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Towards a Reconsideration of the Role of Translation as a Fifth Skill in the Learning of Vocabulary: The Case of Third-year Students at the Department of English, University of Constantine1

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Dedications

In the Name of God, Most Merciful, Most Compassionate

I dedicate this work to:

-My loving and caring parents Kaddour and Fatima Kherrib for their help, motivation, love, and patience, without them this work would have never been achieved.

-My sisters Amel, Sabrina, Amina, and Halima

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Abstract

Recently, many researchers have questioned the outright dismissal of translation from the foreign language classroom and called for reassessing its role. Moreover, some scholars welcomed it as a fifth skill alongside reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This study argues for the rehabilitation of translation in the context of teaching and learning foreign languages. It attempts to reconsider the rejection of translation and also to provide more empirical support to the literature in favour of it. So, it was hypothesised that if translation (Arabic-English-Arabic) helped in promoting learning vocabulary as the other four skills do, it would be considered as a fifth skill. To check the hypothesis, this study used both quantitative and qualitative methods. First, questionnaires were administered to teachers of Translation Practice module and third-year Applied Language Studies students at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1 to probe their views regarding the use of translation in general and its usefulness in learning vocabulary -in particular. Second, it incorporated two experiments. The first experiment focused on quantitative analysis to investigate the extent to which translation can help in learning lexical items. The second experiment -a thinking-aloud protocols study- was used to gain an in-depth understanding of how translation may promote the learning of vocabulary. The results of the questionnaires showed that the majority of teachers and students believe that translation deserves to be integrated as a fifth skill acknowledging its role in promoting vocabulary learning. The results of experiment # 1 revealed that translation helped students in learning lexical items, especially after the in-class discussion. The analysis of the experiment # 2 showed that translation may serve the learning of vocabulary in many ways as the other four skills do. To sum up, the findings of this research lent more support to the stated hypothesis.

*Keywords***: fifth skill, translation, vocabulary learning**

List of Abbreviations and Coding Conventions

ALM   Audiolingual method

Ar   Arabic

CA   Contrastive Analysis

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

DM   Direct Method

ELT   English Language Teaching

En   English

FL   Foreign Language

GTM   Grammar-translation Method

L1   First Language

L2   Any language other than L1

N   Number

NA   Natural Approach

RM   Reform Movement

Q   Question

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

ST   Source Text

TP   TP Translation Practice

TS   Translation Studies

VKS   Vocabulary Knowledge Scale

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Symbols for Arabic Transcription

ء	ʔ
ب	b
ت	t
ث	t̲
ج	J
ح	ḥ
خ	X
د	d
ذ	d̲
ر	r
ز	z
س	s
ش	š
ص	ṣ
ض	ḍ
ط	ṭ
ظ	ẓ
ع	ʕ
غ	ġ
ف	f
ق	q
ك	k
ل	l
م	m
ن	n
ه	h
و	w
ي	y
◌َ	a
◌ُ	u
◌ِ	i
◌ً	an
◌ٌ	un
◌ٍ	in

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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

With the advent of the monolingual principle entrenched by the Reform Movement of the late nineteenth century and exponents of the Direct Method, translation has been treated, for a long time, as a skeleton in the closet. Recently, however, many researchers have questioned the monolingual principle and called for the reassessment of the role of translation in the foreign language classroom (G. Cook, 2010; Leonardi, 2010; Malmkjaer, 2010). They asserted that what had been rejected is a teaching methodology (the Grammar-Translation Method) and not translation in its real sense. Furthermore, a number of researchers went to consider it as a fifth skill alongside Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. This study argues for a rehabilitation of translation in the foreign language classroom. It questions the entrenched assumption that translation hinders the learning of a foreign language and argues that translation deserves a comeback, especially as a fifth skill at the advanced level.

2. Aims of the Study

At first, the point of departure was that translation classes help in learning new vocabulary and in activating and consolidating previous vocabulary knowledge. After digging deep in the literature on the subject, we discovered an area that has recently gained attention by many scholars, which is that translation can be considered as a fifth skill in the foreign language classroom.

The aim of this research is twofold. First, it reconsiders the rejection of translation from the foreign language classroom and evaluates objections against it. Second, it attempts to lend more empirical support to the literature in favour it. More specifically, it investigates its role in learning vocabulary.

3. Research Questions and Hypothesis

Following Popovic (2001) who suggested that 'if a strong case for translation in the language classroom is to be made, at least three things ought to be demonstrated: that criticisms against it are not valid, that learners need it, and that it promotes their learning' (p. 3), this research attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Is the rejection of translation a legitimate one?
2. Is translation an inevitable part in the process of learning a foreign language?
3. What are the teachers and students' beliefs about translation in language teaching and learning?
4. Does the act of translating (Arabic-English-Arabic) help in learning, consolidating, and enlarging vocabulary?
5. Will students gain significantly after a subsequent in-class discussion?
6. Can learners retain word forms and meanings one week, for example, after they translate the text and discuss its translation with the teacher?
7. In what ways does Arabic-English-Arabic translation serve the learning of vocabulary?

Based on the above questions, the following hypothesis was posited:

If translation helped in the promotion of learning vocabulary as reading, writing, listening, and speaking do, it would be considered as a fifth skill.

4. Means of Research

The population of interest for this study are teachers of Translation Practice module and third-year students at the Department of Letters and English Language, University Constantine 1. The students' sample involves 90 Applied Language Studies students chosen randomly. The reason behind working with these subjects is that they had

Translation Practice module in their second year and as an important subject in their third year.

This study is a mixed methods research. It combines quantitative and qualitative methods to collect the needed data. It uses questionnaires and two experiments. First, a questionnaire is administered to the teachers of Translation Practice module to elicit information about the views teachers hold regarding: the use of translation in the foreign language classroom, the role of translation in enhancing the learning of vocabulary, and its integration as a fifth skill alongside reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Second, another questionnaire is administered to third year Applied Language Studies students. This questionnaire helps in knowing about the extent to which students employ translation strategy in their learning and also about students' beliefs regarding its usefulness in learning vocabulary and about the idea of integrating translation as a fifth skill.

Finally, to investigate the efficacy of translation in the learning of English lexis, two experiments are incorporated. The first experiment goes through four stages: the pretest, the translation task followed by a classroom discussion, the posttest, and the back-translation as a delayed posttest. The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) proposed by Paribakht and Wesche (1993) will be adapted both as a pretest and a posttest. The translation and back-translation productions will also be assessed in terms of using the target words. It is assumed that this experiment will help us track the qualitative and quantitative improvements in vocabulary knowledge to measure the extent to which translation may aid in learning lexis. The second experiment is a thinking-aloud protocols study. It is used to gain an in –depth understanding of how the act of translation may help in learning vocabulary.

5. Structure of the Study

This thesis embraces four chapters. The first two chapters are devoted to the theoretical framework and the literature review. The two other chapters are practical.

Chapter One opens with tackling some terminological issues related to the subject and provides a brief account about theories of language and language learning which influenced language teaching methodologies. Then, it revisits the main trends of language teaching methodologies during the 20th century to reconsider the rejection of translation. Finally, it finishes with a critical discussion of the rejection of translation in the method era.

Chapter Two reviews the literature on the revival of translation in the 21st century. It describes the break with the method concept and the shift to the postmethod pedagogy. It also sketches how the monolingual tenet has been questioned and how translation has gained importance as a fifth skill in the postmethod pedagogy. It re-evaluates the widespread objections to translation and reviews the empirical literature on the usefulness of translation in learning foreign languages. Finally, it closes with reviewing the literature on the main sources of vocabulary learning and how translation can serve the learning of vocabulary.

Chapter Three is consecrated to the analysis of the teachers and students questionnaires. The main aim of the questionnaires is to probe their views about using translation in the foreign language classroom, its role in learning vocabulary, and about the idea of integrating it as a fifth skill.

Chapter Four is devoted to experimental work. The aim of the experiments is to investigate the efficacy of Arabic-English-Arabic translation in learning vocabulary

and also to shed light on how translation can serve vocabulary learning. This chapter reports the findings obtained from the two experiments and provides discussions of the results.

The thesis ends with a General Conclusion in which there is a round-up of all that was discussed throughout the four chapters. It also addresses the limitations of the study and offers some implications and suggestions for future research.

Chapter One

Translation in the Method Era: A Reconsideration of its Rejection

Chapter One

Translation in the Method Era: A Reconsideration of its Rejection

Introduction

This study addresses the issue of translation that has been illegitimately neglected for a long time in the teaching and learning of foreign languages and calls for a restoration of translation as a useful technique in the foreign language (FL) classroom. However, before any attempt to reinstate translation in the FL classroom, it is very important to reconsider its rejection at first place. Therefore, this chapter marks the ups and downs that translation had in the method era to ascertain whether it deserves a comeback. The chapter evenly reviews the main trends in language teaching in the 20th century and the roles they assigned to translation.

1.1. About Terminology

Howatt and Widdowson (2004) commented on the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of drawing absolute distinctions and boundaries between terms and notions used in the field of language teaching stating that 'tracing the origins of terms and expressions is a needle-in-a-haystack task with few clear-cut answers' (p. xv). Furthermore, G. Cook (2010) commented 'The terms involved in a discussion of translation in language teaching are like traps for a writer on the topic to fall into' (p. xxi). So, this section is only an attempt to provide some clarifications of terms and concepts that may hinder comprehension of this chapter and the forthcoming one, if not the whole thesis. Distinctions should be drawn namely between second/foreign language; acquisition/learning; approach/ method/technique; and L1/translation.

1.1.1. Second Vs Foreign Language

Whether to use 'second language' or 'foreign language' is an inherent problem in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The best way to make a distinction between these two terms is to try to answer the following two questions:

1. Does 'second language' contrast with 'foreign language'?
2. Are these terms used interchangeably?

Two aspects make the difference between 'second language' and 'foreign language'. The first one is related to the role played by the language in a given community. A language is said to be a 'second' language if it 'has social functions within the community where it is learnt (e.g. as a lingua franca or as the language of another social group)', and it is said to be a 'foreign' language if it 'is learnt primarily for contact outside one's own community' (Littlewood, 1984, p. 2). The second aspect that differentiates 'second language' from 'foreign language' is the context in which the language is picked up. Learning a second language is 'learning a language that is spoken in the surrounding community' so, it is absorbed naturally and spontaneously via contact with natives of that language. In contrast, learning a foreign language is 'learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community' (Yule, 2006, p. 162). It is typical to intended learning in instructional classrooms like the case of English in Algeria.

