

The Roles of Different Types of Translation in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

Introduction

Translation plays a controversial role in foreign language learning (FLL) and teaching (FLT). Many experts consider it as their particular *bête noir*, although they do not deny its very existence in the classroom. New voices have emerged recently, saying that arguments against the use of translation have been aggrandized and this can be derived from the fact that there is not enough experience of using translation in the FL class. Therefore, these proposals have generated acrimonious debates.

In this paper, I would like to argue that despite its peripheral role, translation can be a useful tool in FLL and FLT. In the first part of my thesis, a theoretical overview is provided with the most relevant secondary literature on the topic in question. In the second part, empirical studies are documented. The third part concentrates on the relevance of translation in everyday situations, which necessitates proper applications in the classroom. Finally, the fourth part consists of a case study that has been carried out at a secondary school in Pápa, Hungary. I hope that the case study will make a small contribution to the limited amount of research done in this area. Throughout my paper great emphasis is put on the interaction between vocabulary retention and translation.

1. Theoretical framework

To start with, it must be noted that our topic covers several disciplines, such as Translation Studies, Language Acquisition, Language Awareness and Cognitive Psychology. Thus, it can be assumed that the examination of the topic necessitates an interdisciplinary approach. This idea seems to be supported by Peverati (2014), who says that the current attentiveness

to the rehabilitation of translation in FLL and FLT might attract the attention of scholars and researchers of various fields. On the grounds of this idea, I have tried to collect studies written by scholars of different subjects. Probably this is the reason why it is hard to categorize the present paper. Throughout my study, my priority was to reach a balance between the approaches of the two most important disciplines that deal with the topic. These are Translation Studies and Foreign Language Teaching (Beecroft, 2013).

As mentioned in the Introduction, there are many objections to school translation. The most important ones are enumerated by Zojer (2009) and Carreres (2006). Many of the concerns collected by these scholars could be refuted by empirical research (e.g. see section 2.1), albeit that I also touch upon these concerns here in the theoretical part as well. Firstly, in section 1.2, it is argued that most of the objections to school translation can be derived from the condemnation of the grammar-translation method (GTM). Secondly, in section 1.3, the issue of negative interferences is addressed. It is thought by many that using translation in the classroom is undesirable because learners have to suffer the consequences of negative transfers from the L1 (first language) to the L2 (second language). These are referred to as "interference mistakes" (Zojer, 2009, p. 38; see also Carreres, 2006). In contrast, it can be argued that translation could actually clarify meaning. Thirdly, some researchers tend to regard translation exercises artificial. It is believed that they have no place in the prevailing communicative methodology as they could involve only reading and writing skills (Carreres, 2006). Nevertheless, the versatility of translation exercises is presented in section 1.4. It is claimed that translation exercises could be communicative too. Finally, it is a widespread assumption about translation in the classroom that it does not strengthen understanding because it makes students believe that there exist straight equivalents between the L1 and the L2. This, they argue, prevents learners from understanding the context of words (Zojer, 2009). In section 1.5 and 1.6, I argue that in translation students are engaged in processes that could enrich their understanding of the L2.

1.1. Terminology

The different types of translation that have a didactic purpose can be categorized as follows. First and foremost, a distinction should be made between professional translation and translation that takes place in the classroom. In her book, Klaudy (as cited in Vermes 2010, p. 83), considering its function, calls professional translation *real translation*, in which

translation is the goal itself. In *pedagogical translation*, on the other hand, translation is regarded as instrumental. Gile (as cited in Vermes 2010, p. 84) also introduces two terms to distinguish the two. These are *school translation* and *professional translation*. Vermes (2010) points out that pedagogical translation could actually involve two types of translation. He uses the term school translation to refer to translation as a tool for FLT, whereas by *simulated translation* he means translator training programs. In the following, I will use Vermes' distinction to refer to the different types of translation.

1.2. How has school translation become peripheral?

No one would dispute that the GTM played an essential role in FLT. Considering this central role, it is safe to assume that all the methods following the GTM are reactions to its dominance. Eventually, the condemnation of the GTM has resulted in the condemnation of school translation as a whole (Vermes 2010, p. 86), which is clearly an unjust generalization.

Howatt (1988) points out that the GTM was developed by German scholars. Vermes (2010) adds that it became the key factor in language teaching until the 20th century. It concentrated on reading and was mainly used to teach Latin and Greek (Gnutzmann, 2009). Speaking, the ordinary way of using a language, was considered secondary by supporters of this method (Lausvaara, 2011). As stated by Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra (2013) in the 19th century it was started to be used with modern languages as well. Advocates of the GTM believed that mastery of abstruse grammatical rules and a wide range of vocabulary enabled learners to communicate with each other efficiently. Nevertheless, the reality is that GTM belied these expectations. As Howatt (1988) argues:

However, it also contained seeds which eventually grew into a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender-class exceptions, self-conscious 'literary' archaisms, snippets of philology, and a total loss of genuine feeling for the living language. (ibid. p. 136)

As a consequence, not only did the GTM become an anathema, but translation in FLL and FLT was considered undesirable as well. The Reform Movement can be seen as a natural response to the fallacies of the method. As stated by Howatt (1988, p. 171), it proclaimed superiority of speech and "connected texts as the kernel of the learning and teaching process." The Reform Movement disliked the idea of using translation in the

classroom (Gnutzmann, 2009). The Draconian spirit of the GTM was replaced by teacher-student interactions, which came to be of utmost importance (Machida, 2011).

The Direct Method emerged as part of the Natural Approach (Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra, 2013). Evidently, this was also a reaction to the GTM, which was seen as "indirect" (Zojer, 2009, p. 32). The adjective "direct" also refers to the way languages were taught. The essence of the method can be summarized in the following principle: the L2 should be acquired in the same way as our L1, that is to say naturally (Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra, 2013). On the question of translation as a didactic tool, the Direct Method took a firm stance, saying that its use had a deleterious effect on learners of FLs and consequently it should be banned. There are numerous explanations for this attitude. Firstly, as assumed by Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra (2013), translation exercises were said to be associated with the written form of the language, which was definitely considered a disadvantage as the Direct Method proclaimed superiority of the oral form of the language. Secondly, it was seen as a barrier to the direct association of words and concepts. Finally, teachers were not able to translate because many of them were native speakers of the FL. I would note that although supporters of the method proclaimed that school translation should be avoided, their criticism was directed to only the GTM, which is a sweeping generalization of the issue. Unfortunately, this negative trend continued from this time on.

