concurrent translation, the sandwich technique and bilingual dictionaries.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

Amid an ongoing, often heated debate surrounding the issue of whether the students' L1 should be used in ELT, this study has sought to elicit insights into teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual practice of translation in ESAP-focused settings in Saudi Arabia. To this end, the study employed a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative research methods to investigate the issue holistically. This was especially necessary in a context in which English language instruction is receiving increasing attention but research into the use of translation in language classes is still limited (see 1.1 and 2.3.2). This chapter highlights the main findings of this enquiry and addresses the limitations of the study before proposing suggestions and recommendations for future research.

6.1 Summary of the Main Findings

Translation is widespread in practice

The study revealed that translation was widely and at times heavily used in ESAP (medical, scientific, administrative/business) classes, within the context of the Saudi university, by teachers and students alike. It was particularly interesting to observe that translation was almost consistently the norm rather than the exception, despite apparent consensus among the teachers that the ideal language classroom is one in which English is taught through English only and the use of translation should be minimal – a last resort – or not called upon at any cost. Indeed, the teachers unanimously maintained that English should always be the dominant, preferably the only language used in the ESAP class, primarily citing lack of L2 exposure outside the class, the negative press surrounding translation and abundant support for English-only in the relevant theoretical discourse and fear of interference as reasons. Nonetheless, their practice revealed a reality that rarely reflected their favoured English-only ideology and the follow-up interviews offered further insights into why it was not always feasible to follow an English-only approach. Whether the teachers were always aware of their use of Arabic in practice is unclear, but they claimed a host of factors ultimately prevented them from creating the much-desired English-only environment in their respective classes (see 5.5.2 for more on why teachers may sometimes struggle to apply in practice what aligns with their ideologies).

Low L2 competence predominantly necessitates translation

One main factor which all the teachers claimed led to them reluctantly using translation in their practice was the students' perceived lack of English proficiency. The teaching staff used the adjectives 'poor' and 'weak' when referring to their students' L2 abilities and recounted that this was a major issue that sometimes led to translation being the first option rather than a last resort, reinforcing findings in relevant, wider research (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Tang, 2002). What is evident from the study findings is that the teachers appreciated the merits of translation in navigating what was described by one teacher (T2) as an 'unprecedented' situation in terms of the poor L2 competence in their classes. Moreover, they maintained they would not have drawn on their students' L1 at all had their L2 proficiency been 'good'.

Granted, it takes time and effort from both students and teachers in the language classroom for students to become 'good' at English. Both sets of participants – students and teachers – agreed that translation was most needed with low-level students and the aim was to reduce its use as they made progress. Indeed, the study revealed that the lower the level of L2 proficiency, the more popular translation was as far as the students were concerned. In other words, ESAP students at the lower-intermediate level of L2 proficiency were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they would be unable to learn English at this stage of their learning without using translation. Students at the same level were also more likely to agree that translation was useful in understanding grammar and memorising vocabulary, whilst elementary-level students believed they would experience anxiety if translation was banned in the ESAP class. The study found that the teachers were aware of the psychological aspect, reporting they used translation to ease students' fears and help them feel comfortable. This shows a recognition of the merits of translation as a tool that can provide security and comfort to students in the language classroom. Thus, translation may have become a prominent teaching method when classes were taught remotely during COVID-19, a time of considerable distress.

Translation is thought to facilitate the teaching and comprehension of complex ESAP vocabulary

Another main finding of the study is that the challenging nature of the ESAP material for teachers and students alike was considered to necessitate the use of translation. This was consistently brought up by the teacher and student participants. There seems to be a

consensus that teaching ESAP material requires a degree of specialist knowledge in a range of disciplines. This means that even high L2 competence is unlikely to be sufficient to teach ESAP and the lack of ESAP training for teachers, which is almost non-existent, complicates matters further as far as teachers are concerned (extensively discussed in 5.5). The teachers who took part in this enquiry reported having sometimes felt underprepared due to a lack of subject matter knowledge needed to handle the ESAP content they were teaching and thus they had to turn to translation to overcome the difficulties they faced in their practice.

The views expressed were supported and evidenced across the board throughout the classroom observations and insights elicited in the follow-up interviews. That is, translation was used consistently and teachers reported they relied on it when dealing with subject matter terminology. Indeed, both sets of participants highlighted discipline-specific terminology, an essential part of their ESAP lessons, as the number one area in which the use of translation was essential. The findings revealed that the teachers' main concern regarding ESAP terminology was that their students fully comprehend the precise meaning of a technical term rather than simply getting the gist, which could potentially have been achieved through explanation in the L2. To that end, they immediately translated into Arabic when they encountered a technical term or encouraged their students to look up the meaning in a bilingual dictionary if they could not instantly give it in Arabic. This was an approach that the students approved of; indeed, the vast majority of the student participants (94.9%) who responded to the survey agreed or strongly agreed that translation helped them understand specialised vocabulary. Moreover, they reported that they felt translation was 'crucial' to help them understand discipline-specific vocabulary and it helped them comprehend a technical term 'better'. In addition, the study found that bilingual dictionaries were highly popular amongst the students, who also reported that their teachers encouraged them to consult a bilingual dictionary when they encountered difficulty comprehending a term.

However, it was notable in the observations that there were instances of the teachers translating words that were not discipline-specific. These included vocabulary items that were related to the metalinguistic lexicon, in addition to general and academic terminology. As the teachers never alluded to using translation to address other types of vocabulary in the interviews, this demonstrates the complex relationship between what teachers actually do and what they believe and report. Indeed, for teachers to under-report or underestimate their

use of L1 is not unheard of. One can only speculate as to why this is the case, but previous, relevant research (e.g. Cameron, 2001; Edstrom, 2006; Wilden & Porsch, 2020) has shown that teachers may switch to the L1 for reasons such as fear of making mistakes due to their own limited L2 ability, tiredness or sheer laziness. It is important not to overlook the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to a sudden, unplanned shift to online instruction, leading to another main finding discussed below.

Teaching remotely saw the maximal use of translation

The study, drawing on self-reports from the teaching staff and students on this particular issue, found that the COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact on proceedings inside the ESAP class, which moved online, and in turn the teachers' choice of language. The faculty members spoke of feelings of frustration due to a lack of interaction, participation and engagement in their digital classes. Further, they lamented the lack of body language and facial expressions as they could not see their students during online lessons. This added to the tricky challenges faced due to the COVID-19 pandemic and the swift, unplanned transition to an alternative, remote mode of teaching.

When the classes were too quiet for the teachers' liking, they suspected it may have been due to a lack of comprehension, stemming from poor L2 competence. According to some teachers, this gave rise to a sense of guilt that whatever message they were trying to get across was not being properly conveyed. With students' comprehension understandably high on the teachers' list of priorities, translation was reportedly used to achieve their in-class aims; they deemed it essential to ensure their message was effectively conveyed and it alleviated their sense of guilt and enhanced the classroom atmosphere. The findings also showed that the teachers drew upon their students' L1 to address technical issues and obstacles arising from the enforced transition to digital learning, such as students lacking a microphone and thus being unable to participate.

Moreover, the findings revealed that changes to teaching made because of the COVID-19 pandemic left teachers under severe time pressures that could not have been anticipated. The pandemic was in full swing when the data collection part of this enquiry was carried out. As part of the measures introduced, class times were reduced and there was a late announcement that the academic term would end six weeks earlier than initially scheduled across all Saudi Arabian universities. These were top-down decisions that purported to mitigate the

psychological effects of the global health crisis, but the teachers felt their practice was significantly impacted.

They revealed that one decision they made in reaction to an ever-changing situation was to rely more on translation to 'finish quicker' and cover the considerable amount of challenging material within tight time constraints. However, there was also a consensus amongst the teachers that translation was a time-efficient practice even under normal circumstances. That is, they believed translation could ensure efficient time management due to its efficacy in moving things on in the class, particularly when encountering technical terms or giving instructions (e.g. setting up activities). The teaching staff preferred to translate their instructions, not only for reasons of time but also to ensure the students fully understood what they needed to do.

Teachers believe translation facilitates L2 grammar acquisition

Finally, translation was a popular resource when it came to explaining grammar; the teachers reported they found drawing similarities and pointing out differences between the grammar of the two languages conducive to understanding. The teachers spoke of how the students could take advantage of familiarity and their L2 grammar acquisition was facilitated when they could relate the structure to the grammar in their L1. The benefit of translation in facilitating L2 grammar acquisition was also recognised by most of the students, with 88.1% agreeing or strongly agreeing that translation helped them understand grammatical rules better.