Despite these clear differences between 'second language' and 'foreign language', many if not all researchers in the field of SLA use them interchangeably or they use 'second language' to cover both of them (Littlewood 1984; Ellis, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Yule 2006). Other generic phrases are also used such as (language teaching/learning,

language for non-natives, language for speakers of other languages, or simply the target language). 'L2' is also frequently used to refer to any language learned after the native language, be it the third or the fifth one. G. Cook (2010) coined the term 'the new language' which, according to him, contrasts with 'own language' that he used to refer to the native language. We must add, however, that the above distinction may be useful if used to refer to languages other than English. English today is a 'global language' Crystal (2003) that people worldwide see it an asset in their lives (education, internet, politics, commerce, and socialisation).

Authors of books on approaches and methods of language teaching (Stern, 1983; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004) used the two terms foreign and second interchangeably. Hence, the present work treats second language and foreign language as synonymous.

1.1.2. Acquisition Vs Learning

Closely related to the second/foreign distinction is the inherent problem in using the two terms 'acquisition' and 'learning'. According to Krashen (1982), acquiring and learning a second language are two different ways for adults to develop a L2 competence. He differentiated between the two processes maintaining that

> Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication […] In non-technical language, acquisition is "picking-up" a language [language learning refers] to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them. In non-technical terms, learning is "knowing about" a language, known to most people as "grammar", or "rules" (p. 10).

Krashen's distinction caused heated debate in the field of SLA (Ellis, 1997; Ellis, Elder, Erlam, Philp, and Reinders, 2009). Oxford (1990), for example, considered the above distinction as 'too rigid' and claimed that both acquisition and learning are essential processes in developing communicative competence suggesting that 'a learning-acquisition continuum is more accurate than a dichotomy in describing how language abilities are developed' (p. 4).

So, on the face of it, it seems that acquisition collocates with 'second language' and learning collocates with 'foreign language'. However, because these are indiscriminate distinctions, many researchers in the field of SLA use 'acquisition' and 'learning' interchangeably (Ellis 1985 & 1997; Oxford, 1990; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Dornyei, 2009) and they use 'second language acquisition' to refer to foreign language learning.

In order to raise the problem of the above blurred distinctions, it is wise to define the scope of SLA. SLA, sometimes referred to as Second Language Studies (SLS), became an autonomous field in the 1960s (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Ellis (1985) defined the scope of SLA pointing out that

> *Second* language stands in contrast to *first* language acquisition. It is the study of how learners learn an additional language after they have acquired their mother tongue […] *Second* language acquisition is not intended to contrast with *foreign* language acquisition. SLA is used as a general term that embraces both untutored (or 'naturalistic') acquisition and tutored (or 'classroom') acquisition. (p. 5).

1.1.3. Approach/Method/Technique

Deciding what approaches and methods of language teaching to be included in this study needs drawing the distinction between the terms approach, method, and

technique. In his attempt to describe language teaching practices, Anthony (1963) faced a problem in using the three terms approach, method, and technique and so he formulated the following framework that clearly distinguished between them:

> The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach (….)…An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught (….) Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.
>
>   Within one approach, there can be many methods (…)…A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.
>
> (As cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 19)

From the above self-explanatory framework, it is clear that these terms cannot be used interchangeably. Approach is the most general term and it refers to a theory or a set of theories and principles about language teaching and learning. Method is the realisation of an approach. It can be considered as a plan of how the process of teaching will take place in the classroom, it is, in other words, concerned with the strategies that can better translate theory into practice. Technique is the application of plans and procedures in the classroom; it is 'the actual point of contact with the students' (V. Cook, 2008, p. 235).

However, many researchers took Anthony's (1967) framework as their starting point and reformulated it to suit their interests (Richards & Rodgers, 1982; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). So, different realisations, and interpretations of Anthony's framework led to the emergence of new frameworks that further complicated the use of the terms approach, method, and technique. There is no systematic description of language teaching practices throughout the history of language teaching, especially with the proliferation of methods in the 1970s and 1980s. Kumaravadivelu (2006) commented on this state of affairs stating that:

> Even the authors of popular textbooks on methods are not sure of the number of methods that are out there. A book published in the mid 1960s, for instance, has listed 15 "most common" types of methods […] Two books published in the mid-1980s (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; and Richards & Rodgers, 1986) provided, between them, a list of 11 methods. The same two books, in their revised, second editions published in 2000 and 2001 respectively, contain between them nearly twenty methods' (p. 163).

Since the blurred distinction between approach and method has been acknowledged by authoritative writers in the field of language teaching, the present study uses the two terms approach and method interchangeably to refer to the main proposals in the history of language teaching as described and conceptualised by theorists and language experts. So, based on (Stern 1983; Larsen-Freeman 2000; Brown 2001; Celce-Murcia 2001; Richards & Rodgers 2001), we will talk about ten main transitions in language teaching methodology during the twentieth century, namely, the Grammar-translation Approach, the Reform Movement, the Direct Approach, the Reading Approach, Audiolingualism, the Oral-Situational Approach, the Cognitive Approach, the

Affective-humanistic Approach, the Communicative Approach, and the Natural Approach.

1.1.4. L1/Translation

This study is an attempt to a reconsideration of the role of translation in the FL classroom. But the issue of translation in language teaching is always related to the issue of first language (L1) (Newmark, 1991; Jones, 2001; Witte, Harden, and Ramos de Oliveira Harden, 2009; G. Cook, 2010) and they are frequently associated with the GTM. Thus, they had the same ups and downs throughout the history of language teaching methodology.

When the L1 is not allowed to be used in the FL classroom, the approach is described as monolingual or intralingual. If the L1 is permitted to be used to aid in teaching and learning the FL, the approach is said to be bilingual, inter-lingual, or cross-lingual. L1 can be employed in the teaching and learning of the target language in many ways (explanation, code-switching, translation, subtitling, etc.). So, translation is one amongst other ways in which the L1 can be used in the FL classroom. Thus, a support for bilingual teaching may also, as G. Cook (2010) pointed out, means a support for translation. He posited that 'once the students' own language is allowed and encouraged, it is unrealistic to suppose that it can be confined to some uses of the mother tongue and not allowed in others' (p. xix). However, translation, as an activity, is different from other uses of L1 in that it involves different skills (Leonardi, 2011). So, defining the term translation is part and parcel of this study.

In spite of the fact that many researchers agree on that translation is very difficult to define (Newmark, 1991), some researchers offered possible definitions to it. According to Catford (1965, p. 20), translation is 'the replacement of textual material

in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)'. Nida & Taber (1969, p. 12) considered translation as the process of 'reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style'. Newmark (1988, p. 5) suggested a possible definition to translation as the process of 'rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text'.

So, translation is a creative activity whereby the translator employs his knowledge of two or more languages. This study is concerned with reconsidering the role of pedagogical translation in the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

1.2. Theories of Language and Language Learning

The rise and fall of methods in the history of language teaching were not there by mere chance but they, in fact, were brought about by changes in the needs for learning foreign languages and changes of views in linguistics and psychology (Stern, 1983). Despite the fact that theories of language and language learning were concerned with how children learnt their first languages, they contributed to a great extent in shaping L2 teaching methodology. In effect, there was always a tendency among methodologists to keep abreast of the new ideas of psychologists and linguists in constructing methods of teaching. Therefore, providing an overview about the major changes in linguistics and psychology in the 20th century is an essential step before embarking on talking about practices of language teaching in the 20th century and the views they held regarding the issue of using translation in the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

To suit the aim of the present research, this section reminds us with the major changes in linguistics and psychology in the twentieth century. We keep in line with

Usó-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) who grouped major changes in linguistics and psychology under three approaches to language learning and teaching: Environmentalist (Behaviourism and Structuralism), Innatist (Rationalism and Cognitive Psychology), and Interactionist (Constructivism and Sociolinguistics) and we will also deal with Krashen's theory of second language acquisition.

1.2.1. The Environmentalist Approach

The environmentalist approach influenced language teaching methodology in the 1940s and 1950s. It drew its theories from structuralism and behaviourism. Both theories explained language learning in terms of habit formation and they emphasised the role of the environment. They held the belief that children pick up language from their community.

1.2.1.1. Structuralism

By the end of the nineteenth century, a number of languages were on the verge of extinction. The fact that many of those languages had no written system, "field linguistics" emerged and linguists assumed that studying spoken data could help in structuring the languages in danger of dying out. By the start of the twentieth century, De Saussure, the pioneer of structuralism, proposed, in collaboration with other linguists, his dichotomy "langue-parole" and he developed a set of procedures for analysing the observable data collected from speakers' actual speech 'corpus' (parole). They suggested that breaking up speech into segments (phonemes, morphemes, words … etc.) could help in structuring languages. Later on, in his groundbreaking book '*Language*' (1933), the American linguist Bloomfield systematised the analytic procedures proposed by de Saussure and his associates and influenced by early behaviourists' ideas, he adopted a scientific approach in analysing languages and so he

studied only the concrete and the observable (parole). His linguistics came to be known as *structuralism* (Johnson, 2008).

1.2.1.2. Behaviourism

Skinner (1957), the prime mover of behaviourism as regards language learning, developed his 'Operant Conditioning' based on the work of early behaviourists who held that human beings and animals were born as a tabula rasa. He explained language learning from a behaviourist point of view and extrapolating from his laboratory experiments on animals, he regarded learning language as a matter of habit formation. Thus, he emphasised the crucial role of imitation, practice, and reinforcement in the process of language learning (Usó-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). Skinner (1957) adopted a scientific approach in investigating the learning process and to maintain the scientific criterion of 'objectivity', he studied only the observable (parole) and ignored the importance of mental processes (Brown, 2000). Jordan, Carlile, and Stack (2008, p. 33) provided the basic tenets of behaviourism:

- Behaviourism focuses on observable learning events as demonstrated by stimulus and response relationships.

- Learning always involves a change in behaviour.

- Mental processes should be excluded from the scientific study of learning.

- The laws governing learning apply equally to all organisms, including human organisms.

- Organisms begin life as blank slates: there are no innate laws of in behaviour.

- Learning results from external events in the environment.

- Behaviourism is a deterministic theory: the subject has no choice but to respond to appropriate stimuli.

The manifestation of structuralism and behaviourism, as we will see, can easily be seen in Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching and the application of Contrastive Analysis (CA) in language teaching. Moreover, it was only when Structuralism developed in America that did linguistics assume its right status in the development of teaching methods (Stern, 1983).