According to Richards and Rogers (as cited in Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra, 2013, p. 41) the Direct Method was extremely difficult to apply in public secondary education. Its decline led to the emergence of the Audio-lingual Method, which viewed language as a structural system. It "made use of constant structural drills in the target language followed by instant positive or negative reinforcement from the teacher" (Vermes, 2010, p. 87). As Vermes (2010) adds, the use of translation was not encouraged in this methodology either.

Lastly, the so called communicative approach has to be touched upon. In their overview of the methods, Marqués-Aguado and Solís-Becerra (2013) suggest that the term involves numerous approaches to language teaching. Not surprisingly, the nucleus of the communicative approach is communication, which is seen as both the goal and means in the language learning process. Tsagari and Floros (2013) consider the communicative turn the final nail in school translation's coffin as it triggered the capitulation to the demand of banning its use in FLT. It can be further argued that the GTM and translation have lost their significance because the conception of success has changed. Indeed, with the appearance of the Reform Movement, attention to form has shifted onto functions (Cook, 2007).

Despite all the prejudices against school translation, in present day, there are a growing number of theoretical studies that have to face the Herculean task of rehabilitating its reputation. As Gnutzmann (2009) points out, the appearance of Translation Studies and the cognitive turn in learning psychology each had a crucial role to play in establishing a new way of thinking. Present papers provide more than enough support to justify using translation in FLL and FLT again. Although there are also fascinating case studies of school translation more empirical studies are needed to establish a strong base for the development of applications.

It must be noted that although denying L1 use and translation seems to be a general trend, Hall and Cook (2012) suggest that, despite the current prevailing approaches to FLL and FLT, the use of the L1 and translation is inevitably present in classrooms. In their article they say:

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. (ibid., p. 278)

Evidently, rehabilitating school translation does not mean the rehabilitation of the GTM. Furthermore, it is not my intention to question the legitimacy of the communicative approach. It is believed, however, that school translation could be a progressive, supplementary tool of FLL and FLT.

1.3. Is it despicable to use L1 when learning a FL?

One of the inevitable corollaries to the prejudices against school translation is that people tend to regard the use of the L1 in the FL classroom with nagging suspicion. Despite these attitudes, it is assumed that judicious use of the L1 in the language class is a natural process that can facilitate efficient FLL and FLT. Let me emphasize here that although using the L1 is not the same as implementing translation in the FL class, they are closely connected and L1 use could certainly "open a gateway for translation" (Hall and Cook 2012, p. 283).

To begin with, second language acquisition is stored in a different part of the brain, that is to say different from first language acquisition. As a consequence, they should be treated separately (Hentschel, 2009). This idea is in line with V. Cook's multicompetence model (as cited in Hall and Cook, 2012, p. 288), which views "language learners as bilingual language *users* who have different uses for language from monolinguals, have a different

knowledge of both the new language *and* their own language from monolingual speakers, and even have different minds from monolinguals."

Furthermore, the classroom cannot provide the same stimulus as a native speaking environment. The time spent in class is limited, and in most cases teachers are not native speakers. Under these circumstances, the L1 is the "only abstract semiotic system the monolingual learner has at his/her disposal for making sense" (Witte, 2009, p. 90). For Hall and Cook (2012) too, only the L1 could provide the necessary prior knowledge that could clarify L2 phenomena.

In favor of using the L1 in the language classroom it has to be said that after the age of 7-8, the mother tongue takes firm roots and despite forbidding its use it is always present "silently" (Butzkamm, 2003). Indeed, Carson (as cited in Kavaliauskienė, 2010, p. 12) lays great stress on the transfer between the L1 and the L2, arguing that it is a fundamental process in L2 learning. Hentschel (2009) seems to support this idea when she states that the L1 cannot be separated from the L2. In other words, it can be assumed that translation in language teaching is a natural phenomenon (Cook, 2007). Moreover, studies suggest that students use translation as a learning strategy (see Karimian and Talebinejad, 2013).

On the question of the amount of L1 use it cannot be overemphasized that relentless use of the mother tongue is not supported by any of the scholars. Swain and Lapkin (2000) suggest that its use should not be encouraged but it should not be prohibited either. Similarly, Butzkamm (2003) suggests an equitable L1 use. Thus, similarly to translation, the L1 should also be considered as means of FLL and FLT.

Finally, in case of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning and teaching, a political argument for using the mother tongue should also be mentioned. Bolitho (as cited in Hall and Cook, 2012, p. 298) finds that global distribution is in opposition to reflection on local needs. According to Korošec (2013) as well, global phenomena in EFL teaching like the appearance of international language schools and the worldwide market orientation of English language teaching materials are responsible for maintaining the monolingual model. Hall and Cook (2012) have harsh criticism to make of Content and Language Integrated Learning. They believe these programs go against the EU principles of language diversity. Although these ideas might be extreme, it can be argued that reflection on local needs is an important aspect to consider in FLL and FLT.

1.4. Translation as the fifth skill?

There are some scholars who support the view that translation should be looked on as the fifth skill after Speaking, Reading, Writing and Listening (see for example Gaspar, 2009; Stibbard, 1998). On balance, however, translation is rather a tool that could involve all of the four skills. Thus, we do not question the legitimacy of the four skills; instead, we provide a tool with which they can be improved.

Vermes (2010) argues that all the four skills rely on translation. For Whyatt (2009, p. 195), translation is a "comprehensive task because it requires reading comprehension, knowledge of grammar, lexis and skill of writing." According to Machida (2011) too, translation could improve reading and writing skills. Furthermore, translation exercises are thought to improve communicative skills as well (see Gohil, 2013).

1.5. The process of translation and vocabulary retention

Translation can be regarded a useful tool in FLL and FLT because it could enhance vocabulary knowledge.

In essence, the process of translation that could take place in the classroom is in line with intensive reading. According to Nuttall (1996) in intensive reading it is essential to understand the text. Also, readers should be aware of how a certain text is presented. In the process of translation too, the way a message is passed on is of utmost importance. It is not enough for translators to understand the source text (ST) they also have to convey its atmosphere in the target text (TT). In order to do so, translators consider the context of the ST, which helps them finding the suitable TT words. In translation the role of situational contexts has to be highlighted. Miller (as cited in Nation, 2001, p. 57) defines situational context as the knowledge of a particular situation in which the communication takes place. These situations are essential as words get their meaning in them. Furthermore, all the connotations of a word are derived from the situational context. When translating from the L2 into the L1 it is the L2 situation that is reconstructed in the L1 text. In reverse translation it is vice versa. According to Holmes (1988) while translating we have a map of the ST and the TT in our mind, which determine our translation. It might be argued that these maps are closely connected to the situational contexts of the ST and TT. Creating these maps in the translation process requires creativity and it is an intellectually challenging activity. For this

reason, introducing translation exercises in the classroom would be refreshing and beneficial for students.