6.2 Study Contributions

The findings of this enquiry provide research-based evidence that can make a valuable contribution to the body of work on the use of translation, in this case specifically in ESAP-focused settings, an area which suffers from a notable dearth of empirical research in Saudi Arabian pedagogical contexts and elsewhere. More widely, the findings of this study contribute to the ongoing debate concerning the use of students' L1 in English language classrooms. This is at a time when the academic climate is changing with growing recognition of the merits of bilingual teaching, coupled with the use of translation in ELT re-emerging as a topic of increased focus in research and practice. The results of this enquiry can inform and add to the discussion and it is especially hoped that it will help re-establish a much-needed dialogue between translation studies and ELT as two fields of enquiry that have much in common but have scarcely communicated in recent times. The findings of this

study, which show that the use of translation was quite popular – with both teachers and students – and widespread, might contribute to reigniting interest in that dialogue actively taking place.

One key feature of this study is that it has approached investigating the use of translation in ESAP in a holistic fashion, ensuring insights were sought from both the teachers and students as providing the two indispensable perspectives in the study of language classrooms. Disregarding either would be an obstacle to gaining an accurate reflection of the prevailing status quo in a particular context. While most relevant research (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013; Liao, 2006) has only attempted to gauge attitudes towards the use of translation in ELT settings, this research has also examined the reasons for using translation, the purposes for which it is used and how it is used. More importantly, this was achieved through a combination of methods to capture a picture of the context and phenomenon that is rich in both breadth and depth. In doing so, this study fills a methodological gap as no previous research to the best of my knowledge has addressed the issue of translation in ESAP-focused environments as holistically as this. In addition, the study offers valuable insights into teachers' and students' attitudes and practices in a context where the focus on subject matter knowledge is arguably as significant as that on English language learning. A further important contribution of this study is that it is the first known research to have explored the use of translation in virtual ESAP classes, given that remote teaching was the norm when this enquiry was taking place due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

6.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

A major challenge of this study relates to the design and procedures for gathering data. As the research was carried out over the course of an academic year ravaged by the pandemic, bringing in-person teaching to a complete halt, all stages of data collection had to be carried out at a distance. Thus, although I made the trip to Saudi Arabia, where this research took place, and was residing less than 10 miles away from the host university in Saudi, it was not possible to interact other than virtually. The pandemic thus gave rise to novel challenges that had to be met, resulting in major adaptations to the design and implementation. The scale of the challenges was felt as early as the stage of recruiting participants. The pilot study, which I intended to carry out in person months before the large-scale enquiry, would have been an ideal opportunity to visit the research site and meet and speak to possible recruits about my research. As direct access to potential participants was no longer feasible due to the COVID-

19 restrictions, I had to rely on the ELC administration to spread the word among faculty members. Assistance from the teaching staff at the ELC was then required to encourage students to take part in the study, completing a questionnaire and coming forward for a follow-up interview.

While those necessary, alternative arrangements resulted in a feasible research design, they were also a form of limitation in themselves. The fact that I had to rely upon others to recruit for my study rather than fully supervise the process myself is likely to have had an impact on certain issues related to participant recruitment. That is, it is possible that some teachers were less proactive than others in encouraging their students to participate in this study. Members of the target population may also have been anxious about speaking to or trusting someone they had never met or spoken to before (i.e. me). The ELC and its academic staff were tremendously helpful but being aware of the ethics underpinning my research and the difficult circumstances under which this enquiry was being carried out, I felt I could not continue to ask people for more of their time. The increased stress, fear and anxiety felt by everyone due to the COVID-19 pandemic, especially before vaccines became available, also cannot be overlooked as it may have affected people's interest and motivation in taking part. In particular, they may have found life too stressful or perhaps too hectic to take part given they were working within much tighter time constraints than usual. Thus, this research would likely have benefited from a higher response rate in normal times. In spite of these difficulties, 258 students and 22 teaching staff members took part in this study, thereby allowing the positive outcome of this inquiry being an early original contribution as far as online learning is concerned.

Another limitation of this study relates to the nature of the classroom observations and the inability to observe the students since they always had their cameras off. Also, unless they were called on or wished to participate, they were almost always on mute. The ELC faculty and their students had their own challenges, which were similar in nature; the former could not see their students, whom they had never met, and the latter found themselves in a virtual class with classmates and teachers they had never met in an actual classroom before. This is likely to have contributed to a different dynamic in terms of the teacher-student relationship, not least because of the limited opportunities for interaction. Indeed, the teachers believed this was an 'electronic wall' that negatively affected interaction and engagement in their online classes, as highlighted and discussed extensively in Chapters 4 and 5. From the

research perspective also, being in a bricks-and-mortar class and observing events and individuals first-hand would have been advantageous; it might have yielded richer data. Moreover, in future, studies in this field might enhance observation data by including stimulated recall to gain a deeper understanding of why translation is used at a particular point during the class. This could also allow comparison and contrast between the purposes identified by the researcher and those reported by the individuals observed.

Furthermore, this research was constrained in that it only involved male participants due to education being segregated in Saudi Arabia. The strict gender segregation policy at the research site meant a male researcher could not have access to female participants. As such, caution is necessary when interpreting the results of this enquiry and trying to extrapolate to the wider context as they only represent and apply to one section of the institution. A comparable study undertaken at the female-only campus of the ELC could yield different results and shed further light on the topic. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that Saudi Arabia is going through a period of reform and remarkable transformation guided by a vision aimed at opening up an extremely conservative society. Recent social reforms have seen gender segregation end in different sectors across the country. As such, single-sex campuses may soon become a thing of the past; future studies could benefit from this.

Another limitation of the study is that it only involved ESAP participants from one university in Saudi Arabia. Future research could be enriched by increasing the sample size and attempting to recruit a diverse representation of ESAP teachers and students from different contexts within or outwith Saudi Arabia. In addition, incorporating the perceptions of policymakers and ELC officials could well provide a broader picture of the status and future of L1 use in ESAP pedagogy as Arabic is not banned at the ELC, unlike in other leading domestic and neighbouring universities where the use of Arabic in English classes is strictly forbidden (Bukhari, 2017; Baeshin, 2016; Alsuhaibani, 2015). Further research could also compare the perceptions of ESAP students from institutions that ban the use of L1 and those that do not. Investigating students' perceptions of how a particular policy affects their ESAP learning and overall L2 progress might also generate interesting data.

Finally, this study was constrained in terms of time. Saudi Arabian researchers who are sponsored by their respective offshore cultural bureaus (the Saudi Arabia Cultural Bureau in the UK in this case) are only allowed a three-month data collection period. This, along with the decision to end the second term of the academic year 2021 six weeks earlier than planned,

meant all data for this study were collected over a much more restricted period than initially intended and hoped for. In particular, ending the term early affected recruitment for the follow-up interviews as this stage of data gathering coincided with the final exams, which were also brought forward. Thus, even though a good number of students initially expressed an interest in taking part, only six were available and willing to participate after the exam period, resulting in a small amount of representation of students' views. In conclusion, although every effort was made to ensure data collection was as robust as possible, such factors, which were unfortunate and impossible to anticipate and prepare for, might have taken their toll on the quantity and quality of the data collected.

Coda

How COVID-19 affected this research: A reflective account

When I touched down at Manchester International Airport on 28 September 2019, less than a week before starting my PhD studies at Glasgow University, I was filled with excitement and enthusiasm as I felt I had so much to look forward to. At the same time, I also anticipated an experience fraught with challenges throughout and I was determined to put in the work and effort to handle and overcome them. The PhD is the highest academic award one can obtain in most academic fields and arguably the most challenging academic endeavour. What I could not have imagined was that the world would be overtaken by an unprecedented tragedy and face a future shrouded with doom, fear, isolation, disruption, quarantine and uncertainty. On 11 March 2020, the World Health Organisation (WHO) issued a statement declaring a deadly virus, the novel coronavirus (COVID-19), having been 'deeply concerned both by the alarming levels of spread and severity' in the weeks prior. This entailed the need to ring 'the alarm bell loud and clear'. Thus, we were made aware of the global pandemic. Nowhere, including the UK and Saudi Arabia, was immune to the fast-spreading virus, which originated in China and spread to the rest of the world in the space of three months.