1.2.2. The Innatist Approach

Chomsky (1957) explained transformational generative grammar and in 1959 he reviewed Skinner's *Verbal Behaviour* (1957). These two influential works led to the decline of both structuralism and behaviourism.

First, similar to de Saussure's dichotomy, 'langue and parole', Chomsky drew a distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. However, when 'competence' is the same to 'langue': 'the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language', 'performance' is different from 'parole' in that '[it] applies to the use of the system, whereas 'parole' applies to the products of the use of the system' (Lyons, 1995, p. 21). Chomsky postulated that performance should be idealised (freed from mistakes, hesitations, slips of the tongue, etc.) in order to describe competence. So, generative grammar was concerned with the study of competence. Chomsky claimed that there exist underlying rules (deep structures) that are transformed into the surface structures by the human mind. Thus, he was concerned with studying how the transformations take place in the learner's mind.

Second, when behaviourism came under attack by the late 1950s, psychologists drew on Chomsky's work in order to develop a more rigorous approach to the investigation of how languages were learned. They agreed with Chomsky in that accessing the learner's black box was possible which led to the emergence of cognitive

psychology that invoked the study of mental processes such as sensation, perception, attention, and memory.

Chomsky opposed the idea that language learning was a mechanical process and that human minds were considered to be 'blank slates' and considered learning the language as a creative activity. Creativity, he assumed, lied in that from a finite number of sentences, the normal human being could produce and understand an infinite number of sentences (Chomsky, 1972).

Furthermore, Chomsky claimed that every normal child was born with an apparatus that he called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD): 'A hypothetical mental organ dedicated to the acquisition of a first language' (Stockwell, 2007, p. 132) which he later on elaborated into 'universal grammar'. He asserted that invoking the human mind (the unseen and unobservable) into investigation was legitimate and possible. According to him the child already had the rules of his language system which he activated when interacting in the environment and so it had a relative importance in the learning process.

Despite the fact that Chomsky made it clear from the beginning that his linguistics was concerned with how the child acquired his first language, SLA researchers made use of his findings in investigating how second and foreign languages could be taught and learnt (Harmer, 1991).

1.2.3. The Interactionist Approach

The Interactionist approach has influenced the field of language teaching since the 1970s. It based its theories on sociolinguistics and constructivism which emphasise the role of context and communication.

1.2.3.1. Sociolinguistics

In the 1970s, there appeared many publications (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, Halliday, 1970; Hymes, 1972; Grice, 1975) which emphasised the study of language in relation to its social context and its users and their cultures which led to the emergence of the 'sociolinguistic revolution' (Johnson, 2008). This shift in linguistic paradigm, that can best be described as a shift from language usage to language use, contributed to the major shift in language teaching methodology in the 1970s from structural to communicative approaches, especially with the appearance of Hymes' work (1972) in which he addressed the limitations of Chomsky's 'linguistic competence' asserting that there "are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278). Hymes's 'communicative competence' (1972) is made up of four components:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible

2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible

3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate

4. Whether (and to what degree) something is done

Based on Hymes's 1972 studies, researchers developed other models of communicative competence to be adopted in the teaching of foreign languages. Canale and Swain (1980) identified three components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Savignon (2001), one of the most proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, identified four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence. Revising her proposed communicative competence model of (1995) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), Celce-Murcia (2007) proposed six components: sociocultural competence,

discourse competence, linguistic competence, formulaic competence, interactional competence, and strategic competence.

1.2.3.2. Constructivism

While cognitivism arose as a reaction to behaviourism, constructivism was a continuation of cognitivism (Jordan et al., 2008). Influenced by Chomsky's ideas, constructivists emphasised the role of cognition in the learning process. However, they did not ignore the role of external factors and the active role of the learner in constructing his knowledge.

Constructivists split into two groups. Cognitive Constructivists, with as a pioneer Piaget, focused on thinking and learning. Social Constructivists, with their leader Vygotsky, emphasised the role of community (people in school and out of school) and collaborative learning in the learning process (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2005). Jordan et al. (2008, p.65) provided the following basic ideas of constructivism:

- Knowledge is situated and constructed in social contexts.

- The learner is an active agent in the interpretation of the world.

- Constructivism focuses on meaning-making and the understanding of knowledge.

- Learning involves the interpretation of experience to construct meaning.

- Mental constructs may be modified as a result of confirmation or challenge.

- Other people are important in the formation and modification of mental constructs.

1.2.4. Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's works in the field of SLA are influential. His theory of second language acquisition (Monitor Model) had a great impact on second language teaching practices

(Ellis, 1997; Freeman & Freeman, 2004; Saville-Troike, 2006; Dornyei, 2009). It consists of the following five hypotheses:

a. The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis: Typical to Krashen is his dichotomy between acquisition and learning. According to him, learners can develop their proficiency in a second language in two ways; via acquisition and learning. Acquisition, he assumes, is a subconscious process of picking up the second language and it is similar to the process of acquiring the first language. Learning, he claims, takes place consciously and it results from formal teaching. According to Krashen, acquisition is more important than learning (Krashen, 1982).

b. The Natural Order Hypothesis: This hypothesis states that learners acquire the grammatical knowledge of a second language in a predictable order i.e., learners automatically learn some grammatical features before others (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

c. The Monitor Hypothesis: Krashen believes that when they focus on form and have time, learners may fall back on their learned system to correct their utterances generated from their acquired system (Krashen, 1982; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

d. The Input Hypothesis: Central to Krashen also is his emphasis on the important role of comprehensible input in acquiring a second language. He maintains that in order for acquisition to take place, the learner should be exposed to language input that is a bit beyond his actual level of proficiency which he refers to as 'i+1' (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

e. The Affective Filter Hypothesis: Krashen believes that affective factors (motivation, self-confidence, attitude, and anxiety) influence acquisition even if we

provide comprehensible input. Unmotivated and anxious learners, for example, are not expected to benefit from comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

1.3. Translation in the Method Era (Late 19th & 20th Centuries)

During the late nineteenth century and the twentieth century, language methodologists were obsessed by the search for the best method, a method that could fit all people in all contexts. This period in the history of language teaching is referred to as the method era. To meet that goal they drew on theories of language and language learning. So, to mark the ups and downs that translation knew in the method era, one can talk about two periods, before and after the 1960s.

1.3.1. Translation and Language Teaching (Late 19th Century-1960s)

From the late 19th century to the 1960s, language teaching methodology witnessed six major trends namely, the Grammar-translation Method, the Reform Movement, the Direct Method, the Reading Approach, the Audiolingual Method, and the Oral-situational Approach. This section reviews the literature on these methods and the role they gave to translation.

1.3.1.1. Translation Under the Grammar-translation Method

By the sixteenth century, and as a result of political changes, Latin lost its status as the dominant language in Europe and it was replaced by modern languages: French, Italian, and English. Although Latin became a dead language, people continued to teach and learn it in that it was thought to help exercising the human brain. Hence, a formal teaching of Latin was adopted as teaching grammar rules using isolated sentences, providing lists of vocabulary, translating sentences, and no importance was given to the oral skill. By the eighteenth century, there was an interest in studying

modern languages and they were taught using the same method employed in the teaching of Latin. This method became popular by the nineteenth century and came to be known as the Grammar-translation Method (GTM henceforth). Seidenstucker, Plötz, Ollendorf, and Meidinger were some exponents of the GTM (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In spite of the fact that the GTM was used in the teaching of foreign languages for centuries (Brown, 2001), it is a method for which there was no theory (Richard & Rodgers, 2001). Its main objective was to teach grammar rules and vocabulary with reference to the first language to make learners able to read the literature of the target language and as a way to exercise their mind (Stern 1983).

Before embarking on talking about the GTM features, it is very important here to note that the GTM used nowadays differs from its original version as used in the 19th century (Howatt, 1982) which we are concerned with in this discussion. So, the following are some principles of the GTM as used in the 19th century provided by Prator and Celce-Murcia (as cited in Brown, 2001, pp. 18-19):

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.

2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.

3. Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.

4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.

5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.

6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.

8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

Howatt (1982) argued that principles of the GTM 'were more extreme and more excessive at the end of the nineteenth century than they had been earlier, or than they have been more recently'. He described the way it was employed in the past stating that

> [T]eaching was obsessed with the written language to the exclusion of speech, and concentrated all its attention on the rote-learning of grammatical rules and their application to isolated and often incredibly silly sentences. Later, there might be some drearily worthy texts. There were endless lists to memorise, giving new words, exceptions by the score, fussy minor rules, etc., etc. (p. 265).

The following are model sentences that were used in the GTM:

- The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen.

- My sons have bought the mirrors of the Duke.

- The cat of my aunt is more treacherous than the dog of your uncle.

(Titone as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 4)

Despite the fact that the above sentences are grammatically correct, they are not feasible. The GTM, in fact, deprived the language of its communicative nature and this is why the GTM was criticised. It focused on teaching about the language and not on teaching it to enable students to use it. In effect, in the specialised literature of language teaching, the GTM era is referred to as the 'Dark Ages' (Zabalbeascoa, 1997, p. 120).

Coming now to the role the GTM assigned to translation, as its name suggests, translation assumed an important role under this method. It was, in fact, the only technique used in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. However, the GTM overused and misused translation which affected views about the usefulness of translation as a communicative activity for a long time (House, 2008). G. Cook (2010) reassessed the role of translation in language teaching and referred to it by 'the villain' (p. 9).

Günther, an early reformer that Vietor drew from his work, described the misuse and overuse of translation under the GTM pointing out that

> (the learner) reads his rules without thinking (*lese nur gedankenlos seine Regel*), learns them by heart without thinking (*gedankenlos lerne er sie auswendig*) and without thinking he translates the practice sentences designed to illustrate them (*und gedankenlos übersetze er dann die nach ihrer Schablone verfassten Übungssatze*)! (Howatt & Smith, 2002, p. xvi)

1.3.1.2. Translation in the Reform Movement

By mid-nineteenth century, and for commercial purposes, oral proficiency was an asset in Europe that the GTM totally neglected because it focused on analysing the language and not on teaching how to use it. That state of affairs led some individual specialists like Marcel, Prendergast, and Gouin to develop new methods to language teaching and they based their ideas on how children learned their first languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Later on, some language teachers, mainly phoneticians from Europe, like Vietor, Kühn, Franke, Sweet, Klinghardt, Passy, and Jespersen were intrigued by the ideas of individual specialists and searching for an alternative

approach to language teaching became a common purpose. Since then, reforms started to emerge and this became to be known as the Reform Movement (henceforth RM). It was a campaign against the GTM which lasted for twenty years starting with Viëtor's publication in 1882 '*Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!*' or 'Language teaching must change direction!' and ending with Jespersen's *How to Teach a Foreign Language* published in 1901 (Howatt & Smith, 2002).