The direction of translation is yet another important aspect that should be taken into consideration as it could influence the kind of vocabulary knowledge that is possibly enhanced through translation. Nation (2001) differentiates between receptive and productive knowledge of a word. These are rather complex concepts involving numerous aspects of vocabulary knowledge. As a consequence, the line between the two is often vague. It can be said, however, that receptive knowledge implies the understanding of a L2 word when it is heard or read, whereas productive knowledge is closely connected to its active use (speaking and writing). As mentioned, in case of translation from the L2 into the L1 there is a given authentic L2 context in which words appear. In reverse translation, on the other hand, a L2 text has to be produced. Thus, it might be argued that translation from the L2 into the L1 is a receptive learning exercise, whereas reverse translation is a productive learning exercise.

Translation, as described above, can be seen as a "dynamic learning process" (Takimoto and Hashimoto, 2010, p. 87). It is hypothesized that in the process of translation learners could elaborate on the language more easily (Hummel, 2010). Furthermore, it is assumed by many that this extended processing stage could be a key factor in enriching learners' vocabulary (Belpoliti and Plascencia-Vela, 2013; Martín-Martín, 2013; Ramachandran and Rahim, 2004).

1.6. Translation and cultural awareness

As we have seen in the previous section, school translation might be an efficacious way to enhance our FL knowledge by making it more extensive. This section sets out to envisage another layer of the processing stage, which is closely connected to cultural awareness. According to Nation (2001) it is the responsibility of the teachers to draw students' attention to the cultural aspects of vocabulary meaning and use. For this reason, it is believed that translation exercises might be useful to apply in the classroom because they could reflect on cultural differences.

In point of fact, numerous studies noted that pedagogical translation could raise cultural awareness (Pavan, 2013; Takimoto and Hashimoto, 2010; Whyatt, 2009). Beecroft (2013, p. 156) finds that FLT could be seen as a "hybrid space" for intercultural discourse. She proposes that translation processes in FLT should be analyzed and made more

communicative. According to the author progressive and challenging translation tasks should be implied to develop learners' intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Similarly, Byram suggests (as cited in Beecroft, 2013, p. 161) that students should become "intercultural speakers" in order to take part in intercultural interactions. Thus, as stated by Freitag Stroh and von Reinersdorff (ibid., p. 162), the ultimate goal of intercultural FLT is "transcultural awareness."

The literary translator perfectly exemplifies the intercultural speaker. According to Somló (2012, p. 95) there are three stages of reading: (1) first reading, (2) re-reading, (3) translator's reading. Interpretation, she continues, necessitates "the translator's reading, which requires an in-depth analysis of similarities and differences between the two cultures on all levels of the text" (ibid., p. 98). As can be seen, reaching this level of cultural awareness is possible only through an elaborate process, which might be provided by translation exercises.

Evidently, professional literary translation cannot be taught in FLT at a secondary school level. However, it can be proposed that ICC should be promoted in students (Beecroft, 2013). One of the best means to achieve this is to imply cultural differences in the classroom through translation exercises. This would give the average student general ideas about the work of the literary translator. Furthermore, it might encourage the talented ones to go further and become professional translators, which would be beneficial to Translation Studies as well. In simulated translation, concentrating on the cultural aspects of translation should be the center of teaching.

2. Empirical research

This part of my paper consists of two sections. Firstly, several studies on L1 use are enumerated. The findings of the experimentations are considered promising. The second section focuses on translation and vocabulary retention. Interestingly enough, not all of the studies support the hypothesis of the previous part, that is to say pedagogical translation triggers vocabulary gain. The possible reasons for this discrepancy are described in the section.

2.1. How can the L1 be used judiciously in FLL and FLT?

Each of the studies listed below had its setting in different types of educational institutions. The language of the L1 and the L2 varied as well. For this reason, it would not be advisable to make general conclusions of the findings. It should be noted, however, that in three experimentations out of four L1 use resulted in better L2 use. Furthermore, it seems that in all studies the notion of control (see section 1.3) was one of the most important prerequisites of effective L1 use in the FL classroom.

It is often said that allowing learners to use their mother tongue might lead to uncontrolled L1 use. The examination of Swain and Lapkin (2000) among French immersion students at grade 8 level seems to refute this belief. The subjects of their research were native speakers of English. The participants were given different kind of tasks and worked in pairs to complete them. They were allowed to use their L1 and their conversations were recorded. Analyzing the recordings, Swain and Lapkin found that although students had used English in talks that had been irrelevant to the given tasks, the percentage of these dialogues was low (12%). As for the rest of L1 use, it "served important cognitive and social functions" (ibid., p. 268). The two important functions of these L1 turns were moving the task along and focusing attention.

Halasa and Al-Manaseer (2012) undertook a case study among university students at the University of Jordan. The participants were Arabic speakers, whereas the L2 was English. Two tests were done during the research. Prior to the first one, an explanation in English was given to the students on how to use English pronouns. Previous to the second test, Arabic was used for the explanation. Thus, in the second case, the use of the L1 was restricted to clarifications of grammar, which prevented the L1 from overburdening the classroom with irrelevant utterances. According to the results participants showed considerable improvement following L1 explanations.

Manyak's (2004) thought-provoking article demonstrates clearly the advantages of L1 use. He examined a class at Adams School, Los Angeles. The participants of the study were Spanish native speakers from a combination of first and second grade, English immersion class. Manyak found that L1 use could create a more welcoming atmosphere in the classroom. Moreover, the use of the mother tongue resulted in better L2 performance. This was possible with an experienced teacher, who did not let L1 use out of control but used it as a means to encourage children to produce English sentences.

According to Corcoll (2012) bilingual classes could be as effective as monolingual ones. The primary subjects of Corcoll's study were Catalan and Spanish speaking 7 and 8-year-old students. It is important to note that the emphasis was put on "the collaborative

learning process" (ibid., p. 33). In one out of the four groups the lesson was bilingual (English was L2). Corcoll's results suggest that there was no difference between the performance of the bilingual class and the monolingual classes. Nevertheless, class atmosphere and the motivation of students improved in the bilingual class. Furthermore, it is thought that translation exercises helped to promote language awareness.

2.2. Studies of vocabulary retention and pedagogical translation

Three of the following studies support the hypothesis of the first part of this paper, that is to say pedagogical translation triggers vocabulary retention. It must be noted that in all three experiments receptive vocabulary knowledge was enhanced (see section 1.5). The findings of the studies suggest that besides a complex translation process (see section 1.5 and 1.6) intentional learning also seems to be a key factor in effective school translation (Martín-Martín, 2013). It could be added that in the FL classroom it is the teacher who could embody intentional learning and turn translation into school translation.