Suddenly, the PhD I had signed up for began to look completely different and so did life in general. The normally busy streets were virtually deserted and people began avoiding each other as every breath had suddenly become a threat. The global health crisis had severe effects on all aspects and walks of life as it grabbed the world by the throat; of course, education and academia were not exempt. This study thus experienced significant disruptions, akin to plenty of others in the wider research community; in a survey gauging the impacts of the pandemic, 58% of UK researchers reported that 'COVID-19 had made it impossible to do the research they planned' (UKRI, 2021).

Prior to the announcement of the pandemic, I spent the early months of 2020 designing a pilot study, key to successful data collection, which I intended to carry out in person at the research site in Saudi Arabia in March and April 2020. Arrangements were made for the pilot study to take place in conditions almost identical to those chosen for the main study, which I aimed to carry out almost 10 months later. Ethics approval and permission to access the site were sought and obtained from Glasgow University and the Saudi University under investigation. However, the brief visit to my home country in March 2020 ended up being nothing short of a nightmare.

Approaching Jeddah airport on a Saudi flight on 11 March, we were informed a fellow passenger was showing symptoms of COVID-19. Shortly after, the pilot delivered the news that while we had been airborne, Saudi Arabia had announced a total lockdown and suspension of travel. When we landed on Saudi territory, the sick passenger was swiftly evacuated and the rest of us on board were told we were going nowhere. The authorities had taken the decision to impose a 14-day hotel quarantine on those on the same flight as a sick passenger. At the time, quarantine was almost unheard of and the announcement evoked fear and a sense of panic. Following a three-hour long, stressful wait at the airport, which included temperature checks and temporary confiscation of our luggage, we were taken to a hotel in Makkah, where we quarantined in separate rooms for the full 14 days. While we were in quarantine, the number of cases outside increased dramatically. Living in constant distress and fear for our lives, we were scheduled for our first-ever swab a week into quarantine. Discharge the following week depended on the results of the test, which would themselves take a week.

I came out of quarantine free of COVID-19 late in March 2020, but the virus remained and so did the strict measures put in place, including a nationwide lockdown and the suspension of education at all levels. Above all, there were high levels of anxiety, stress and constant fear for life. As I stepped out of the hotel, the town where I was born and grew up looked strikingly unfamiliar. The deserted streets and masses of key workers wearing masks and avoiding contact made me realise it was time to come to terms with the fact that normal life was a thing of the past. A much harder reality to accept was being unable to hug my family members when I finally got home, having not seen them in eight months. Guidance from the health authorities in Saudi Arabia recommended I still self-isolate at home for another week as a precaution.

The acute crisis meant that the pilot study had to be abandoned and suddenly there was uncertainty surrounding the entire future of the project. The lack of clarity stemming from dealing with the mystery virus cast further doubts as to what lay ahead. This was further complicated by the sheer volume of infodemic spreading around the deadly virus. What was becoming clearer day in and day out was that the severity of the virus required more research and greater caution; certainly, it was not going anywhere anytime soon. The advice about 'washing your hands with hot water the length of singing happy birthday twice', as advised by Boris Johnson, then UK prime minister, was unlikely to do much. The future looked ever

bleaker. In the UK, the situation was likened to wartime, prompting the late Queen Elizabeth II to address the nation, a very rare event, which she said reminded her of the Second World War (BBC, 2020).

From March 2020 on, I found myself, like almost everyone else, with many questions that no one could answer. Key among these was whether I would be able to see out the PhD research I had only embarked on six months ago. There was no certainty about when educational institutions would reopen, let alone when the rapidly spreading virus would abate. I was also in the dark about when or if I could return to the UK.

At the time of writing, October 2022, there are still reports of a possible COVID-19 winter wave in the UK, with infection levels rising due to the spread of new variants. Saudi Arabia has also confirmed an increase in cases with an emerging variant of COVID-19 called the *XBB subvariant of Omicron*. I am yet to return to the UK as it is only permitted to board a flight departing from Saudi Arabia if you have been fully vaccinated, having received all three jabs.

It was only in September 2020 that it became clear teaching in Saudi Arabia would resume virtually. With COVID-19 cases on the rise and vaccinations still only a prospect on the horizon, it looked as though online learning would be the norm for the foreseeable future. As I had not considered such disruptions in my original study design, the shift to teaching at a distance gave rise to uncertainty concerning the viability of my fieldwork plans. Adapting to the ever-changing situation became inevitable and so I devised alternative plans to collect data remotely. However, there were doubts about whether the modified methods would capture the events of interest and fulfil the study aims effectively. I also had concerns regarding access to participants and whether they would have time to take part in the study given the added responsibilities at the personal level at home and in the virtual workplace. Moreover, there were serious concerns about the repercussions for mental health that could not be overlooked as the city where this research was carried out was the city hit hardest by the deadly virus in Saudi Arabia, recording the highest infection rates and deaths. The validity of this concern is borne out by previous pandemic-related research that found evidence of outbreaks negatively affecting mental health:

> If we look at the Sars outbreak in 2003, we know there is evidence there that there were increased rates of anxiety, increased rates of depression and posttraumatic stress

and, in some groups, there were also increased rates of suicide. (Professor Rory O'Connor, cited in Tanner, 2020)

Although the pilot study went well, mainly providing a flavour of what to expect as far as the main study was concerned, the sources of worry alluded to turned out to be justified and well-founded. There were disruptions throughout the period set for the web-based fieldwork; these concerned participant recruitment and my personal life for the most part and could not be anticipated in advance. As already mentioned, relying on the ELC and its teaching staff to spread the message in the recruitment process resulted in an underwhelming response, despite their considerable efforts, particularly in terms of interviewing the student participants. The students will have had their reasons, perhaps unease about being interviewed by an individual they had never met, a lack of internet connectivity or the necessary technological equipment at home, or simply a lack of interest.

All of these would be understandable, but external factors could well have played a part, specifically related to the Saudi Arabian authorities' decision to bring the academic term to a close six weeks earlier than initially planned. This meant that the time I set for conducting the interviews would coincide with the students sitting their final exams, which would explain why I did not hear back from a number of potential participants who initially showed an interest. Moreover, the month of Ramadan began shortly after the students finished their exams. In this period of fasting, Muslims are on tight schedules and prioritise religious rituals: worldly matters take a back seat. Ultimately, only six students and nine teaching staff came forward for an interview.

On a personal level, my father contracted the virus while I was collecting data remotely and his health deteriorated shortly after, which meant he needed to be taken into the ICU at the Security Forces Hospital in Makkah. With the deadly virus still in full swing and a partial lockdown in place, we had to rely on a nurse answering the phone so we could check on my father's health, an ordeal which lasted for a week. It was utterly traumatic, but I chose to carry on collecting data and prepare for a fast-approaching annual review. Thankfully, in the end, my father beat his invisible assailant and this study did likewise.

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Appendix A. Permissions and Forms

A. Site permission to collect data

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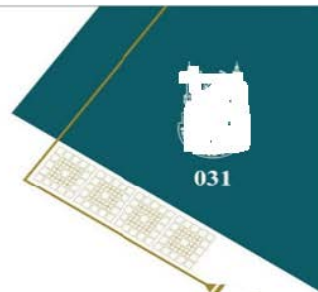
Site permission letter

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to confirm that I as the Director of the English Language Center at ' University would be pleased to facilitate and assist Mr. Meshari Alsuwayhiri to collect his data at our site. Based on my review of his proposed research, I give permission for him to conduct the study entitled *The use of translation in ESP teaching and learning* at the English Language Centre at ' University. The participant's recruitment and data collection will occur between 01/01/2021 and 31/04/2021.

As part of this study, I authorize the researcher to recruit participants and to conduct the study.

The Director of the English Language Centre

PhD in Applied Linguistics, ELT

Date: 25. 11.2020

الرقم: _____ التاريخ: _____ المشفوعات: _____

B. Consent to participation and use of data forms

University of Glasgow

CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA
University of Glasgow, College of Arts Research Ethics Committee

I understand that Meshari Alsuwayhiri is collecting data in the form of interview for use in an academic research project at the University of Glasgow.
I have read and understood the study information sheet. I have had the time and opportunity to consider the information. I have been able to ask questions I might have and had these answered satisfactorily.