Howatt and Smith (2002, p. ix) cited four principles of the RM:

(1) the spoken language should be emphasised; (2) classwork should be based on coherent texts, not absurd sentences; (3) grammar should be taught *after* the texts had been studied and not before; and (4) translation should be avoided and replaced by exercises in the foreign language

Looking at the previously mentioned principles of GTM, it is obvious that reforms developed in opposition to GTM.

As regards the role assigned to translation in the RM, the literature on the work of reformers of the 19th century (Howatt 1982, 1984a, 1984b; Howatt & Smith, 2002) revealed that they took differing and moderate views on the issue of translation in the FL classroom. Vietor considered translating into the foreign language as an art which was beyond the abilities of pupils but he tolerated its use to aid comprehension (Howatt, 1982), Franke tolerated L2-L1 translation to help comprehension (Howatt, 1984b); Sweet suggested the use of translation in the teaching of vocabulary (Hall & G. Cook, 2012), and Passy suggested the rejection of translation in the early stages (Howatt & Smith, 2002).

In their review of the individual reformer Jespersen, Howatt and Smith (2002) reported that Jespersen noted that the issue of whether or not to use translation in the

FL classroom was the most controversial among the other principles. He argued that translation was a hindrance, and so it should be kept to a minimum or totally rejected. However, they commented that based on the example that Jespersen provided, it was evident that he was against the overuse and misuse of translation as used in the past under the GTM. The following are some arguments put by Jespersen:

- Translation is too difficult to be devised to children

- L2-L1 translation is useless and harmful

- L1-L2 is too difficult to be handled to children

- Like certain chemical substances, languages should be kept apart in order to avoid the ugly consequences of mixing them

- Successful learners produce the foreign language without cross-lingual reference to the mother tongue (mental translation)

(Howatt & Smith, 2002, p. xliv)

Thus, based on the reviewed literature, one may say that reformers held moderate views towards the use of translation in the teaching and learning foreign languages. In this respect, Howatt (1982) stated that looked at from 'the vantage point of a century or so later, it [the Reform Movement] could be described as a middle-of-the-road compromise between the extreme bilingualism of the traditional approach [GTM] and the extreme monolingualism of the Direct Method' (p. 267). Furthermore, it has become clear that what reformers rejected was a teaching methodology (the GTM) that overused and misused translation and not translation in its real sense as G. Cook (2010) maintained an 'attack on Grammar Translation, however, whether successful or not, is not the same as one on the use of translation in general. Indeed the Reform Movement never made such a case' (p. 18).

1.3.1.3. Translation Under the Direct Method: Translation Under Attack

By the late 19th century, immigration, commerce, and tourism made it a must to teach and learn foreign languages. Hence, many people searched for a method that could develop and foster communication in foreign languages. By that time Berlitz founded his private schools for teaching foreign languages in America and Europe, known as Berlitz's schools, in which he adopted some techniques based on how children learnt their L1. Drawing on the work of reformers and Berlitz's ideas, the Direct Method (DM) came into being and was widely used in the teaching of foreign languages in public secondary schools (Stern, 1983; Brown, 2001).

Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 12) summarised the principles and techniques of the DM as follows:

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.

4. Grammar was taught inductively.

5. New teaching points were introduced orally.

6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasised.

The DM was a marked swing of the pendulum of language teaching methodology because it had a great impact on teaching practices throughout the 20th century.

Furthermore, 'One of the most lasting legacies of the Direct Method has been the notion of "method" itself' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 14).

As regards the role it gave to translation, the DM rigidly rejected translation and L1 from the FL classroom and all the literature traced back the rejection of translation to the DM (Hall & G. Cook, 2012). As its name indicates, the DM mimicked the process of L1 acquisition in learning the FL and so it emphasised the use of the target language as the medium of instruction in classrooms. It drew on the work of the19th century reformers and Berlitz who emphasised the following directions in his schools:

1. No translation under any circumstances

2. Emphasising oral work

3. No grammatical explanations till the end of the course

(Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 224)

Howatt and Widdowson (2004) asserted that Berlitz totally rejected translation from the FL classroom on the following premises:
'(i) translation wastes valuable language learning time which should be devoted entirely to the foreign language; (ii) translation encourages mother-tongue interference; and (iii) all languages are different' (op cit, p. 224).

However, it should be noted that all teachers employed in the Berlitz's schools were native-speakers of the target languages and that some classes were of students with different native languages. Therefore, there was no need to raise the issue of using translation and L1 (G. Cook, 2013).

The DM had a great influence on language teaching practices, especially concerning attitudes towards the use of L1 and translation. The monolingual principle has been entrenched in theories of language teaching since its emergence and as we

will see, translation has been glossed over for about one century that G. Cook (2010) marked as the period of 'long silence' in the history of translation in language teaching.

1.3.1.4. Translation Under the Reading Method

Unlike the Berlitz's private schools, the DM was impractical in public secondary schools. First, it emphasised the role of interaction and conversational activities that demanded the employment of either native-speaker teachers or teachers with native-like proficiency in the target language, something which was impossible to maintain. Second, the time allocated for the teaching of foreign languages was not enough for achieving target-like proficiency. So, as a reaction to the impracticality of the DM, the Coleman Report (1929) in America suggested the teaching of reading as the most useful skill. During the same period, West in Britain showed great interest in reading and called for improving the learning of vocabulary in order to develop the reading skills. This, eventually, paved the way for the Reading Method to sway alongside the GTM and the DM until World War II (Schmitt, 2000; Richards & Rodger, 2001).

Celce-Murcia (2001, pp. 6-7) cited the following principles of the reading method:

a. Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.

b. Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.

c. Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure.

d. Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasised.

e. The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.

The Reading Approach tolerated the use of translation and L1 in the FL classroom in that it reaffirmed the GTM, 'the handmaiden of reading' (Bowen et al. as cited in Brown, 2000, p. 74).

1.3.1.5. Translation Under the Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method (henceforth ALM) developed during the Second World War when the American government attempted to find an alternative approach to the GTM, the DM, and the Reading Method to enable military personnel to communicate effectively in different target languages. The Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was then established as an alternative in 1942 which later on came to be known as the 'Army Method' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) that by 1950s metamorphosed into the Audiolingual Method. The ALM took a variety of labels: 'aural-oral method', 'audiolingual', 'New Key', 'audiolingual habit theory', 'functional skills strategy' (Stern, 1983). Charles Fries from the University of Michigan had a valuable contribution to the development of the ALM hence, the term 'Michigan Method' was also used to refer to it (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

During the first half of the twentieth century behaviourism and structuralism were flourishing in America creating a fertile ground for the ALM to thrive. It was the first time that findings in linguistics and psychology were directly applied in constructing language teaching methods. Brooks and Lado, two proponents of the ALM, were intrigued by the ideas of Skinner (1957) who viewed the learning of language as any kind of learning i.e., a matter of habit-formation. Therefore, the ALM emphasised the roles of imitation and reinforcement. The ALM also drew on structural linguistics. Thus, it gave primacy to the oral medium and made use of contrastive analysis (CA). Comparing the two languages was thought to help overcome difficulties caused by the existing differences between the two systems in designing materials for teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Larsen-Freeman (2000) provided the following principles of ALM:

1. Using dialogues to teach the language and forms should appear in contexts.

2. The target language is the medium of instruction.

3. Learning the language is a question of habit formation through imitation and repetition.

4. Errors are detrimental and they lead to the formation of bad habits and so they should be corrected immediately.

5. Reinforcement is important to the learning process.

6. Syntax is primary to vocabulary.

7. Inductive teaching of grammar rules.

8. Comparing between the native language and the target language may help in teaching.

9. Speech is the fundamental language skill.

10. Culture, including the way of life of the native speakers of the target language, is part of language learning.

   Turning now to the role assigned to translation, the fact that the ALM was based on the behaviouristic theory of language learning, its proponents professed that the mother tongue could interfere with the learning of the foreign language. To Lado:

> individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture—both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives (as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 89).

Therefore, errors were not permissible and should be corrected with providing feedback. Proponents of the ALM, in other words, surmised that the L1 and the target language can be kept separated in the learner's mind.

Translation was also thought to mislead the learner to think that there exist one-to-one correspondences between expressions in his L1 and the target language and also to prevent him from thinking in the target language. Bloomfield made this more explicit when he said 'Translation into the native language is bound to mislead the learner, because the semantic units of different languages do not match, and because the student, under the practised stimulus of the native form, is almost certain to forget the foreign one' (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 505).

The ALM, to some extent revived the DM, emphasised the use of the FL as a medium of instruction and discouraged the use of L1 and translation. However, it used CA in constructing the syllabus which proved another time that translation and L1 were rejected based on common sense that has been made by proponents of the DM. Lado clearly acknowledged the usefulness of employing CA when he said:

> We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them (Lado, as cited in Odlin, 1989, p. 15).

1.3.1.6. Translation Under the Oral-situational Method

The Oral-situational method, also called Situational Language Teaching, emerged in the United Kingdom as a reaction to the Reading Method which failed to develop communicative skills. It lasted from the 1930s to the 1960s. Palmer and Hornby had a valuable contribution to the development of that approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Like the ALM, the underpinnings of Oral-situational method were behaviourism and structuralism. Thus, it gave prominence to the role of drilling and the speaking skill. The following are some principles and techniques that characterised the Oral-situational method:

1. The spoken language is primary.
2. All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).
3. Only the target language should be used in the classroom.
4. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
5. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
6. New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table).

(Celce-Murcia, 2001, p. 7)

The basic tenet of the Oral-situational method was the notion of "situation". In order to make students able to use what they learnt in the classroom in real-life-situations, structures and vocabulary items were taught in the contexts in which they might occur. Emphasising the idea that meaning should be deduced from the situation

in which the language is used, the Oral-situational approach discouraged the use of L1 and translation. As one of its proponents explained: if 'we give the meaning of a new word, either by translation into the home language or by an equivalent in the same language, as soon as we introduce it, we weaken the impression which the word makes on the mind' (Billows as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 41).