An examination of vocabulary retention was conducted by Ramachandran and Rahim (2004) in Malaysia. The subjects were 60 learners of English, aged 16, elementary level. Two groups were made to compare the effectiveness of the translation and non-translation methods. In the translation class teachers used their L1 to explain the L2 words, whereas in the other group only the L2 was used. The research was carried out over a four week period during which twenty lexical items were taught. It was found that those students who had been taught vocabulary through translation had consistently outperformed the other group in both tests, that is, in the immediate test and the delayed post-test. Although the participants were allowed to answer the questions of the test either in English or Malaysian it would have been interesting to know if the students from the translation group could express the meaning of the words in English and vice versa (this issue was taken into consideration in my case study). Another aspect of the research that has to be touched upon is the way of testing. Although the authors did not elaborate on this issue, it seems that the receptive knowledge of the students had been tested. It should be emphasized that the researchers paid great attention to the processing stage that was extended and elaborate enough for successful vocabulary learning. Furthermore, the students were instructed by accepted and experienced teachers, who drew students' attention to vocabulary learning, thus, they made the translation process intentional.

Similarly to other researchers, Hummel (2010) also assumed that active translation would lead to vocabulary retention. Nevertheless, the assumption did not prove to be an unfalsifiable hypothesis. The research was carried out at a university and the participants were French native speakers, whose L2 was English, intermediate level. Two groups were made to test active and passive translation. In the active translation group students had to translate sentences with unknown words. Although they were given sample sentences of these words, they were not allowed to consult a dictionary. In the other group, the participants had to copy translations of sentences. Following the tasks the participants' receptive knowledge of the words was tested, that is, they had to provide L1 equivalents. The results of the study showed that the passive translation group outperformed the active translation group. There can be numerous reasons for the discrepancy. Hummel assumed that the cognitive process of translating had distracted the participants' attention from the target words. A stronger argument might be, however, that translating separate sentences prevented learners from taking part in a translation process as complex as the one described in section 1.5 and 1.6. Without the extended processing stage vocabulary retention could not take place. In other words, the "active" translation group was not active at all. Furthermore, there was not a teacher either who could aid students in enlarging on the vocabulary and trigger intentional learning.

Martín-Martín (2013) carried out a research on vocabulary retention and simulated translation (see section 1.1). In the experiment, which lasted for four weeks, students had to translate eight English texts into Spanish. The translations were discussed in-class as well. Following the tasks the researcher tested both the receptive and productive knowledge of students' vocabulary.¹ The immediate and delayed receptive knowledge tests showed considerable vocabulary gain. However, despite the fact that there had been a long and elaborate processing stage, productive knowledge of the students did not improve. Martín-Martín found that the lack of improvement in the productive vocabulary knowledge could be a consequence of the fact that simulated translation does not focus on intentional vocabulary learning as the main target of translation courses is to teach how to translate. In addition, it has to be said that a possible explanation for the lack of productive vocabulary gain was the direction of the translation process, which prevented learners from improving (see section 1.5). Reflecting on the study of Hummel (2010), Martín-Martín (2013, p. 130) argues that "in the L2 to L1 translation tasks, neither intentional learning nor deep processing was present."

¹ Martín-Martín, referring to Nation (2001), used the words "passive" for receptive knowledge and "active" for productive knowledge, which is, however, an inaccurate interpretation of Nation's terms.

Although it is not clear what the author means by "deep processing", he possibly refers to an elaborate process of translation that has been referred to earlier in section 1.5 and 1.6.

3. Applications of translation

In this part of the present study, it is argued that translation is an essential competence in today's societies and for this reason proper applications of pedagogical translation should be developed. In Section 3.2 several aspects of Finnish EFL teaching are introduced. As an exchange student at Åbo Akademi I had the chance to consult with Finnish professors both from Åbo Akademi University and the University of Turku. Furthermore, through the Erasmus in Schools project I visited a Finnish secondary school, where I could experience firsthand the advantages of the Finnish education system. Finland can safely be regarded an example in FLL and FLT, thus, the examination of the education system might provide useful implications relevant to my topic.

3.1. What relevance does translation have to our everyday life?

Applications of translation in FLL and FLT should be encouraged as translation is an essential competence in our globalized world.

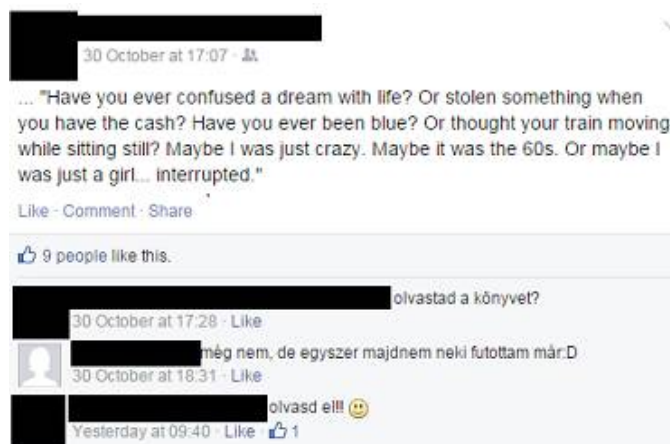
As stated by Pellatt (2009), translation is part of our everyday reality. With the appearance of the internet and social networks, constant code switching is inevitable for intercultural communication to take place (see Illustration 1). Stibbard (1998) finds that the ability of translation is of utmost importance not just for professional translators, but for average language users as well. According to Cook (2007) too, translation has become a useful skill in multicultural societies. Those who know two or more languages are often asked "to deploy that knowledge in mediating between those who know only one of them" (ibid., p. 398). Translation, he continues, "is also the cornerstone of any hope for international peace and cooperation" (ibid., p. 398).

Illustration 1 (Facebook):



Furthermore, in our multicultural world linguistic and cultural awareness (see section 1.6 in the previous part) could be crucial factors. If translation were used in FLL and FLT learners would better reflect on, for example, translated books and dubbed movies (see Illustration 2), which would certainly trigger critical thinking and result in a better understanding of other cultures.

Illustration 2 (Facebook):



Pekkanli's (2012) research among Turkish university students suggests that 97% of would-be-teachers realize the relevance of translation and consider it an important tool in FLL and FLT. It would be interesting to carry out similar studies in other countries and at different universities in order to get some general ideas about would-be-teachers' views on school translation.

3.2. Finland as an example

Although the 'communicative' approach is the prevailing method in Finland, several traces of L1 use and school translation can be found in the EFL classroom.