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:
- My participation is entirely voluntary. I can withdraw from the study at any time up until data analysis commences, May 1 of 2021. I do not have to give a reason for why I no longer want to take part and I will not be penalised for my decision to withdraw. All data I contributed will consequently be destroyed.
- The interview will be recorded unless I refuse. A written transcript of the interview will be produced and analysed for the purposes of the research. I will be given the opportunity to check the transcript to verify accuracy and request to correct any errors or inaccuracies. I may also ask to add, edit or remove any information directly linked to my interview responses.
- I have the right to decline to answer any particular question or questions or terminate the interview at any time without having to provide a reason.
- I may be quoted directly without my name being disclosed and a pseudonym will be used.
- The recordings will be treated as confidential and kept in secure institutional storage until the end of the study, during which access to the recordings will be limited to the researcher and his named supervisors.
- The anonymised data will be retained in secure institutional storage for up to ten years following the close of the study for use in future academic research. Consent forms will also be kept for record purposes.
- The anonymised data may be used in future publications, both print and online.
- I do not expect any direct benefits from taking part in this study.
- I am free to contact the researcher with any questions I may have in the future.

Signed by the contributor: _____   Date:

Researcher's name and email contact:
Meshari Alsuwayhiri,

Supervisor's name and email contact:
Prof Wendy Anderson, wendy.anderson@glasgow.ac.uk
Dr Carole Macdiarmid, carole.macdiarmid@glasgow.ac.uk

Department address:
School of Critical Studies
University of Glasgow
5 University Gardens
Glasgow G12 8QQ

University of Glasgow

CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA
University of Glasgow, College of Arts Research Ethics Committee

I understand that Meshari Alsuwayhiri is collecting data in the form of classroom observation for use in an academic research project at the University of Glasgow.
I have read and understood the study information sheet. I have had the time and opportunity to consider the information. I have been able to ask questions I might have and had these answered satisfactorily.

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:
- My participation is entirely voluntary. I can withdraw from the study at any time up until data analysis commences, May 1 of 2021. I do not have to give a reason for why I no longer want to take part and I will not be penalised for my decision to withdraw. All data I contributed will consequently be destroyed.
- I have the right to refuse to be observed or request the observation ceases at any time without being obliged to explain my decision. If that happens, all information gathered about my participation up to that point will be destroyed and no further information will be gathered.
- The data collected about me during observation will be analysed by the researcher for the purposes of the research and will only be accessible to the researcher and his named supervisors.
- I may be quoted directly without my name being disclosed and a pseudonym will be used.
- The anonymised data will be treated as confidential and retained in secure institutional storage for up to ten years following the close of the study for use in future academic research. Consent forms will also be kept for record purposes.
- The anonymised data may be used in future publications, both print and online.
- I do not expect any direct benefits from taking part in this study.
- I am free to contact the researcher with any questions I may have in the future.

Signed by the contributor: _____   Date:

Researcher's name and email contact:
Meshari Alsuwayhiri,

Supervisor's name and email contact:
Prof Wendy Anderson, wendy.anderson@glasgow.ac.uk
Dr Carole Macdiarmid, carole.macdiarmid@glasgow.ac.uk

Department address:
School of Critical Studies
University of Glasgow
5 University Gardens
Glasgow G12 8QQ

University of Glasgow

CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA
University of Glasgow, College of Arts Research Ethics Committee

I would like to invite you to take part in this research study about the use of translation in English for Specific Purposes teaching and learning by completing this **online questionnaire**. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can withdraw at any time and you do not have to give a reason. You have been identified as a potential participant because of your involvement in English for Specific Purposes classes during this academic semester. This questionnaire can be completed anonymously and all data collected will be treated with confidentiality and used for research purposes only. This study will take approximately **15 minutes.**

If you have any questions or require further information about this study, please feel free to contact me by email. You may also contact my supervisors (see contact details below)

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:
- My participation is entirely voluntary and I can withdraw from this online study at any time without having to explain my decision.
- My participation is anonymous and all data are treated as confidential.
- I have the right to leave any particular question or questions unanswered.
- Data collected during the study will be analysed by the researcher for the purposes of the research and will only be accessible to the researcher and his named supervisors.
- The anonymised data will be treated as confidential and retained in secure institutional storage for up to ten years following the completion of the study for use in future academic research. Consent information will also be kept for record purposes.
- The anonymised data may be used in future publications, both print and online.
- I do not expect any direct benefits from taking part in this study.
- I am free to contact the researcher with any questions I may have in the future.

☐ Please tick this box to indicate that you have read the above and give consent to participating in the above described research

---

Researcher's name and email contact:
Meshari Alsuwayhiri,

Supervisor's name and email contact:
Prof Wendy Anderson, wendy.anderson@glasgow.ac.uk
Dr Carole Macdiarmid, carole.macdiarmid@glasgow.ac.uk

Department address:
School of Critical Studies
University of Glasgow
5 University Gardens
Glasgow G12 8QQ

Appendix B. Teachers' Survey

	Item
1	**Using translation is essential to make students comfortable and less anxious in the classroom**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
2	**Using translation is essential in ESAP teaching**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
3	**Using translation helps me with my class management**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
4	**Using translation helps save time in the classroom**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
5	**Using translation helps students understand new vocabulary**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
6	**Using translation is essential when explaining specialised vocabulary (e.g., medical, business, and scientific terms)**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
7	**English should be the only language used in the ESAP classroom**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
8	**Using translation helps students understand grammar rules better.**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree

9	**Students will produce Arabic-style English if they are allowed to use translation**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
10	**I feel guilty if I allow translation in the classroom**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
11	**Students should be allowed to use translation in ESAP classes**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
12	**Translation activities should be included in the ESAP teaching course books**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
13	**Translation is for professional translators only**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
14	**Translation is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking)**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
15	**Translation is essential to explain cultural terms and references**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
16	**My students enjoy lessons more when translation is used**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
17	**Using translation helps students better understand listening passages**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree

18   When teaching online, translation becomes almost necessary in ESAP classes
Strongly agree
Agree
Neither agree nor disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

19   I find translation very useful when explaining informal and colloquial expressions
Strongly agree
Agree
Neither agree nor disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

20   Using translation is essential to explain English idioms and phrases
Strongly agree
Agree
Neither agree nor disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

21   Arabic is completely banned in my ESAP classes
Strongly agree
Agree
Neither agree nor disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

22   Translating to Arabic is needed to explain exams instructions better
Strongly agree
Agree
Neither agree nor disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Appendix C. Students' Survey

	Item
1	**Using translation helps me understand English grammar rules better**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
2	**I still translate mentally even when I try to think in English**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
3	**Using translation helps me speak English**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
4	**Using translation helps me memorise English vocabulary**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
5	**Using translation helps me understand specialised terms better**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
6	**Using translation helps me write English composition**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
7	**Using translation helps me make progress in learning English**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
8	**Using translation helps students understand grammar rules better.**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
9	**Using translation helps me understand specialised reading texts**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree

10	**Arabic translation is essential to understand exam instructions**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
11	**The more difficult the English assignments are the more I depend on translation**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
12	**Using translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
13	**Using translation helps me learn English idioms and phrases**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
14	**I will produce Arabic-style English if I translate from Arabic**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
15	**At this stage of learning I cannot learn English without translation**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
16	**I feel anxious in the classroom if translation is not allowed**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
17	**Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
18	**Translation helps me understand cultural references better**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree
19	**Assignments and in-class activities that require me to translate contribute to my language learning**
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

20	**Using translation helps me understand listening passages better**

Strongly agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

21	**I use translation more in online classes compared to in-person classes**

Strongly agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

22	**Translation is for professional translators only**

Strongly agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

23	**I check the Arabic translation for every specialised term I encounter**

Strongly agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

24	**Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books**

Strongly agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

Appendix D. Interview Questions (Teachers)

- Do you use translation? Why or why not?

- Do you allow your students to use translation? Why or why not?

- Do you think the use of translation is determined by the domain of ESAP you're teaching?

- Where do you find yourself using translation?

- Has teaching online changed things with regards to the use of translation in class compared to that in person? If so, how?

Appendix E. Interview Questions (Students)

- Do you use translation in learning medical/scientific/business English? Why or why not?

- Does your teacher use translation?

- How do you feel when your teacher uses translation?

- When do you prefer your teacher to use translation?

- Does your teacher allow translation in your class?

- When do you use translation in your English class?