It must be noted, however, that despite the fact that Palmer, 'the father of British applied linguistics' (Stern, 1983) and one of Oral-situational method advocates, based his views on the DM and behaviourism, he took moderate views towards the use of translation. Howatt and Widdowson quoted him as saying 'Let us recognize frankly", he said, "that the withholding of an "official" or authentic translation does not prevent the student from forming faulty associations, but that, on the contrary, such withholding may often engender them' (Palmer as cited in Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 273). Furthermore, he wrote a bilingual course *The International English Course* (1944) (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

1.3.2. Translation and Language Teaching (1960s-1980s)

This section reviews the literature on the main trends in language teaching methodology from the 1960s to the 1980s to elicit information about the roles they assigned to translation.

1.3.2.1. Translation Under the Cognitive Approach

By the mid-sixties, the pendulum swung back to traditional approaches. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957), in which he explained his theory of transformational generative grammar, and his review (1959) of Skinner's *Verbal Behaviour* (1957) led to the decline of behaviourism and structuralism, the

underpinnings of ALM and the Oral-situational method. Chomsky attacked the concept of habit-formation in learning languages and acknowledged the role of mental processes and human creativity. He postulated that people could produce and understand utterances they never heard before. By that time, language methodologists were searching for an alternative method and so, they drew on Chomsky's work. The result was the emergence of the Cognitive Approach.

The Cognitive Approach (also called cognitive code-learning method) was the result of comparison between GTM, DM, and ALM. It came as a reaction to the ALM and as revival of some GTM and DM principles. Drawing on Chomsky's assumptions, the Cognitive Approach's main concern was to make learners understand rules of language and to consciously develop a 'competence' and to make them able to use that knowledge when they communicate genuinely in the target language (Stern, 1983). The following are some principles of this approach:

1. Language learning is not a habit-formation process. Learners consciously learn rules of grammar to be able to use them while communicating.
2. Reading and writing are as important as listening and speaking.
3. Rules are taught explicitly before practising them in communicative activities.
4. The first language may be used in the classroom in explaining grammatical rules.
5. Errors are considered to be developmental and that can be corrected.

<div align="right">(Krashen, 1982; Stern, 1983)</div>

Concerning the role assigned to translation by the Cognitive Approach, the applications of Chomsky's ideas, especially his competence/performance distinction brought about changes of views towards learners' errors which were manifested in the publications of Corder's 'The significance of learner's errors' (1967) and

'Interlanguage' by Selinker (1972). Contrastive Analysis was challenged in that it failed in predicting errors and also in that it claimed that L1 was the main source of errors (Odlin, 1989). Cognitivists proved that many errors were not attributable to interference but they were of an intralingual nature. Hence, they considered errors as developmental and natural in the process of language learning. They considered errors as signs that the learner is testing his hypotheses about the target language. So, the Cognitive Approach, 'a modified, up-to-date translation theory' (Carroll as cited in Ellis, N., 1994, p. 37), tolerated the use of L1 and translation in the teaching of foreign languages in that it considered errors as developmental rather than detrimental.

2.3.2.2. Translation Under the Affective-humanistic Approach

In the 1970s and as a reaction to the marginalised role of affective factors in the previous teaching practices, language teaching methodology witnessed a proliferation of affective-humanistic methods. Also known as 'Designer Methods', these methods were constructed by individuals acting outside the field of language teaching. Stevick (1990) enumerates the following: Community Language Learning (Curran a clinical psychologist), Suggestopedia also called Desuggestopedia (Lozanov a psychiatrist), the Silent Way (Gattegno a mathematician and general student of education), and Total Physical Response (Asher an experimental psychologist). Such methods advocated a humanistic approach to language teaching and learning and Celce-Murcia (2001) grouped them under one approach that she called the 'Affective-humanistic Approach'. The following are some principles of it:

1. Respect is emphasised for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his or her feelings.

2. Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasised.

3. Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.

4. Class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.

5. Peer support and interaction are viewed as necessary for learning.

6. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realisation experience.

7. The teacher is a counselor or facilitator.

8. The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out.

<div align="right">(Celce-Murcia, 2001, pp. 7-8)</div>

One way to preserve learner's identity and security is to respect his L1 and culture. All of the four humanistic methods tolerated the use of L1 in the first stages of learning and when the learner became familiar with the target language, the use of the L1 was minimised (Larsen-Freeman (2000). However, the four humanistic methods had different views towards the use of translation.

Community Language Learning (CLL) and Suggestopedia had direct use of translation. In CLL classes with beginner learners, translation was used to lessen anxiety. The procedure was that the learner said what he wanted to say in his first language and the teacher gave a translation to the learner's utterance in the target language. The learner then repeated what the teacher said accurately. Students also listened to the tape and gave the L1 translation and the teacher asked them to give equivalents to some words in the tape. When students became familiar with the target language, the use of translation was also minimised. In Suggestopedia, dialogues were presented with their L1 translation in a parallel column. It gave more importance to the

teaching and learning of lexis through memorisation of words and their equivalents in the native language (Brown, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

As its name indicates, in the Silent Way the teacher kept silent for most of the time. It also used new materials like rods and charts to present meaning instead of using translation as its originator clearly put:

> Throughout our oral work with the rods and the visual dictation on the charts, we have carefully avoided the use of the students' native languages. We have even succeeded in blocking them so that the students relate to the new language directly and as a particular set of challenges. Generally, we succeed well in that task because of our silence as teachers and the students' struggle to utter every word. Sometimes, students deeply involved in such a learning do not even notice when their teacher is using their own language (Gattegno, 1976, p. 119).

However, in another respect, he advocated translation in testing comprehension suggesting that

> As to comprehension, we can sometimes find that the production of a drawing or a cutting from a publication or a construction with the rods may imply it; or sometimes a paraphrase or a definition, an equivalent expression is all that is needed [...] Here we need a great deal more to be sure that we comprehend, and translation may be the most economical route (op cit. p. 161).

In the Total Physical Response, meaning was expressed through actions and students did not speak till they had command in understanding the target language. Therefore, there was no role for translation (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

1.3.2.3.   Translation Under Communicative Language Teaching

As mentioned previously, language-teaching methodology has been influenced by developments in the fields of linguistics and psychology and by changes in the needs to learn foreign languages and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT for short) was not an exception. First, the decades of 1960s and 1970s witnessed a sociolinguistic revolution. Language learning was not conceived of as an automatic process and as the learning of its vocabulary and syntax but it was recognised that language should be learned in context to enable learners develop communicative competence in the target language. This shift from language usage to language use led to the emergence of CLT by the 1970s as a panacea to previous methods.

Second, CLT derived its learning theory from cognitivism and constructivism that emphasised learner's autonomy. The language learner was not considered as a recipient of knowledge but as the constructer of knowledge. Learners were considered to have an active role in their learning by indulging themselves in the learning process and by engaging in genuine communication (Brown, 2000; Spada, 2007).

Third, CLT came as a response to European commercial needs of 1970s. The emergence of the European common market, known as European Economic Community (EEC), a forerunner of what is now the European Union, made it compulsory to adopt a new method for teaching foreign languages that fostered communication (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The following are some characteristics of CLT as generally conceptualised from the 1970s to the 1990s:

1. Make real communication the focus of language teaching.

2. Provide opportunities for learners to experiment and try out what they know.

3. Be tolerant of learners' errors as they indicate that the learner is building up his or her communicative competence.

4. Provide opportunities for learners to develop both accuracy and fluency.

5. Link the different skills such as speaking, reading, and listening together, since they usually occur so in the real world.

6. Let students induce or discover grammar rules.

<div align="right">(Richards (2006, p. 13)</div>

Concerning the role assigned to translation, CLT and other versions of it like content-based-instruction and task-based approach emphasised the notion of communication and focused on the use of the target language as a medium of instruction in the classroom. The literature on the issue of translation has not mentioned a revival of translation in the communicative era and many researchers, as we will see in the next chapter, criticised CLT in that it neglected the existence of L1 in the learners' mind. Swan (1985), for example, described the use of the English-only approach in CLT as "a peculiar state of affair" and commented that as far as 'the British version of the Communicative Approach is concerned, students might as well not have mother tongues. Meanings, uses, and communication skills are treated as if they have to be learnt from scratch' (p. 85). V. Cook (2001) also contended that 'Recent methods do not so much forbid the L1 as ignore its existence altogether. Communicative language teaching and task-based learning methods have no necessary relationship with the L1, yet, as we shall see, the only times that the L1 is mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimize its use' (p. 404).

1.3.2.4. Translation Under the Natural Approach

In 1977 Terrell proposed the Natural Approach. Later on, he collaborated with Krashen and elaborated the Natural Approach (NA henceforward) which resulted in the publication of their book *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the*

Classroom (1983). The following are some principles of the NA stated by Krashen (1982, p. 138):

- Classtime is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition.

- The teacher speaks only the target language in the classroom.

- Students may use either the first or second language. If they choose to respond in the second language, their errors are not corrected unless communication is seriously impaired.

- Homework may include formal grammar work. Error correction is employed in correcting homework. The goals of the course are ″semantic″; activities may involve the use of a certain structure, but the goals are to enable students to talk about ideas, perform tasks, and solve problems.

Like CLT, the NA took the ability to communicate with native speakers of the target language as its ultimate goal. In spite of the fact that Krashen (1982) and Krashen & Terrell (1983) did not ignore the unavoidability of falling back on L1 when learning a second language (L1 plus Monitor Mode), the NA did not give a role to the use of L1 and translation in teaching and learning foreign languages. It emphasised the role of comprehensible input which connoted that L1 and translation had no role to play in the FL classroom. It also suggested the "silent period" in which production delayed in the early stages and permitted the use of incomplete sentences and short phrases in early stages to minimise the use of L1 (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Krashen and Terrell (1983), in fact, maintained that the NA conforms to the traditional approaches, which according to them. Are those 'based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language' (p. 178).

1.4. The Role Assigned to L1 and Translation in the Method Era: A Recapitulation

After dealing with the swings of the pendulum of language teaching methodology in the twentieth century, the table below gives a recap of the ups and downs that translation had in the method era. However, translation is one form of L1 use so, a rejection of L1 may also result in a rejection of translation. In this respect, Cummins (2001) claimed that if 'students' L1 is excluded from the classroom, clearly translation from the L1 to L2 or from L2 to L1 has no place' (p. 227).