According to Jaakko Mäki, chair of the Association of Teachers of English in Finland, the use of the mother tongue and translation in FLT vary a lot at Finnish secondary schools but he is sure that all teachers use it to some extent (personal communication May, 2014). Soile Routila, who is a teacher of English at a Finnish secondary school, claims that most of the time teachers try to speak English; however, Finnish is used for explaining grammar. The course books, she adds, are written by both Finnish and British authors together and the exercises are either in English or Finnish. The language of instructions varies as well (personal communication May, 2014). Charlotta Sandberg, a teacher of Swedish at Åbo Akademi, also suggests that translation and L1 are used in FLT, especially at secondary schools (personal communication May, 2014).

Päivi Pietilä, an expert on Second Language Learning and Second Language Acquisition at the University of Turku, was kind enough to draw my attention to the thesis of one of her former students. The title of Lausvaara's (2011) paper is: "Translation in Finnish EFL textbooks: A study of exercise types and skills in translation tasks." In her analysis, Lausvaara examined eight textbooks from four textbook series from the 1990s and 2000s. Although the change in practicing oral skills could be felt in the use of translation, she found that its role had increased in the 2000s. Furthermore, most exercises in translation were applied in the revising sections, thus, they were not used to teach new matters.

In conclusion of my Finnish experiences it has to be said that in their approach to FLL and FLT Finnish teachers seemed to avoid extremities. They were open to new ideas in the classroom and reflected on the challenges of our modern world. Besides traditional teaching techniques, creative exercises were made by teachers to attract students' attention. The atmosphere of the Finnish school was calm and welcoming. This can be said of the relationship between the students and the teachers as well. Nevertheless, this did not prevent students in respecting their teachers. All these aspects were taken into consideration when conducting my case study, which is described in the next part of my paper.

4. Case study

4.1. Aims

The aim of the case study was to compare the effectiveness of school translation and monolingual teaching. It was hypothesized that school translation could be as effective as monolingual teaching in enriching learners' vocabulary. Although my time in class was limited it was hoped that the process of translation, similar to the one that is described in section 1.5, would result in considerable vocabulary gain, that is to say students from the translation group would be able to recall at least as many unknown words as the ones from the monolingual group. Furthermore, it was assumed that the translation exercises would highlight nuances of meaning and "reveal gaps in learners' knowledge" (Malyar, 2009, p. 546; see also Whyatt, 2009; AL-Azzawi and Mousa, 2008). Last but not least, it was hoped that the lesson would draw students' attention to the phenomenon of translation, which is thought to be part of our everyday reality (see section 3.1).

4.2. Participants and setting

The present case study was undertaken at Pápai Református Kollégium Gimnáziuma és Művészeti Szakközépiskolája.

The symbol of the school (a freely growing mulberry tree that can be seen on the uniform of the students) and the whole history of the institution indicate its philosophy, which is traditionalism and progressiveness (openness) at the same time. The effects of this unique feature can be felt in the lessons of FL, too. The school established connections with numerous secondary schools around the world (for example Chateaubriant, Lübeck, Heringsdorf, Kampen, Székelyudvarhely). Every year students who take part in the "Comenius program" have the chance to visit these countries. During these trips they stay with local families and attend classes in the local institution. Also, the school accepts exchange students and volunteers e.g. from China, Greece, Thailand, the USA and Norway. These relationships are essential as both teachers and students could broaden their mind and gain experiences in education and culture. It was thought that this setting would be highly satisfactory for my case study as school translation is closely connected to intercultural communication and cultural awareness (see the previous part of this paper). Indeed, both the teachers and the students seemed to be receptive to the idea of using translation in class.

Languages are taught in the following way. Students are expected to choose a first and second FL. English is compulsory to learn either as a first or a second language. Furthermore, two FL are offered to choose from: German and French. There are four first

FL lessons a week, whereas students have two second FL classes. These language classes are further subdivided into smaller groups. Students are put in different groups according to their abilities. In order to find the most suitable one, their knowledge of the language is tested at the beginning of their studies, thus, teachers are cognizant of their level of proficiency. The participants of the study were selected with the help of their teacher of English, who thought that they would be able to perform the kind of translation tasks that had been prepared for the case study. They were from the tenth grade (Group A) and from the eleventh grade (Group B). English was the first FL of the students. Both groups were considered the best in their grades. According to their teacher, students from Group A were at pre-intermediate level (A2), whereas students from Group B were at intermediate level (B1-B2). Group A is considered more homogeneous, that is, all the students are excellent learners and get good grades. Two exceptional students were excluded from the study as they fairly exceeded the average.

4.3. Procedure

In the following, a detailed description is given of the procedure of the case study.

Firstly, four groups were made. Group A (tenth grade) was divided into two smaller groups: Group A1 and Group A2. Group A1 was the experimental group (translation group), whereas Group A2 was the control group (monolingual group). Both in Group A1 and A2 there were 8 students. Group B (eleventh grade) was divided in the same way, although there were 9 students in both smaller groups.

All groups worked with the same text, which was an excerpt from "Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone."² This novel was chosen as it was most likely to attract teenagers' attention. As I wanted to test possible vocabulary gain, the excerpt contained a relatively high number of unknown words. It was thought, however, that the text was not too difficult for the participants, that is to say it would not discourage them from performing the tasks. Although school translation might be used to teach grammar, as mentioned above, I focused on vocabulary retention. For this reason the excerpt did not have difficult grammatical structures.

² The Hungarian translator used the original, British edition of the novel. In the lessons we used the American edition, for the simple reason that it was on hand. Although there are slight differences between the two this was irrelevant to us as in the excerpt there were not any changes in the American version.

The text describes a fairly tense situation. The action takes place in an old house, which stands on a lonely rock, far from any kind of civilization. In addition, the place is buffeted by a ferocious storm. The relationship between Harry and the Dursleys is not good either, which also causes frustration. Interestingly enough, besides this gloomy atmosphere, some sort of excitement can also be felt in the text as it is Harry's birthday. Seemingly, the main character is expecting something to happen, although he cannot really describe what it is he has been waiting for. In the lesson, this situation, and the words with which it is expressed, was considered important to reflect on (see Appendix 1).

Although our time was limited, in the experimental groups (Group A1 and Group B1) our top priority was (1) to get students involved in the process of translation, (2) to implement intentional vocabulary learning with the help of the teacher (see section 2.2) and (3) to touch upon the phenomenon of translation.