Appendix F. Classroom Observation Form

Stage /timing/ interaction (e.g. T to St/whole class/pair work/ individual)	T use of Translation	Ss use of Translation	Notes

Appendix G. Sample Teacher Interview

Researcher: Do you use translation? Why or why not?

Teacher: I don't use it much. I try to stay away from it as much as I can because I know students spend 16 hours a week with us to get exposed to as much English as possible. Because I know the environment, and I always tell them when you leave me after that 16 hours a week and you go on a holiday for two weeks or two days, there's a possibility you don't use the language with your family or friends. So, I always try to tell them in the first 2 weeks that I prefer that most of the time... 99% if you can immerse yourself in the language. But when it comes to ESP sometimes they do get stuck with specific words like words related to bacteria, or words related to medical procedures... even though I know I don't have the background of the language to use it as a specific context, I try to tell them maybe if you get stuck with this word you can take one bit of your time to look it up… they use apps for bilingual dictionary… sometimes they race and one of them usually finds it quickly… obviously the medium of teaching now is blackboard… online… they write the word in Arabic on the chat and others pick it up straight away… and I ask if they got the meaning now and I move on.

Researcher: Do you allow your students to use translation? Do you give them the freedom?

Teacher: There are students who don't have background to the English language when they come esp this year there was no placement test so they were mixed. I have this student who's an excellent listener but when he speaks, he accidently forgets himself and switches to Arabic and I give him the freedom to express himself in Arabic… and then after he finishes, I tell him can you say it now in English… but it doesn't happen much.

Researcher: So you're not strongly against it but you don't prefer it much?

Teacher: I'm not strongly against it but I'd suggest to try to stay away from it as much as possible… but if there's a need then go ahead and jump in to translate the word and then go back quickly to the medium of instruction which is English.

Researcher: So is it a last resort?

Teacher: Yeah… yeah but it's a tool that you have which is very powerful in terms of ESP. Sometimes I show students images of the large intestine and the small intestine… they see

it visually and understand the word… but sometimes I wish I could say it in Arabic… so it's something that's very useful if you have it in your pocket. But at the same time sometimes I say thank God I don't know much Arabic but I'd have probably forgotten myself and just chosen Arabic for explaining a term.

Researcher: Where do you find yourself using translation?

Teacher: Writing… when I was explaining how you write an essay… I translated words such introduction, the main idea… but when it comes to the nitty gritty details of writing there was no way I could go deeper in Arabic being a non-native. I do use it in grammar and translate *the* to (*al altaaref*)… so I tell them you can't use (the) al altareef for islands like Indonesia… you can't say the Indonesia as opposed to concepts like the Bahamas and the Caribbean... so I basically point out the difference between the two languages and it's helpful.

Researcher: So would you use Arabic more if you had more command of the language seeing you mentioned you couldn't go deeper when explaining writing in Arabic?

Teacher: I ask myself the same question but probably not because Arabic is a different language in terms of expression… how you express yourself and how your express your emotions whereas writing in English is like a linear process… sentence one and two are kind of linked and the ideas are carried over the sentences and you just use bridge words to link them.

Researcher: Difference in using translation across the different domains of ESP?

Teacher: There's definitely a difference yes… it's more related to my background in the subject… for example, I was more confident using translation when teaching science as I have more background compared to business terminology. But I use more translation when teaching medicine.

Researcher: Difference in use of translation when teaching online compared to in person?

Teacher: I think I use more translation in face-to-face classes… because during the pandemic we've lost the facial expressions of the students. When we're in face-to-face classes, we have the book and I can explain and ask them if they got it… but when teaching online, I use images to make sure they understood a word.

Appendix H. Sample Student Interview

<div dir="rtl">

هل تستخدم الترجمة في الإنجليزية الطبية؟

نعم أستخدم الترجمة الطبية لأنه أسهل لحفظ المعلومة والفهم وتوصيلها لنفسي.. أستوعبها أكثر من الإنجليزية.. فلازم أستخدم الترجمة..

</div>

Researcher: Do you use translation? Why?

Student: I do [use translation] because it facilitates understanding and memorising. Understanding a medical term is made easier through translation as opposed to through English. I feel like I have to use translation.

<div dir="rtl">

هل الدكتور يستخدمها؟ هل يترجملكم؟ هل يرشدكم لقواميس؟

من جهة الدكتور لكن قليل.. مو بالحجم الهائل لأن الدكتور مو عربي غير كلمات بسيطة يستخدمها.. لكن يطلب من الطلاب معنى الكلمة بالعربي وكان أسلوبه ممتاز.. كان الطلاب يتفاعلوا معاه.. كانت تستخدم للمصطلحات الصعبة.. ممكن نقول مثال (توكسيك – جرثومة المعدة).. أو كلمة فيفرحمى

</div>

Researcher: Does your teacher use translation?

Student: Not so much. My teacher isn't Arab, his native language isn't Arabic. He only knows a few Arabic words. But he does ask students to provide Arabic translation for a word, for example. His method was excellent as students were interacting. He used translation to explain difficult terminology such as (helicobacter pylori) and fever.

<div dir="rtl">

إحساسك لمن الدكتور يستخدمها؟ إيجابي؟ سلبي؟

شعوري إيجابي جدًا لمن يكون استخدام الترجمة قليل.. لكن اذا كثرت الترجمة ما حتستفيد..

</div>

Researcher: How do you feel when your teacher uses translation?

Student: It's a positive feeling when it's a balanced use of translation as too much of it won't be beneficial.

<div dir="rtl">

هل في مواطن مفروض تكون الترجمة حاضرة؟

ما أعتقد في مواطن أخرى باستثناء الكلمات التخصصية أو كلمة جديدة ليست شائعة.. أما بقية الكلمات فالعربية ماتفيدنا.. ولو تكلم بالعربي حنتورط في المواد الثانية لأن كلها بالإنجليزي.. يعني مفيدة الترجمة في الكلمات اللي مالها مرادف ويكون أصلها لاتيني..

</div>

Researcher: Where do you think translation should be used?

Student: I can't think of any situation other than with specialised terminology, or new and uncommon words. We won't need to know (every) other word in Arabic as this would negatively impact us with other modules being taught in English. So, translation is only helpful where a word doesn't have synonyms in English, or where a word is originally Latin.

هل لمن تسمع هل تترجم فمخك؟ والا تفكر بالانجليزي؟

والله أسلوبي إني تعلمت إن الترجمة لكل كلمة شيء خاطئ.. لكن في البداية كنت أترجم.. ومع الوقت تحسنت وماسرت أحتاجها..

Researcher: Do you translate mentally, or do you only think in English?

Student: I was taught that translating every word you come across is the wrong approach. However, I still translated every word. As I'd improved with time, I no longer needed translation. I think only weak students resort to translation quite a lot.

هل تحس لو كان التعليم حضوري حيكون في فرق في استخدامك للترجمة؟ زي استخدام الديكشنري؟

أعتقد التعليم عن بعد يعطي الطالب أريحية أكثر في استخدام الترجمة لأن الدكتور ما يشوفه.. عكس الحضوري ممكن مافي مجال تهرب.. رغم إني مؤيد الحضور في الإنجليزي لأنه مفيد أكثر..

Researcher: How has online teaching affected your use of translation?

Student: I think students are more comfortable using translation in online learning as the teacher can't see them, in contrast to in-person classes where you can't hide. But I generally think it all depends on the student's proficiency level. For some students, translation is essential as it allow them to get what they want. Others don't prefer it. But translation is widely used amongst students, and it's viewed positively.

Appendix I. Sample Transcription of Classroom Observation

T: Okay. I just started recording this session, so your classmates can watch it anytime later and you also can review and watch the recording anytime you want.

T   Okay.

T   Let's start Unit 2: In and around the hospitals. In and around the hospitals. As you can see here, we have some tools and equipment that you can find in hospital. Let's name these equipment and let's figure out for what do we use these equipment.

T   The first picture, picture (a), what is it? It's called ECG. باختصار، باختصار لكن...اختصار Electrocardiography, electrocardiography, هذا يرمز الى هذه الكلمة اللي هي... electrocardiography. This device or this equipment is used to monitor the heart rate, to monitor the heart rate, لمتابعة نبضات القلب.

T   What about the second picture, (b)? What do you think it is? Picture number (b). What do you think? Picture (b), (b)... Microscope. Yes. We use it... We use it to examine tissues and samples. Tissues and samples. We use the microscope to examine tissues and samples.