V. Cook (2001, p. 404) distinguished between three versions of L1 rejection:

-"At its strongest, it is 'Ban the L1 from the classroom.' On this, he commented 'Only in circumstances where the teacher does not speak the students' L1 or the students have different L1s could this be achieved".

-"At weakest, the rule is 'Minimize the L1 in the classroom,' that is to say, use it as little as possible".

-"A more optimistic version is 'Maximize the L2 in the classroom,' emphasizing the usefulness of the L2 rather than the harm of the first".

Table 1.1: The Role Assigned to Translation and L1 in the Method Era

Approach / Method	The Role Assigned to L1	The Role Assigned to Translation
Grammar-Translation	+	+
The Reform Movement	-	-
The Direct Method	-	-
The Reading Method	+	+
Audiolingualism	-	-
Oral-situational Approach	-	-
The Cognitive Approach	+	+
The Affective-humanistic Approach	(CLL & Suggestopedia) +	(CLL & Suggestopedia) +
	(The Silent Way & Total Physical Response) -	(The Silent Way & Total Physical Response) -
The Communicative Approach	-	-
The Natural Approach	-	-

1.5. The Role Assigned to Translation: The 20th Century Revisited

Reviewing the literature on the major trends in language teaching methodology during the 20th century, this section revisits the views methodologists took as regards the issue of using translation in the FL classroom in the method era.

First, tracking the ups and downs that translation had in the method era, it has become clear that the main source of its rejection was the GTM that reformers attacked in the late 19th century. Reformers campaigned against the mechanical use of language and the misuse and overuse of translation and L1. Their views towards translation were, however, moderate. In this respect, Howatt (1984b) maintained 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. Was it really translation that the reformers objected to a hundred years ago, or, as Prendergast suggests, the way in which it was used (p. 161).

Second, the above review has revealed that the strong rejection of translation and L1 was by proponents of the DM that emerged as a response to political, demographic, and commercial changes of that time (G. Cook, 2013). It also drew heavily on the work of Berlitz who rigidly banned translation and L1 in his private schools. However, it is important to note that Berlitz employed native-speaker teachers and that his classes were of students with different native languages and so, it was logical that there was no place for L1 and translation. So, reformers, who can be considered as applied linguists of their time (G. Cook, 2012), had an influence on the issue of translation and L1 but the Berlitz's method, one may say, was the major source of the onslaught on translation and L1 use.

Third, it becomes also evident from the above sketch that in spite of the fact that all theories of language and language learning are concerned with how first languages are learned, they influenced language teaching practices during the 20th century (Van der Walt, 1992). However, some transmissions from linguistics to language teaching were not always valid and suitable to all contexts and learners and the ban on translation and L1 is case in point (Stern, 1983). They were, in fact, the product of a top down pedagogy to serve other political and commercial needs. There are many scholars (Wilkins, 1972; G. Cook, 2012) who criticised the way findings of linguistics were transmitted to language teaching by applied linguists without taking into

consideration the roles of context, teachers' views, and learners' needs. Widdowson (2000) described this model of transmission as 'linguistics applied'.

Furthermore, although in the 1960s and 1970s changes of views in linguistics and psychology created a climate for the revival of translation and L1 in the FL classroom under the cognitive approach and the humanistic approach of teaching, these changes of views towards translation and L1 were ignored in CLT that came as a corrective to previous shortcomings. Based on Chomsky's linguistic competence, Hymes (1972) developed 'communicative competence' that has influenced language teaching practices to the present time. The goal of language teaching and learning has become that of achieving a native-like proficiency in target language and so no place has been offered to the use of translation and L1. However, the concept of communicative competence has misled language teaching methodology. Yes, it is important to enable students to communicate in the FL but L2 learners are multi- competent individuals in that they can do what natives cannot do (they can translate and code switch naturally) and they have different needs from those of natives (V. Cook, 2009). It does not follow that children acquiring their first language do not translate so L2 learners should not translate as ironically expressed by V. Cook (2001) 'The argument for avoiding the L1 based on L1 acquisition is not in itself convincing. It seems tantamount to suggesting that, since babies do not play golf, we should not teach golf to adults' (p. 406)

Awareness of the inapplicability of some theories of learning led some researchers to question the top-down pedagogy and argue in favour of a bottom-up pedagogy in which teachers are not considered as passive users of theories of applied linguists and in which the context of learning and learners' needs are taken into consideration. The following figure demonstrates the rejection of translation in the method era:

Figure 1.1: Translation in the Method Era
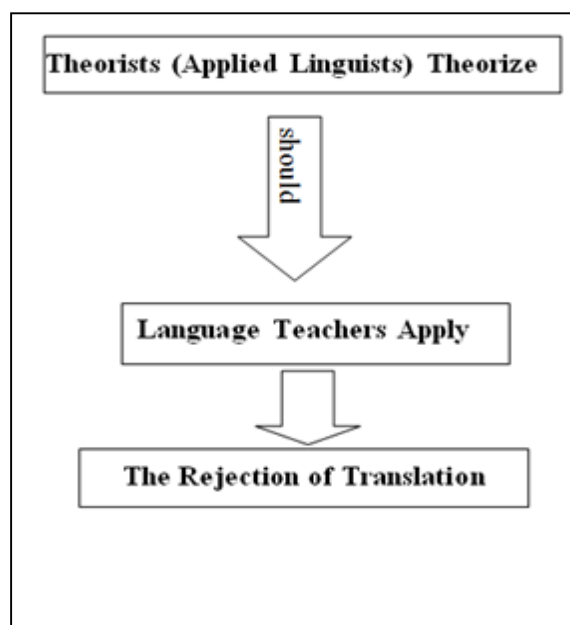
In retrospect, it is legitimate to say that the rejection of translation was 'a logical sleight of hand' (G. Cook, 2010, p. 15) that should be reconsidered. The issue of translation and L1 use has been glossed over for about a century without providing convincing reasons. Cook, G. (2010) commented on this state of affairs sating that

> from the 1900s until very recently there has been virtually no discussion of [translation] in the mainstream language-teaching literature. It is not that it was considered, assessed, and rejected, with reasons given for that rejection, but rather that it was simply ignored [...] It seems fair to say that the case for translation was summarily dismissed without ever being properly heard (pp. 20-21).

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the main trends in language teaching methodology in the method era to mark the ups and downs that translation had in this period in the history

of language teaching. So, it has become clear that the rejection of translation was illegitimate and that there were no clear and convincing reasons behind banning it. Furthermore, the kind of translation that was rejected was the word-for-word translation as used in the GTM and not translation in its real sense.

Some light has also been shed on the fact that the applications of research findings in linguistics and psychology did not fit all people in different contexts. Many researchers (cf. subsequent chapter) questioned the academic reasons behind the rejection of translation and attributed its proscription to political, economic, and demographic factors.

Chapter Two

A Revival of Translation as a Fifth Skill in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Chapter Two

A Revival of Translation as a Fifth Skill in the Foreign Language

Classroom

</div>

Introduction

This chapter deals with the literature in support of using translation in the FL classroom. First, it gives an account on how language teaching methodologists shifted to the post-method pedagogy to suit the contemporary world's needs and the nature of FL learners as multicompetent users. Second, it reviews the literature on questioning the monolingual tenet and the factors that perpetuated it in language teaching practices throughout the 20th century. Third, it deals with the current academic discourse on the place of translation in language teaching in the post-method era. Fourth, it discusses the widespread objections to translation and it attempts to refute them. Finally, it summarises the main trends in vocabulary teaching and learning and discusses the merits of translation in the learning of vocabulary.

2.1. Criticising CLT and the Break with the Method Concept

As the previous chapter has revealed, language-teaching methodologists spent almost one century searching for an ideal best method to achieve the set long-term aim that was to enable FL learners to naturally communicate in the target language. CLT, as its name suggests, was thought to achieve the set goal. However, like other methods, CLT had its share of criticism. A number of researchers (Swan, 1985; Thompson, 1996, Bax, 2003; Spada, 2007) addressed limitations and misconceptions of CLT. Swan (1985), for example, revised the tenets of CLT and considered it as evolutionary rather than revolutionary. He described it as 'little more than an interesting ripple on the surface of twentieth-century language teaching' (p. 87).

In a critique of CLT, Spada (2007) stated the following most widespread myths and misconceptions of CLT:

- CLT is merely concerned with the teaching of meaning and it neglects the teaching of forms.

- CLT does not permit providing feedback on learner's errors because it hinders learner's fluency.

- CLT should be learner-centered.

- CLT is concerned with developing listening and speaking skills and it totally marginalized the reading and writing skills.

- CLT means avoiding the use of L1 in the classroom.

In general, CLT has been criticised in that it has neglected the role of the context (learners' needs, cultures, first languages, and teachers: natives or non-natives) in which it has been employed. Bax (2003) addressed this problem arguing that CLT focus was mainly on how to teach communicatively (role of teachers and methodology) and ignored the leaning process. He commented that "CLT is seen to be about 'the way we should teach'. After all, it is Communicative Language *Teaching*, not Communicative Language *Learning*" (p. 280). Bax suggested adopting a 'Context Approach' that gives priority to the learning context.

So, after believing it to be the panacea for its preceding teaching methods, CLT failed to meet the set goal that was enabling learners to achieve native-like proficiency in the target language. That state of affairs led many researchers in the late twentieth century to shift to the search for an alternative to the method concept rather than an alternative method. Different labels have been used by many authoritative authors in the field of language teaching to refer to this main transition in language teaching

methodology. Stern (1983) referred to it as 'the break with the method concept', Richards (1990) referred to it with 'beyond methods', Widdowson (1990) used 'pragmatism', Kumaravadivelu coined the terms 'postmethod condition' (1994) and 'postmethod pedagogy' (2001), Brown (2002) employed 'postmethod era' and 'the requiem for methods', and others used 'the death of methods'.

2.2. The Postmethod Era: Towards a Bottom-up Pedagogy

In the late twentieth century, many researchers noticed the gap between theorists and practitioners or what Clarke (as cited in Block, 2000, p. 137) referred to as *'theory-practice dysfunction'*. They observed, in other words, the discrepancy between methods and what actually happened in classrooms and suggested a bottom-up pedagogy, which gave an important role to the learning context and to teachers' views. Stern (1983), for example, explicitly stated that a 'good way to start developing a language teaching theory is to look at ourselves and to explore to what extent our second language teaching has been influenced by our own language learning and teaching experiences' (p. 75).