The lessons were held by the students' teacher of English. She thought that reverse translation tasks would be too difficult to perform, thus, the original version of the book was translated into Hungarian. Prior to the classes, both the English and the Hungarian editions of the book had been placed on the desk of the teacher. The lesson began with a short discussion on translation. The L1 was used throughout the class, as Hungarian was the TL of the translation exercise. The teacher enquired of the students if they checked the translators of the works they read. Also, the participants were asked if they had read any of the Harry Potter novels either in Hungarian or in English.

In the first stage of the exercise students had to quickly read the text through and find out what it was about. They were asked to note the number of words they had not known. Subsequent to the reading students were encouraged to use their imagination and creativity to reconstruct the situational context of the episode. Together with the teacher adjectives, verbs and nouns were collected to describe the atmosphere of the text. These words were written on the board.

In the second stage of the task the participants were asked to read the text again and start to translate it into Hungarian individually and with the help of bilingual dictionaries. They were told that there were many possible solutions besides the published, thus 'official' translation, and it was worth checking out all the meanings of a word to find the most suitable ones. Furthermore, to maintain students' motivation, it was said that their translations would be compared with the official one. The participants were allowed to either write down their translations or make notes. Fifteen minutes were given to perform the task. The solutions of the students were discussed together. The teacher read out the

sentences of the text and the participants were asked to share their translations with the others.

Finally, in the following week, a delayed post-test was done by the students with the unknown words from the text. Prior to the test the participants were told that their results would not be graded. The participants were allowed to work on their solutions as long as they wanted to. As in the tasks an L2 text had been translated into the L1, students' receptive vocabulary knowledge was tested (see section 1.5). The test contained open questions. Students had to provide both Hungarian equivalents and English descriptions of the unknown words. As our time in class was limited, the teacher thought that it would be advisable to give students the text as a reminder of the exercises. The line in which the unknown words appeared was indicated in the questions. First and foremost, I wanted to know how many of the unknown words students could recall. Secondly, it was my intention to examine if learners could differentiate between words that have a very similar meaning and if they could examine different layers of meaning (e.g. *to drown* was used in a metaphorical way meaning less noticeable). An example question of the test is: What does *creak* mean in line10? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!

The monolingual lessons (Group A2 and Group B2) were constructed with the assistance of an expert on monolingual teaching and the students' EFL teacher. The teacher took a monolingual dictionary and the novel (only in English) in the classroom. At the beginning of the lesson, she asked the students not to say anything in Hungarian. Firstly, a recording of the novel was played to attract students' attention. Following the recording, the participants were asked to read the text through. Then, the teacher asked students comprehensive questions, such as: "Where is Harry?", "What is his problem?", "Why couldn't he sleep?", "What was the storm like?", "Did he feel comfortable?", "Which was louder the snore or thunder?", "Why is time important?" Subsequent to the comprehensive questions, the participants were asked to give a title to the excerpt. This was followed by an association game, similar to the one in the translation group. In this game, the participants were asked to list adjectives, nouns and verbs to describe the atmosphere of the excerpt. Finally, the students and the teacher started reading the text again. They either explained the unknown words to each other or the teacher provided an explanation. To practice the new words, written exercises had been designed. In the first written exercise students had to choose the right words that would fit in the given sentences. They had to choose from three options, such as in this sentence: *The battles slapped/raged/lighted for several days.* In the second exercise they had to pair unknown adjectives with nouns. For example, students had to pair

the word *ferocious* with *beast* (Appendix 3). These exercises were done in the last part of the lesson. A week later the very same delayed post-test was done by the monolingual groups. They were also given the text as a reminder of unknown words (Appendix 2).

4.4. Analysis

The lessons were analyzed by the researcher, who was present in the classes as an observer. In the analysis, the students' teacher of English helped the researcher to elaborate on the experiences of the lessons. The results of the tests were also scrutinized.

The focal point of the observation was to reflect on the intellectual challenge of the translation task that students had to face. In the lesson, the researcher tried to examine how receptive the students were to the idea of translation. Furthermore, it was examined how much the participants know about translated works and what was their opinion of translation in general. The participants' reactions to the different kinds of issues concerning the topic in question were important aspects to note.

The tests were analyzed in the following way. Firstly, the results were quantified. Both the Hungarian and English answers were scored on a 3 point scale. As there were 10 questions, 30 points could be received in the test, that is, 30 points for the Hungarian answers and 30 points for the English answers. In case of the Hungarian answers 3 points meant that the solution was perfect, that is to say both the part of speech and the meaning were correct. Only those meanings of the words were accepted that were used in the text. Thus, for example, *pofoz* was not accepted for *slap* because in the excerpt *slap* meant *összezsapódik*, *összeütközik*. 2 points were given for those answers whose meaning was correct but the part of speech was incorrect. For example *haragos* for *ferociously* was given 2 points because the meaning was close, however, the part of speech was incorrect. If a student could not provide satisfactory answers but he or she managed to find out the overall meaning of the sentence 1 point was given. For example, in case of *fészkelődik* for *shivered* it is clear that the student understood the general meaning of the sentence, however, he or she could not differentiate between *shivered* and *turned over*. The sentence in which the above mentioned words appeared was: *He shivered and turned over, trying to get comfortable, his stomach rumbling with hunger*. The English answers were scored in a similar way. If the participant's definition of the unknown word was clear enough, that is, he could communicate the meaning of the word clearly, he or she received 3 points. If the

meaning of the word could be found out from the definition, although it was not specific enough, 2 points were given. This was the case in the following explanation of *dangling*: *When something is in the air*. 1 point was received if the description was too general such as *a noise* for *creak*. Grammatical and spelling mistakes were not taken into consideration in the correction.

Another important aspect was to find out which answer, the Hungarian or the English, came first into students' mind. In the questions, the English description was asked first and then the Hungarian: What does *ferociously* mean in line1? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is! Thus, it was examined if the Hungarian or the English answer was written down as the first one or vice versa. It was assumed that this would be an initial step towards understanding students' approach to learning vocabulary. According to my hypothesis, the participants from the monolingual group would give the English descriptions first, whereas students from the translation group would write down the Hungarian answers first. Furthermore, I wanted to know the relationship between group membership (i.e. translation vs. monolingual group) and the quality of learners' Hungarian and English answers. It was hypothesized that the translation group would achieve better results in giving Hungarian equivalents, whereas the monolingual group was thought to outperform the translation group in the English descriptions part of the test.

4.5. Results and discussion

Observation of the lessons

During the translation lessons the researcher noted that the students got excited when they noticed the books on the teacher's table. Prior to the lesson they kept asking each other if they were going to translate Harry Potter. It seems that translation was considered an interesting topic. Furthermore, according to the students and their teacher of English, the exercises provided something different from a usual English class, which was definitely an advantage. It was found that none of the participants had checked out the translators of the books they had read. Seemingly, students were surprised to realize that many of the books that they had read were actually translations; thus, this part of the lesson was indeed an "eye opening" exercise for them (Takimoto and Hashimoto, 2010). This suggests that translation exercises might be useful to make students aware of the phenomenon of translation.