T   What about number (c)? This device! For blood, yes Abdulrauf. We call it centrifuge, centrifuge, centrifuge. You can zoom the page in order to see the vocabulary. Centrifuge. This equipment is used in haematology, بقسم الدم, in order to separate the blood components. For example, the white blood cells. We can separate it from the blood. And we can separate the red cells also. So, this device will separate the blood components مكونات الدم، هذا الجهاز يفصل مكونات الدم. Centrifuge.

T   And then picture (d). This is a scale. Yes, Abdulrauf, Abdullah, Ruwayyed, Scale, to measure things. Scale, ميزان.

T   And then (e), picture (e). Exercise machine. Exercise machine. جهاز للتمارين.

T   And then picture (f). What is this tool, (f)? This is bone plate. Bone plate. هذه تستخدم في عمليات جبر العظام، تستخدم في عمليات جبر العظام.

T   Okay. Picture (g), (g), (g). It's called Dermabrader. Dermabrader. This used in... This, this equipment is used to remove the dead skin. Yes, man! Used for skin to remove the dead skin. This device is used. The Dermabrader is used to remove the dead skin.

T   What about picture (h)? Dialysis machine. غسيل الكلى. Dialysis machine.

T   Then (i), picture (i). Neurological pinwheel. Picture (i), neurological pinwheel. This tool is used to examine the sensitivity of neurons, هذه الأداء ال——عدد، الأعصاب هي اللي تستخدم لقياس حساسية الأعصاب، الا المستقبلات الأعصاب بتعمل بشكل كويس او في مشاكل. Neurological pinwheel.

T   And then picture (g), (j). Paediatric spoon. Yes, paediatric spoon. ملعقة للاطفال. Paediatric spoon.

T   And then (k). Scalpel. Yes. المشرط. Scalpel. Scalpel.

T   Then finally, (l), (l), هى اللى, an X-ray machine. جهاز اشعة اكس الجهاز، المغطائية الاشعة جهاز.

T   Again, في هذه ذكرك مرة ثانية، في الوحدة الاولى تقريباً اخذنا ما يقارب اقل شيء عشرين كلمة جديدة، الوحدة ايضاً بتمر علينا اقل شيء عشرين كلمة اخرى، و كنصيحة اليوم حاول انك تستذكر و تراجع هذه الكلمات كلها و لاتؤجل...

Okay. Let's do the following part, the vocabulary activity, Hospital Departments: اللوحة الإرشادية هذه تشير لأقسام [Whenever you go to a hospital you can see these words. المستشفى. بعض المستشفيات يكون لها بعض المسميات المختلفة لبعض الأقسام، كمثال عندك الأقسام اللي هو Renal قسم الكلى. ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا بجال في بعض المستشفيات ممكن تقراها Renal unit Unit Nephrology أو ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا Kidney kidneys]. So, let's match the name of the words here to the description on the left side. Number one: It's done as an example. Number one dispenses medicines which is (e), which is pharmacies. So, pharmacies dispense medicine [يصرف العلاجات، يصرف الأدوية]. Dispense medicine.

T   Number two: Treats kidney diseases. This is (h). Not (h) عفواً. This is (d). Renal unit. kidney, ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا nephrology ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا اللي هو الـ (d). [الـ kidneys].

T   Number three: Specialises in pregnancy and birth. This goes with (k). Obstetrics.

T   Number four: Studies illnesses and analyses samples. What is it? Is it cardiology? Pathology? Physiotherapy? Orthopaedics? Neurology? Studies illnesses and analyses samples? [Pathology] (a). Number four: Pathology المختبر، اللي يدرس العينات. اللي هو [؟samples Studies illnesses and analyses samples, which is pathology, pathology (a).

T   Number five: Treats diseases of the skin. This goes with (i), dermatology. G   لو تلاحظ عندك الجهاز هذا Dermatology اللي هو قسم الجلدية، الجلدية، [Dermatology

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اللي هو قسم Dermatology, Dermatology كلمة قريبة جداً من Dermabrader, Dermabrader [الجلدية. Treats diseases of the skin.

T   Number six: Performs operations on patients. This goes with (l). (l) الـ هو اللي surgery [غرفة العمليات.

T   Number seven: Designs special exercises for patients. This goes with physiotherapy. [قسم العلاج الطبيعي Physiotherapy].

T   Number eight: Studies blood disorders. [قسم الدم] Haematology (j).

T   Then number nine: Treats bones. This goes with (f), orthopaedics. [قسم العظام Orthopaedics].

T   Number 10: Specializes in the heart. This is obvious, cardiology. This goes with (b).

T   Number 11: Deals with sick children. This goes with (h).

T   Then finally number 12: Treats disorders of the nervous system. This goes well (g); neurology. [قسم الاعصاب. (g) قلنا هو اللي ،القلب قسم Cardiology يسموه ثانية مستشفيات في ممكن cardiology. [او] Coronary. [قسم القلب Cardiology أو Coronary.

T   So you have here 12 new vocabularies with new names of their devices.

T   Let's go to the language spot on the following page, page 11: Prepositions of place and movement. [لما تتكلم عن أماكن الأشياء لازم تستخدم حروف الجر] in, on, at, over, under, behind, in front of, opposite and so on. Look at the first bullet points. I will read it and follow with me. To describe the place where something is we use prepositions such as in, on, on top of, at the top or at the bottom of, inside, outside, near, next to, by, in front of, behind, opposite, under, over, at, on the left or on the right. You have here two examples. The shop's. Here this S stands for IS. The shop is near the entrance on the right of the reception. Another example, the toilets are at the bottom of the stairs. On the left. [غالباً دورات المياة تكون تحت الدرج].

T   The second bullet point: To talk about movement, [لما تتكلم عن الحركة]. We use prepositions such as up, down, into, [اللي هو بداخل], into, out of, away, from, to, through [من خلال], across. [اللي هو] Let's say across the hall. [عبر الممر]. Along. [بطول الممر]. Along the corridor, walk along the corridor. [امشي بطول الممر]. Past, [بعد], back to, around left and right. For example, go through the swing doors, turn left along the corridor and the coffee bar is in front of you.

T   And then the third bullet point: Prepositions of movement are used with verbs of movements such as go, come, take, push, carry, [كمثال]. Can you take [take تستخدم هذا الفعل], take these files back to the office please to get from here to surgery you have to wheel the trolley through three wards.

T   If you go to page 116, you will find more examples but let's do the activity on the right side here. We have eight sentences and as you can see, in each sentence we have blanks. At the top here we have the prepositions that we can use and put them into the blanks here. We have at, by, in, next to, on, outside, over and under.

T   Let me do number one as an example. The toilets are on the ground floor. On the ground floor. [ممكن تقول لها نفس المعنى اللي by و next to]. By the reception [او] next to. [هو بجوار، الاستقبال]. By the reception [او] next to reception.

T   Number two: I always keep a pen _____ my pocket. Which preposition should we use in number two? in, Yes. [في جيبه] In. I always keep a pen in my pocket.

T   Number three: Press the button _____ your bed if you need the nurse. [ممكن باعلى السرير. ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية السرير ما يكون بالأعلى، يكون بجانبه اللي Over, Yes, [تقول اذا كان الزر بجانب السرير و ليس بالاعلى next to او ممكن تحط اللي هو by هو].

T   Number four: I will put your bag _____ your bed out of the way. Under. Yes. [تحت السرير]. I will put your bag under your bed out of the way.