In line with Stern (1983), Pennycook (1989) claimed that "all education is political" (p. 590) because methods were imposed on teachers even if they did not serve them. He proposed that teachers should have a role in deciding what and how to teach 'based on their own educational experiences, their personalities, their particular institutional, social, cultural, and political circumstances, their understanding of their particular students' collective and individual needs, and so on' (p. 606).

In 1990, Prabhu published his article 'There Is No Best Method-Why?' in which he claimed that in order to better their teaching, teachers should not use methods mechanically but rather they should develop their 'subjective understanding of the

teaching they do' which he referred to as "teachers' sense of plausibility" (pp. 171-172). Prabhu, in other words, emphasised teachers' autonomy and creativity.

On his part, Widdowson (1990), one of the proponents of CLT, expressed his dissatisfaction with the direct applications of research findings in linguistics and psychology in theorising language teaching methods. He pointed out that there existed a gap between applied linguists and teachers. And as a solution to this problem, he suggested 'pragmatism' that is similar to Prabhu's 'teachers' sense of plausibility' and which he explained as 'a function of pedagogic *mediation* whereby the relationship between theory and practice, ideas and their actualization, can only be realized within the domain of application, that is, through the immediate activity of teaching' (p. 30). In other words, he called for a reconsideration of the role of teachers as 'mediators between theory and practice, between the domains of disciplinary research and pedagogy' (p. 29).

Kumaravadivelu, considered to be the severest campaigner on the method concept, addressed the gap between applied linguists and teachers in many of his publications (1994, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2006). He described the transition into the postmethod pedagogy as a sudden move to 'a period of robust reflection' (1994, P. 27). He considered the method concept as a colonial construct and suggested postmethod as a postcolonial construct which consists of three parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility (2003a).

By particularity, Kumaravadivelu meant that the postmethod pedagogy 'must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu' (2001, p. 538). In other words, he acknowledged the

role of context in the teaching of foreign languages. Practicality, he explained, 'does not pertain merely to the everyday practice of classroom teaching. It pertains to a much larger issue that has a direct impact on the practice of classroom teaching, namely, the relationship between theory and practice' (2001, p. 540). Therefore, he advocated a bottom-up pedagogy in which teachers are considered to be the main source from which teaching theories are derived. As regards the parameter of possibility, he explained that postmethod pedagogy 'seeks to branch out to tap the socio-political consciousness that participants bring with them to the classroom so it can also function as a catalyst for a continual quest for identity formation and social transformation' (2001, p. 545).

2.3. Questioning the Monolingual Tenet and the Revival of Translation in the Post-method Era

Most of the time what theorists said did not fit in the teaching of foreign languages in many contexts (Stern, 1983). One of the issues that gained more attention by researchers in the postmethod era was the fallacy of teaching 'a bilingual subject by means of a monolingual pedagogy' (Widdowson, 2003, p. 154). Reputable literature (Pennycook, 1989; Phillipson, 1992a; Auerbach, 1993; Canagarajah, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Widdowson, 2003; Campbell, 2009; G. Cook, 2012) ascribed the genesis of the monolingual principle to political and commercial factors rather than to linguistic and pedagogic ones.

Phillipson (1992a) provided a historical account of the widespread of English as an international language and ascribed its pedigree to colonial times. He considered the widespread of ELT in the Periphery (Third World countries) as an imperial means used by the Centre (Western native English countries and America) to dominate the world

as he clearly put it 'whereas once Britannia ruled the waves, now it is English which rules them. The British empire has given way to the empire of English.' (p. 1). Phillipson noticed that language teaching has been isolated from its social context and considered this as linguistic imperialism that he put in the broad theory of imperialism. He also considered the transmission of ELT teaching methods, which he referred to as 'professionalism', from the Centre to the Periphery as a form of linguistic imperialism. One of the aspects that gained more importance in his discussion is questioning the monolingual principle that characterised language-teaching methodology for about one century.

Phillipson (1992a) claimed that what really helped the idea that language should be taught monolingually, which he referred to as 'the monolingual tenet', were political and economic factors. Furthermore, he expatiated on the reasons behind the entrenched monolingual tenet that prevailed language teaching methodology and summed up the main tenets of the Makerere Conference (1961) on the Teaching of English as a Second Language (p. 185), that Howatt and Widdowson (2004) considered as a very essential event in the history of ELT:

1. English is best taught monolingually.

2. The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.

3. The earlier English is taught, the better the results.

4. The more English is taught, the better the results.

5. If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop.

Phillipson (1992a) considered all of the above tenets as fallacies and claimed that they were not built on scientific bases and did not take into account the social context of the Periphery. He maintained that all the above tenets shared a common purpose

which was perpetuating the monolingual principle in ELT in the Periphery in the postcolonial period to meet political and economic goals of the Centre.

Lucas and Katz (1994) also reconsidered the English-Only policy in the U.S. and asserted that the political factors were behind the rejection of the use of languages other than English in schools. They contended that

> Many people perceive the growing numbers of speakers of languages other than English in the U.S. as a problem. They may also see increasing numbers of language minority (LM) residents as a threat to their status as speakers of the dominant language and as members of the dominant culture (p. 538).

To back their claim, Lucas and Katz (1994) carried out a study in which they observed teaching practices within a program known as 'Special Alternative Instructional Programs' (SAIPs) devised for teaching English to language minority (LM) or limited English proficient (LEP) students which used English as the primary language of instruction. Their study revealed that although the nine schools they visited claimed that they adopted an English-only policy and the students came from different language backgrounds, teachers held pragmatic views towards the use of students' native languages by allowing students to use their native languages in a variety of ways: to assist one another, to ask and to answer questions, to use bilingual dictionaries, to write in the native language, and to interact socially. Teachers also used students' native languages mainly to check comprehension, to explain activities, and to interact socially. Lucas and Katz (1994) concluded that 'the use of the native language is so compelling that it emerges even when policies and assumptions mitigate against it' (p. 558).

In line with Phillipson (1992a), Canagarajah (1999) also maintained that the Centre countries used the monolingual and native-speaker fallacies to make profit in the Periphery states. He analysed Tamil secondary school teacher-student classroom interactions in Sri Lanka and came to the conclusion that in spite of the fact that teachers reported that they discouraged the use of L1 (Tamil) in their classrooms, his study revealed that both teachers and students naturally switched from L1 to L2 and vice versa. He also found that teachers' views towards the use of L1 were influenced by centre's pedagogical thinking in that teachers admitted that their professional training and common sense inclined them to adopt the monolingual policy. Canagarajah (1999) also observed that code switching from and into Tamil helped in the teaching/learning of English mainly in managing classrooms, knowledge transmission, providing instructions, and in developing grammatical and communicative competence.

Regarding the economic factors, Campbell (2002) explained how they contributed to the rejection of translation stating that:

> Clearly, a one size fits all policy is good business. It is not good business to publish thirty or forty different versions of a single textbook, each containing for example, explanatory material in the languages of the learners, or even translation materials in those languages. I am not suggesting for a moment that EFL publishers should switch their policy: what I am suggesting is that we should not take the absence of translation in EFL textbooks as an endorsement of the anti-translation position (p. 61)

Among those who assertively attributed the reasons behind the rejection of translation to political and commercial imperatives was G. Cook, (2010). He explained:

It is perhaps no coincidence that the Direct Method originated just as the English language publishing industry entered a new period of mass production, and drew upon ideas developed in Europe's two most powerful industrial nations, Britain and Germany, in the heyday of European nationalism. Direct Method was in tune with mass production, nation building, and imperialism. The chilling slogan:

'One Nation, One People, One Language'

can easily be rewritten for English Language Teaching:

'One Class, One Learner, One Language (pp. 18-19).

Questioning the monolingual tenet has in fact opened a gateway to the revival of translation in FL classrooms. Many publications appeared in the 21st century that directly pleaded for the comeback of translation to the FL classroom (Widdowson, 2003; Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009; Witte, Harden, and Ramos de Oliveira Harden, 2009; G. Cook, 2010; Leonardi, 2010; and Malmkjaer, 2010). Furthermore, many scholars, as we will see, have argued for its revival as a fifth skill alongside the other four basic skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Naimushin, 2002; Baker, 2006; Gaspar, 2009; Pym, Malmkjaer, Gutiérrez-Colón Plana, 2013). Also, translation is defined in (Bussmann, 1996, p. 1222) as "a 'fifth skill' (next to the traditional 'four skills' of speaking, listening, reading, and writing). Translation is a method used to practice and test competence and performance in a second language".

The post-method concept, in that it has given a role to local knowledge and to the learning context, has led many researchers to question the rejection of translation and L1 from the FL classroom. Therefore, the post-method era, one may say, is the realisation of what Howatt anticipated three decades ago when he said that 'if there is

another "language teaching revolution" round the corner, it will have to assemble a convincing set of arguments to support some alternative (bilingual?) principle of equal power [to the monolingual principle]' (1984b, p. 289). The revival of translation in the postmethod era can be demonstrated as follows:

Figure 2.1: Translation in the Postmethod Era
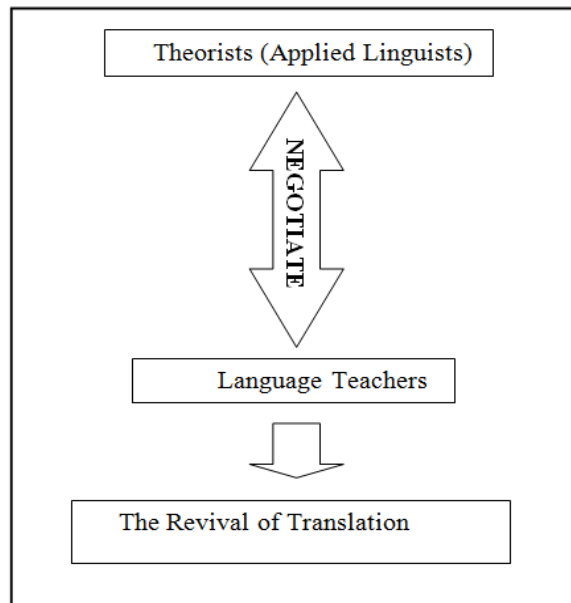
The revival of translation in the post-method era can be clearly manifested in Stern's (1983) three-dimensional framework that Kumaravadivelu (2006) considered as the first attempt towards the construction of a postmethod pedagogy. Stern (1983) summarised the long-lasting issues that characterised language teaching (1900-1980) labelling them the L1-L2 connection, the explicit-implicit option, and the code-communication dilemma. Believing in the break with the method concept (Chapter 21 of his book 1983), Stern in chapter 22 of the same book suggested his concept of teaching strategies as a substitute for the method concept. The teaching strategies, he argued, 'operate with flexible sets of concepts which embody any useful lessons we can draw from the history of language teaching but which do not perpetuate the

rigidities and dogmatic narrowness of the earlier methods concept' (as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 187). Based on the foregoing three issues, Stern (1983) proposed six teaching strategies that make up his three-dimensional framework: *the intralingual-crosslingual dimension,* concerned with the issue of whether L2 should be learned 'crosslingually' in which learners learn L2 building on previous knowledge of L1 or 'intralingually' in which learners learn L2 using this language. *The objective-subjective* (analytical-experiential) *dimension* is concerned with formal teaching of rules and pure communicative teaching. *The explicit-implicit dimension* is about whether L2 is learned consciously or subconsciously (pp. 505-507).