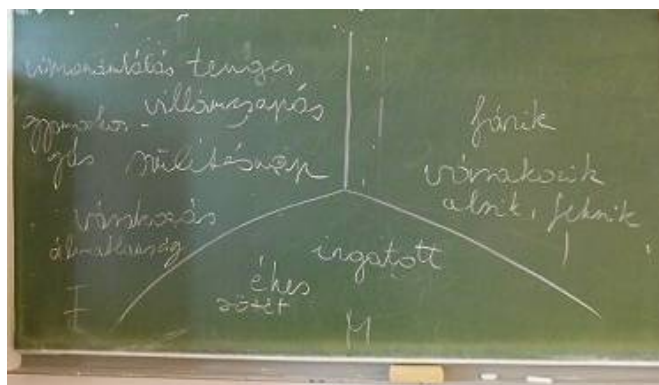
Surprisingly, in Group A (tenth grade) only a few students had read the book but everybody had seen the movies. In Group B (eleventh grade), on the other hand, most of the students had read the books in Hungarian and there was a student, who had started reading it in English. This distinction might be worth taking into consideration as it could indicate the difference between different generations of learners. To address the younger generation it could prove useful to use modern technology as a means of implementing translation in the classroom. For example, McLoughlin's (2009) study marvellously demonstrates the progressive, modern use of school translation. She used subtitling software such as "LeviS" (Learning via Subtitling) to provide video material for the translation task.

Students were creative in describing the atmosphere of the text. It was thought that, as professional translators, they could place themselves into the situation of the main character of the story, which helped them reconstruct the situational context of the ST. This sort of creativity is important to exploit in language teaching. The translation exercises proved to be an effective means to do so. In the first photo of the board, words collected by Group A1 can be seen, whereas in the second one, the solutions of Group B1 are documented (Photo 1 and Photo 2).

Photo 1:



Photo 2:



Evidently, the role of the teacher was important, as she could lead students' attention and creativity to a learning path, thus, she embodied intentional learning (see section 2.2).

When the participants had to translate the text individually, they seemed to be absorbed in their work. In the following discussion they were interested in the possible solutions and had a lot of fun during this part of the lesson. In general, they did not have any problems with choosing the right grammatical structures and words. With the help of the L1 they were able to capture every nuance of the different meanings. This was noticed by the students' teacher of English too, who thought that the translation exercises helped clarifying the meaning of the words. Furthermore, the participants found it interesting how words can be used in a metaphorical way, such as in this sentence: *Dudley's snores were drowned by the low rolls of thunder*. Although the participants had checked out the verb *to drown*, it took some time for them to recognize this special usage of the word. It is believed that this sort of exercise helped them to find out the "underlying concept" (Nation, 2001, p. 51) of the versatile meanings. It was the teacher who helped them finding the suitable solutions by referring to the context.

The translator's freedom was a matter for debate. There were some students in both translation groups, who tended to move towards a less literal translation of the text, although their translations were often inaccurate. This was noticed by their classmates, who had a few criticisms to make about these translations. The official translation of Harry Potter also attracted criticism. For example, Tóth Tamás Boldizsár, the Hungarian translator, had a less literal translation in mind for the following sentence: *He shivered and turned over, trying to get comfortable, his stomach rumbling with hunger*. His solution was: *Harry nem tudott elaludni, csak vacogott és forgolódott. Próbált kényelmesen elhelyezkedni, de nem csak a padló volt hepehupás, hanem a gyomra is korgott*. Students immediately noticed that the translator separated the sentence of the ST into two sentences in the TT. They did not understand how it was possible to use words that were not part of the ST such as *padló*. Then, the teacher explained them that although translations have to be accurate in order to convey the meaning of the ST, this did not mean that only literal translations of the ST are acceptable. This debate on the possible solutions could support one of my hypotheses, namely, that translation might be an intellectually challenging exercise, which triggers critical thinking.

According to the teacher, the translation tasks enabled students to take part in elaborate, individual exercises. These kinds of tasks, she thinks, are vital to implement in the classroom, because they provide an intellectual challenge for teenagers that is extremely important for today's generations.

Similarly to the translation groups both the participants and the teacher seemed to enjoy the monolingual lessons as well. Students performed the tasks with alacrity and were creative in their answers and suggestions. As students were not allowed to speak in their mother tongue, the teacher had to find different ways to explain the unknown words. She often used descriptions, gestures and body language to do so. Finding out the meaning of the words without using the L1 was an intellectually challenging task for the students and it often created funny situations, during which students learned a lot. For example, when the teacher explained the word *to creak* she started walking on the wooden floor of the classroom. Later, in the test, some students explained the word in English like this: *a noise; when the teacher walks on the floor*. This shows how important these situations are as students could gain lifelong experiences through them. If students have such images in their mind, it might be easier for them to memorize words. Similarly, one of the funniest part of the lesson was when the teacher described the word *to snore* by saying *fathers often do this*. The participants burst out in laughter and some of them referred to this part of the lesson in their test. As can be seen, in the monolingual classes, the teacher had to give more help to the participants to clarify the meanings of the words. Thus, in case of monolingual language teaching more time is needed to explain the words and their usages.

It was interesting to see, furthermore, that in the monolingual lessons the more talented students seemed to "rule the class", that is to say some participants did not take part in the lessons as actively as their classmates. For example in the first exercise, when students were asked to give a title to the excerpt, some of them came up with several solutions, while others remained silent. Evidently, the aim of English classes would be to use as much English as possible, however, in some cases it might prove useful to use translation exercises to trigger active participation in class. This suggestion is in line with Corcoll's (2012) findings, namely that the L1 could maintain motivation in the classroom (see section 2.1).

Results of the tests

Table 1 displays the test results of learners in the experimental (i.e. translation) and the monolingual groups.

Table 1 Comparison of translation and monolingual groups:

Group:	Group A1 (translation)	Group A2 (monolingual)	Group B1 (translation)	Group B2 (monolingual)
Average of Hungarian answers:	21	15,25	22,4	18,8
Average of English answers:	16,75	10,12	13,8	13,2
Hungarian answers as the first ones:	7	4	6	6
English answers as the first ones:	1	3	1	2
Only Hungarian answers:	0	1	2	1

The quantified results of the tests show that the translation groups outperformed the monolingual classes in both the English and the Hungarian answers, although in Group B the difference between the monolingual and the translation groups was not remarkable. (A possible reason for this might be that Group B was less homogeneous.) This was somewhat surprising because, according to my hypothesis, the students from the monolingual group would perform better in giving English descriptions. Nevertheless, the results suggest that the use of the L1, as an inevitable part of translation tasks, did not prevent the participants from giving proper English descriptions. One of the possible reasons for this might be that the translation task provided an authentic English context, in which the L2 word appeared. Thus, it was not decontextualized word pairs that were taught. Furthermore, knowing the Hungarian words may have been enough because the participants had the satisfactory knowledge of English to provide acceptable definitions.