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Appendix J: Codebook and themes from qualitative data

Code	Description	Example
5th skill	Used where participants mention that translation is a fifth skill.	I do agree with the statement that it's a skill, especially if you, as a teacher, are a non-native speaker of the language spoken by the students. I would say it's a skill that requires time to practise. It's a skill which we can acquire in order to assist our teaching and it should be carefully used.
Academic vocab	Used where the teacher translates academic vocabulary.	Creates [يجذب مشاكل] prevent [يحمي] So, obstacles [بالعربي عوائق] So this is the meaning of obstacles
Ask for help	Used where the student uses L1 to request help from the teacher.	S: ماني عارف اقراها يا دكتور والله الكلمة صعبة (*Doctor, I can't read it. This is a difficult word*) T: try حاول S: owner's equity
Bad press	Used when participants say they are not in favour of translation due to negative literature.	I do use translation but if we're to go by the academic perspective on this topic, the literature, we shouldn't use translation.
Bilingual dictionary	Participants mention the use of bilingual dictionaries to translate.	I try to tell them maybe if you get stuck with this word you can take one bit of your time to look it up… they use apps for bilingual dictionaries.
Body language	Used when participants mention that the inability to observe body language or facial expression in online teaching contributes to the decision to use translation.	Now that body language is missing when you're teaching online, that gap has to be bridged by translation to help the students be aware of what's going on in class.
Clarification by T	Used where the teacher offers further clarification of a technical term.	T: *So if you've got a decision to make, say a financial decision, you want to invest in the stock market for example, you go and check the trading platform, you check their financial records to help you make the right decision. Ok?* (Whole utterance said in Arabic having provided the translation of the term *balance sheet*).
Clarification request – grammar	Used where a student request clarifications related to a grammatical point.	S: Doctor, can I use *much* with superlatives? (أقدر أضيف much في التفضيل؟)
Comprehension check –instructions	Used where the teacher checks whether students have understood instructions.	T: *Unless you're paying full attention to the recording, you won't be able to answer my questions and you will lose marks in the listening assessment.*

		Ok? Is that clear guys? Is that clear? تمام ياشباب'؟ S: Yes, doctor, clear ايوه دكتور.'
Comprehension check – tech terms	Used where the teacher uses translation to check whether students have understood a technical term.	T: Ceiling. It's the maximum *height* a plane can fly. *It's called ceiling. Is that clear now guys*? (words in italic are translated from Arabic)
Concurrent translation (also passage translation)	Used where the teacher uses concurrent translation (i.e. translates everything he says immediately). L2 → L1, L2 → L1, L2 → L1	Dear Mr. Carson, Here is a summary of the balance sheet عزيزي متير كارسن هذه خلاصة ورقة الموازنة المالية. Reporting your company's financial position. To report عن موضع الشركة المالي Carson Electronics holds \$237000 in assets. شركة كارسون عندها الان اصول قيمتها 237000 \$
Codeswitch	Used where participants mention using code-switching.	I would rather students didn't use Arabic unless they're really unable to express themselves clearly; or they can't get their point across. I'd then allow them to codeswitch. I mean only if they really couldn't say it in English.
Defeats purpose	Used where teachers refer to translation defeating the purpose of second language learning.	I'm of the opinion that the use of translation shouldn't be to the extent where the purpose of learning is defeated. If I allow translation to be dominant in the class, I will go against the purpose of teaching a language.
Difficult vocab	Used then the purpose is to deal with difficult vocabulary.	S: My teacher used translation to explain difficult terminology such as helicobacter pylori and fever.
Domain related	Used when teachers discuss the use of translation across the different domains of ESP.	Translation is hugely needed when teaching students in the medical and scientific domains. Translation, however, can be minimised when teaching business students.
Eliciting translation	Used when the teacher tries to elicit translation from his students.	T: What is communication? S: تواصل (*communication*) T: Yes, تواصل
EMI in mind	Used where participants express concern that overuse of translation may affect their performance in other modules in the preparatory	We won't need to know every other word in Arabic as this would negatively impact us with other modules being taught in English.

	year for which English is the medium of instruction.	
ESAP knowledge	When teachers make use of translation because they lack the expertise to explain subject-specific material in English.	I will resort to translation because the students will understand it, and because I'm not a specialist in that field to explain.
Exam instructions	Used where translation is viewed as necessary to deliver exam-related instructions.	T: *Guys, I want to discuss something important with you. The listening assessment for this term will be totally different to previous terms.* (Whole utterance translated from Arabic)
Exams in mind	Given as a reason for teachers using translation even when they prefer not to.	I use translation because we're trying to make sure students do well come the exams.
Expected to translate	Used when teachers feel there are expectations they should translate in class.	I would like to add that staff here and in schools, if you're not doing translation students look at you and think you're not doing what's required, you're not doing your job properly.
Explaining grammar	Use of translation for teaching grammatical aspects.	I do use it in grammar and translate *the* to (*al altaaref*).. so I tell them you can't use *(the) al altareef* for islands like Indonesia, you can't say the Indonesia as opposed to concepts like the Bahamas and the Caribbean's.. so I basically point out the difference between the two languages and it's helpful.
Facilitation	Used for a facilitative purpose. A tool to facilitate understanding.	I use translation because I sometimes need it as a facilitative tool that makes the lesson a lot easier.
Feedback	Used when the teacher translates his feedback.	- T: Ok yes number 7 هذه الجملة الوحيدة *the only sentence*, where we could use 'than'
Feel good	Used translation because it makes teachers feel they've done their best.	It makes me feel that I've done my best to explain the word in question.
Flexibility	Used where teachers report or are reported to be tolerant towards translation in the class.	Yes, I was open to it being used. The teacher doesn't get upset when students translate. He understands that not all students are good at English.
Frustration	Used when teachers report having to resort to translation out of frustration (e.g. at little or no interaction from their students).	In all honesty, the main reason why translation becomes my go-to option most of the time is frustration. I may feel frustrated at the lack of interaction from students.
Fun	Used for light-hearted interaction.	I use translation activities for fun. But through this fun I know the students benefit.
General vocab	Used where the teacher translates general vocabulary.	T: We deliver the post all over the hospital." [Post البريد يوصلوا ،بريد هي اللي لـ المستشفى، ايضاً].

		T: Scale, to measure things. Scale, ميزان.
Giving synonyms	Used where the teacher gives and translates a synonym of a term.	Renal unit.ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا nephrology اللي هو الـ ممكن في مستشفيات ثانية يكتبوا'
Habit	Used when teachers express a concern that translation may become a habit for students if allowed in the class.	I prefer English because once translation becomes their first go-to option, they will end up making it a habit. So, students may get into the habit of using Arabic for communication which shouldn't be allowed.
Hinders creativity	Translation as a detriment to creativity in L2.	The creative use of the language won't be there…students will become relaxed and complacent.
Hinders grammar	Translation as a detriment to teaching grammar.	How can I translate 'present perfect' into Arabic? It's extremely difficult. Translation is a hinderance as far as teaching grammar is concerned.
Hinders proficiency	Teachers not using translation as it's detrimental to students' L2 development.	I refuse to use translation because I want to improve students' proficiency level.
Interaction booster	Used by the teacher to boost interaction in class.	T: If you have weak students and you don't allow them to use translation at all, they won't answer any questions, they will be silent.
Interference	Used when participants say they are not in favour of translation as it would result in interference.	I'm an advocate of teaching English through English. Research shows that interference is bound to happen when you include the mother tongue.
Jokes	Used when teachers mention they translate their jokes.	Sometimes I tell a joke in English but they don't understand it so I translate it to Arabic.
Lack of L1 knowledge	Teachers refer to being non-native speakers of Arabic as a reason for not using (much) translation.	…but sometimes I wish I could say it in Arabic…so it's something that's very useful if you have it in your pocket. I mostly avoid using translation as I'm not a native speaker of Arabic.
L2 anxiety/psychological security	Using or allowing translation to ease students' anxiety.	Translation also gives students a kind of psychological security. When it's all English some students are intimidated by the English-only, so translation ease[s it]… they don't feel as intimidated as when translation isn't allowed.
L2 exposure	Trying not to use translation due to teaching in a country where L2 exposure is limited.	I don't use it much. I try to stay away from it as much as I can because I know students spend 16 hours a week with us to get exposed to as much

		English as possible. Because I know the environment, and I always tell them when you leave me after that 16 hours a week and you go on a holiday for two weeks or two days, there's a possibility you don't use the language with your family or friends.
L2 maximisation	Refers to when participants prefer English to be the dominant language in bilingual class.	English has to be the overwhelming language in the class.
Last resort	Used where participants say translation is their last resort in the ESP class.	Yeah it's a last resort. But it's a tool that you have which is very powerful in terms of ESP.
Learning experience	Used where a student participant mentions a previous learning experience related to translation.	I was taught that translating every word you come across is the wrong approach.
Learning instructions – grammar	Used where the teacher translates instructions related to grammar learning.	Ok, these are the rules that I explained and if you want to find more information you can visit this page as you can see, grammar reference اللي قلتلكوا عنه امبارح شرحتلكوا الكتاب أنا، قلتلكوا you find grammar reference بآخر الكتاب if you need more information, if you need more examples you just go to this page, page 115 grammar reference راح تلاقوا هذا القاعدة معطيك إياها بشروحات كمان' أكثر،
Learning instructions – vocab	Used where the teacher translates instructions related to vocabulary learning.	إن هذه الكلمات These words are all listed at the end of the book under the glossary موجودين هذول الكلمات بالضبط، أي كلمة بتشوفها under the keywords فإنها لازم تكون موجودة في الـ dictionary اللي اسمه glossary اللي في آخر الكتاب، وهي مرتبة أبجديًا، يعني if you want to find the word "realistic" it starts with r so you need to look under the R words لازم تدور تحت حرف الـ R الكلمات اللي بحرف الـ R عشان تلاقيها what do you find there in the glossary بتلاقي في الـ 'شو glossary.
Maintaining discipline	Used where the teacher translates to maintain discipline.	T: *Ok. It looks like a lot of the students today have logged in through their phones but are not actually with us.* *Brilliant!* شكلوا كتير طلاب اليوم فاتحين جوالاتهم وطالعين. حلو!'
Balanced use	Used when the teacher mentions the use of translation as a means rather than an end. Or that it should just be used as such.	However, balanced use of translation is not harmful, as a means not an end.
Memorising	Used where a student mentions using translation to memorise words.	Translation helps me memorise words.