Despite the fact that the English explanations of the words were asked first, the majority of the participants started answering the questions in Hungarian. It has to be said, however, that in Group A2 (monolingual group) the difference is not relevant. There were 3 students who chose to begin with the English answers, whereas there were 4 students who did otherwise. On the other hand, in Group B2 (the other monolingual group) most of the students preferred Hungarian answers first. As mentioned Group B was less homogeneous, so it might be the case that those students who did not have the satisfactory knowledge of English relied

more on their mother tongue to capture the meaning of the words irrespective of the fact that the lesson was held in English. This data might suggest that, when learning vocabulary, students rely on their mother tongue more than one would think.

Approximately the same points were received for the English and Hungarian questions. Nevertheless, the discrepancy between the results of the L1 and L2 answers is the consequence of the fact that in some cases students knew the meaning of a word in Hungarian but they provided an imprecise English explanation, thus, they did not receive as many points as for the Hungarian answer. Furthermore, although the participants were asked to answer both the English and Hungarian questions, some of them gave only Hungarian answers. In Groups A2 and B2 there was one such test, whereas in Group B1 there were two. In Group A1 there was not such a test. These trends can be witnessed in both the monolingual and translation groups as can be seen in Table 1. Again, this might suggest that the translation task did not have a deleterious effect on L2 use.

Conclusions

To sum it up, in my research I examined the effectiveness of school translation and monolingual teaching in enriching vocabulary knowledge. Considering previous findings of other researchers (Belpoliti and Plascencia-Vela, 2013; Martín-Martín, 2013; Ramachandran and Rahim, 2004) I hypothesized that the process of translation would result in considerable vocabulary gain.

The observation of the lessons implies that students enjoyed both the monolingual and translation classes. Moreover, the overall results of the tests suggest that both monolingual teaching and translation tasks resulted in vocabulary gain; however, the translation groups outperformed the monolingual ones. As mentioned in section 2.2, Ramachandran and Rahim (2003) carried out a research, in which they made a similar comparison. The researchers' results are in line with the findings of my case study, that is to say the translation group outperformed the monolingual one (see section 2.2).

During the translation classes it was vital to use the L1 judiciously as Butzkamm (2003) argues. Furthermore, great emphasis was put on the processing stage and intentional learning (Martín-Martín, 2013). I found that the teacher's role is of utmost importance as he or she could embody intentional learning. Thus, it is assumed that these are the three most

important elements of school translation: (1) judicious L1 use, (2) elaborate processing stage, (3) intentional learning embodied by the teacher.

There are several limitations of the present research. The number of participants was low and all of them were from the same school. Also, as mentioned earlier, Group B (eleventh grade) was less homogeneous than Group A (tenth grade), which may have altered my results. I would also note here that my time in the classroom was limited and I had only one lesson with each group. This prevented me from carrying out a longitudinal study, which would have better reflected on advantages and possible disadvantages of school translation.

Considering the limitations of my paper, I would argue that in the future quantitative research is needed to validate the findings of my case study. Qualitative research is also important as they could provide valuable experiences. These experiences are essential for building a solid methodological basis for school translation. For example, it would be beneficial to carry out research on the relationship between school translation and productive vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, other aspects of school translation might be worth testing. Using translation to improve reading skills both in the L1 and the L2 is one such particular area. In her presentation, Júlia Lázár reflected on this issue. The presentation was titled "A műfordítás mint módszer az angol nyelv és kultúra megismerésére a középiskolában" and was held at Pázmány Péter Catholic University, on the 25th of October, 2013. Lázár built on teenagers' creativity and used translation exercises effectively to improve the reading skills of her students. Finally, the effectiveness of school translation in case of languages other than English should also be examined. On the one hand, these studies would help us identifying general guidelines of using translation in the classroom; on the other hand they would trigger reflection on the specific aspects of learning different languages.

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Appendix 1:

J. K. Rowling: Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone (Excerpt)

"The storm raged more and more ferociously as the night went on. Harry couldn't sleep. He shivered and turned over, trying to get comfortable, his stomach rumbling with hunger. Dudley's snores were drowned by the low rolls of thunder that started near midnight. The lighted dial of Dudley's watch, which was dangling over the edge of the sofa on his fat wrist, told Harry he'd been eleven in ten minutes' time. He lay and watched his birthday tick nearer, wondering if the Dursleys would remember at all, wondering where the letter writer was."

"Five minutes to go. Harry heard something creak outside. He hoped the roof wasn't going to fall in, although he might be warmer if it did. Four minutes to go. Maybe the house in Privet Drive would be so full of letters when they got back that he'd be able to steal one somehow."

"Three minutes to go. Was the sea, slapping hard on the rock like that? And (two minutes to go) what was that funny crunching noise? Was the rock crumbling into the sea?"

"One minute to go and he'd be eleven. Thirty seconds... twenty...ten...nine – maybe he'd wake Dudley up, just to annoy him – three...two...one..."

"BOOM."

Appendix 2:

1. What does *ferociously* mean in line1? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
2. What does *shivered* mean in line2? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
3. What does *rumbling* mean in line3? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
4. What does *snores* mean in line3? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
5. What does *drowned* mean in line4? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
6. What does *dangling* mean in line5? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
7. What does *creak* mean in line10? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
8. What does *slapping* mean in line15? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
9. What does *crunching* mean in line16? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!
10. What does *crumbling* mean in line17? - Explain it in English. Add meg a szó magyar jelentését is!

Appendix 3:

A. Circle the correct words

1. The battles slapped/raged/lighted for several days.
2. The noise was watched/rumbled/drowned by the music.
3. The walls of the church are beginning to crumble/rumble/slap.
4. She sat on the fence with her legs dangling/rumbling/creaking.
5. I was so hungry that my stomach was rolling/rumbling/crunching.

B. Match the words

- | | |
|--------------|------------|
| 1. fat | a. snow |
| 2. lighted | b. beast |
| 3. ferocious | c. dial |
| 4. crunching | d. wrist |
| 5. crumbling | e. stomach |
| 6. rumbling | f. rock |