Mental translation	Used where students mention translating mentally.	I mentally translate the sentence. It's a time-consuming but effective technique.
Metalanguage	Used where the teacher translates metalinguistic items.	T: Our concentration today will be on adjectives. Adjectives mean اصفات in Arabic. Comparatives mean مقارنة, and superlatives mean تفضيل
Minimised	Used where participants say the use of translation should be kept to a minimum.	So, it should be used carefully. It should be kept to a minimum as to not distort the learning process. Too much translation means you're not teaching English. So, it has to be kept to a minimum.
Maximised/minimised online	Where teachers mention that they've maximised or minimised the use of translation due to online teaching.	Translation is really maximised when teaching online because we don't see the students. we didn't expect this at the beginning. For me less translation was used when we were teaching online.
New info	Used when teacher participants cite the introduction of new information as a reason to use translation.	You want as many students as possible to grasp the new piece of information in the simplest way possible.
New vocab	This code is used where participants say they use (or actually use) translation to explain or understand new vocabulary.	S: I use translation for words that I've never come across before. S: My teacher translates the new words. T: So in this text we have some new vocabulary: Trolleys [عربات الطعام].
Technical issues	Used where the teacher translates to address technical issues.	T: *I thought we agreed last week. I told you to bring a mic, to buy an SAR10 or SAR15 mic of any quality, I don't think that's unaffordable.* (Whole utterance was in Arabic)
Teaching experience	Used when the teacher mentions that overuse of translation is negative as far as L2 improvement is concerned, a belief based off his teaching experience.	…my thinking…from my experience…is that too much translation is not beneficial.
Online participation (Also: class management)	Used where teacher participants translate participation-related instructions.	T: Take the mic امسك المايك
Peer translation	Used for students playing the role of translator for their peers.	I even ask students who understand the meaning of a word in English to translate it to those who didn't understand it.

		There is a type of students that I like to call 'teacher-helpers', they play the role of a translator to their peers.
Poor response	Used when teachers turn to translation when the students are unresponsive.	I start with English and see how students react. If they don't seem to understand, I still insist on English. I urge them to use English. However, I start to translate once I feel students have become uncomfortable, if the response from them isn't positive.
Popular	Used where participants mention the use of translation is popular, particularly amongst students.	But translation is widely used amongst students, and it's viewed positively.
Positive reaction	Used for when teachers say students have reacted positively to translation activities.	But through this fun I know the students benefit. Students love them.
Praise	Used where the teacher translates as he praises a student.	S: أقول يا دكتور؟/can I answer, doctor? T: Go ahead, go ahead S: Further T: ممتاز Excellent, Excellent, ولما آجي أقارن بين adjective far استخدم الـ شيئين بقول further than. Excellent.
Schools to blame	Used when the teacher alludes to the negative impact of prior learning experiences on students' proficiency level when they join university.	Students are this weak because of general education, secondary schools. It feels like they have memorised sentences which they use. They do not seem like they have enough understanding of English to create a sentence themselves.
Pro only	Used where participants say translation is only for those seeking a career in translation and has little to do with English teaching and learning.	In my eyes, translation is for those after a career as translators. For these students, translation shouldn't be a main concern. They won't even need it once they've improved in terms of the four main skills.
Proficiency level	Used when the students' level of English is the reason why much or little translation is used.	I would say it depends on the students' proficiency level rather than their specific domain of ESP.
Quizlet	Used where the teacher refers his students to a mobile app to translate vocabulary.	…let's go for the words and discover their meanings, they are already ready in your Quizlet with a proper translation and let's go for it.
Sandwiching	Used where the teacher uses the sandwiching technique of translation (L2 → L1 → L2)	Dialysis machine, غسيل كلى dialysis machine
ST needs	Used when the teacher says he uses or allows translation to understand students' needs.	…it's something that allows me to understand what their needs are and what their preferences are as well.

Summarising	Use of translation to summarise what has been discussed.	Summarising a text as most of them don't understand.
Synonym-less vocab	Used where teachers say they use translation for words that lack synonyms in English.	So, translation is only helpful where a word doesn't have synonyms in English.
Task instructions	Used where teachers say they use/or use translation to set up tasks in class to ensure students are well prepared.	I use it when I'm setting exercises especially in ESP classes.
Tech terms	Participants using translation to explain or understand technical terms.	So, yes, we use translation sometimes especially if the terms we're dealing with are highly technical; they need explaining.
Timesaving	Where teachers prefer translation because it saves time.	Translation can save you a lot of time. Translation saves a lot of the time though, it takes you out of trouble when you're stuck…when there's time constraints, teachers resort to translation.
Translation activities	Used when participants mention they give their students translation tasks.	I even give translation tasks sometimes. You can't ignore translation at all.
Translation as a crutch	Maximised use of translation with or by low-level students to get them to a stage where they feel they won't need translation as much anymore.	I still translated every word. As I'd improved with time, I no longer needed translation. I think as a beginner, it's best to look up words in Arabic and then as you improve you look them up in English.
Translation request	Used where a student asks the teacher to translate a word.	S: Doctor, I'm allergic to… I don't know the word in English, عطر is it perfume?

Theme	Example codes
Theme 1: *Comprehension-related purposes*	- Facilitation - Comprehension check – instructions - Comprehension check – tech terms - Clarification request-grammar - New info - Translation request - Summarising - Last resort
Theme 2: *Vocabulary-related purposes*	- New vocab - Difficult vocab - Tech terms - Academic vocab - General vocab - Metalanguage - Memorising - Giving synonyms - Synonym-less vocab
Theme 3: *Grammar-related purposes*	- Explaining grammar - Metalanguage - Clarification request-grammar
Theme 4: *Student-related purposes*	- Psychological security - Translation as a crutch - ST needs - Exams in mind - Ask for help
Theme 5: *Instruction-related purposes*	- Task instructions - Learning instructions – grammar - Learning instructions – vocab - Exam instructions - Online participation
Theme 6: *Management-related purposes*	- Maintaining discipline - Timesaving - Addressing technical issues
Theme 7: *Interaction-related purposes*	- Interaction booster - Eliciting translation
Theme 8: *Teacher-related factors*	- Lack of L1 knowledge - Frustration - Teaching experience
Theme 9: *Student-related factors*	- Proficiency level - L2 anxiety - Expected to translate - Learning experience
Theme 10: *Beliefs-related factors*	- Defeat purpose - Habit

	• Hinders proficiency, hinders grammar, hinder creativity • Bad press • Prol only • Interference
Theme 11: *ESP-related factors*	• ESP knowledge • Domain difference
Theme 12: *Classroom – external factors*	• EMI in mind • L2 exposure • Schools to blame • Timesaving
Theme 13: *Online-related factors*	• Maximised online • Minimised online • Body language • Technical issues
Theme 14: *Manner of use*	• Sandwiching • Concurrent translation • Translation activities • Bilingual dictionary • Google Translate • Quizlet • Codeswitch • Mental translation • Peer translation • Passage translation
Theme 15: *Attitudes*	• Balanced • Minimised • L2 maximisation • Flexibility • 5th skill • Positive reaction • Popular • Last resort
Theme 16: *Translation in remote teaching*	• Maximised online • Minimised online
Theme 17: *Feedback-related purposes*	• Feedback • Praise
Theme 18: *Fun-related purposes*	• Fun • Jokes