As for the Algerian context, translation has assumed a role in the context of foreign language teaching in the in the late 20th and the 21st centuries. Actually, El-Nasr daily newspaper (2010) announced the decision of the Ministry of Education to use translation activities in the teaching of foreign languages in secondary schools. Translation exercises have also been integrated in English textbooks for pupils in middle and secondary schools since the late of the 20th century (Spotlight on English for 1st year middle school learners, On the Move, At the Crossroads, and New Prospects). However, judging their efficiency is beyond the realm of the present study. Lahiouel (2013) welcomed the use of translation but she criticised the type of the integrated exercises. At the advanced level, translation is taught as a subject at departments of foreign languages (Translation Practice module).

2.4. Pros and Cons of Translation in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

This section reviews the widespread objections to translation and discusses the arguments in favour of it.

2.4.1. Arguments against Translation

As has been made clear in the previous chapter and the above discussion, there were not convincing academic reasons behind the rejection of translation and that what actually influenced views regarding the use of translation were the economic and political factors. However, there are some widespread arguments against translation that Malmkjaer (1997) summarised as follows:

Translation

1. is independent of the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening

2. is radically different from the four skills

3. takes up valuable time which could be used to teach these four skills

4. is unnatural

5. misleads students into thinking that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one

6. prevents students from thinking in the foreign language

7. produces interference

8. is a bad test of language skills

9. is only appropriate for training translators

(pp. 59-60)

2.4.2. Arguments for Translation

Malmkjaer (1997) commented that the above objections 'have survived with a doggedness which suggests that there must be some truth in them' (p. 60). She asserted that if the kind of translation employed in programmes of teaching foreign

languages resembles the way it is used in translators' training programmes "reasonably closely", translation would efficiently serve the teaching of foreign languages. She refuted the aforementioned objections stating that good translation entails good reading, writing, listening, and speaking (1), so translation is dependent on the four skills (2) and it is not a waste of time (3). The number of bilingual and multilingual people outnumbers the monolingual people, so translation can be considered as a skill (4). Real-life translation demands not only formal equivalence but also dynamic equivalence (5) and so it draws learners to think in the two systems (6). Interference is an inherent problem in the process of leaning a second/foreign language and so translation can be a remedy to it (7). Based on (1), translation can be used to test students' ability in using the other four skills (8). Finally, training students in translation may help them in their careers; EFL students may work as translators (9).

In the following discussion, we reconsider the objections stated by Malmkjaer by reviewing theoretical and empirical literature on the subject.

2.4.2.1. Translation as a Fifth Skill alongside Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking

Translation, as Nida (1969, p. 495) perceived it, is 'a complex use of language'. It involves two or more languages and it includes and to a certain extent depends on the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

First, translating written products entails good reading skills. To be faithful to the source text, the translator does not only skim and scan the content to understand the gist of a given text, but he has to understand everything presented in the text and to read between the lines to infer the intended meaning. So, comprehension of the text is a

very essential step in the process of translating any piece of written discourse. The way one reads any material for the sake of understanding its gist differs greatly from the way one reads a material in order to translate it. The translator is a good reader and as Stibbard (1994) suggested 'there is no better way of understanding a text than to try to translate it' (p. 15).

Second, in order to convey the message of a written text from the source language to the target language, a translator should make efforts writing his version. Thus, he focuses on many aspects of the language: vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, coherence and above all style. So, the translator will surely gain profoundly from the process of translating and as reading improves our writing, so does translation, especially if the original text is written in a good style like in creative works. Another way in which translation may improve the writing skill is when students are asked, after finishing the translation task, to write commentaries about the difficulties they faced and the strategies they used while translating (Leonardi, 2010).

Moreover, translation into the second language, as Campbell (2013, p. 58) admitted, is 'a very special variety of second language writing'. What really differentiates the translator form the writer is that the translator writes in another language using someone else's ideas. Malakoff and Hakuta (1991) considered translation and paraphrase as two identical processes. So, when students translate from the L1 to L2, they practice writing in the target language. Zojer (2009) refuted arguments against translation and integrated Krings' (1987) study in his discussion. He reported that Krings claimed that there was no room to compare translation to free writing or to consider them as two different tasks. He investigated the strategies used by two groups of students. One group performed on a translation task, students translated a text into

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French and the second group was asked to apply for a job advertised in a newspaper. Each group was instructed to think out loud while performing on the assigned task. Analysing the transcripts of students in each group, Krings (1987) found that the strategies used by students who performed on the translation task and the students who wrote the job application were almost the same. Therefore, Krings concluded that translation and writing are two identical processes and he subsequently asserted that:

> The frequent claim that free foreign-language text production must always have priority because it leads the learner to a more 'idiomatic' use of the foreign language is on no account correct. Or to put it even more clearly: to my mind, the investigation of foreign-language writing processes supplies no argument against translating into the foreign language. Writing and translating do not seem to be real alternatives (Krings, as cited in Zojer, 2009, p. 41).

Third, interpretation, i.e. simultaneous translation, entails good listening and speaking skills. Practising it, the students will undoubtedly improve these two skills. Moreover, because translation is a creative task and a problem-solving activity, it raises discussion and criticisms. So, discussing students' versions in the classroom creates a communicative environment in which students use the target language and practice the listening and speaking skills. Furthermore, audiovisual translation like subtitling is very useful for developing the listening and speaking skills (Lertola, 2012; Pym et al., 2013).

Since translation is a multi-skilled activity that entails both receptive and productive language skills and leads the translator to practice all of them, it is not radically different from the four skills but it can be considered as a 'fifth macro-skill' (Campbell, 2002). In this respect, Leonardi (2009) pointed out that translation 'should

not be seen, and consequently treated, as a completely different language skill as compared to Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening because it is an activity which includes them and is, to a certain degree, dependent on them' (p. 143). Shiyab and Abdullateef (2001) reported on a study conducted by Skowronski (1982) at the Poznan University in Poland in which he compared between two groups of students at the Department of English and found that the students who were trained using translation techniques outperformed the students who were not trained by those techniques in developing the writing and speaking skills.

To conclude, translation is not an activity that has not to do with language. Instead, it is a language activity in which the translator moves from one language into the other. Translation includes practising reading, writing, speaking, and listening and so it is not a waste of time to practice it and to use it in testing them (Buck, 1992).

2.4.2.2. Translation as a Naturally-occurring Cognitive Activity When Learning Foreign Languages

As we have seen in the previous chapter, almost all teaching methods were built on the assumption that the best way to learn a foreign language is to think in that FL and to forget about L1. But this is not practical and feasible. Many studies, as we will see, confirmed that translation is a naturally-occurring cognitive activity when learning a FL and a preferred learning strategy by FL learners (Oxford, 1990). As Harmer (2001) pointed out: 'another reason why students use their own language in the classroom is because it is an entirely natural thing to do; when we learn a foreign language we use translation almost without thinking about it' (p. 131). Furthermore, even if teachers ask FL learners to think in the FL, they, most of the time, unconsciously resort to their L1 while dealing with the target language as Stern postulated 'whether we like it or not,

the new language is learnt on the basis of a previously acquired language. The L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life' (Stern as cited in House, 2009, p. 98).

Many researchers (Macaro, 2001; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) observed teachers and students talks in FL classrooms and found that codeswitching was a natural phenomenon. Furthermore, many studies also revealed the fact that L1 is used even in immersion programs (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Earlier on, Cohen (1994), for example, investigated the language of thought of 32 students of different grades (3rd – 6th) at a Spanish full-immersion school in St. Paul during solving math problems. He used different research tools in his study (verbal report, a questionnaire, classroom observation, and background information on the participants). The findings of his research revealed that the subjects used English in their cognitive processing and that subjects of 5th and 6th grades acknowledged their preference to the use of English instead of Spanish while performing on math tasks. It has been also claimed that L1 is used by low proficiency learners. However, Schwartz and Kroll (2006) reviewed the literature on language processing in bilingual speakers and concluded that 'Both languages appear to be active in even highly proficient bilinguals' (p. 990).

It is undeniable that FL learners perform differently from native speakers on the four skills. Mental translation is an inherent and a natural activity when learning foreign languages. When they read, FL learners mentally translate the content in their L1 to understand the text (Chamot, 1990) and this is not applied only to learners with low level of proficiency. Pang (2008), in this respect, maintained that 'Thinking in an L2 while reading is not impossible and is even desirable; nonetheless, it would be unusual for good readers not to use their mother tongues to aid comprehension if a need exists' (p. 8).

Upton (1997, p. 1) also argued that reading 'in a second language (L2) is not a monolingual event'. He investigated the language of thought of eleven students with different levels of proficiency: six were intermediate and the other five were at the university level. Using thinking aloud protocols and retrospective interviews, he tracked how the participants used their L1 and L2 during a reading task. He found that the two groups of students used their L1 (Japanese) to different extents. The intermediate group (less proficient) used their L1 heavily to understand the unfamiliar vocabulary, understanding meaning of sentences, and in checking their comprehension. The advanced group (proficient) used their L1 occasionally for the above purposes.

In another study, Seng and Hashim (2006) analysed think-aloud protocols of four undergraduate students at the University of Pendidikan Sultan Idris whose L1 was Bahasa Melayu. Their aim was to investigate the extent to which those students used their L1 while reading L2 texts in groups. They arrived at the conclusion that 'the L1 was used in 32% of the students' total number of strategy use' (p. 44). Their findings revealed that translation was used in facilitating vocabulary, checking comprehension, and in reducing affective barriers.

As regards the writing skill, many studies proved that L1 is used by L2 learners when writing in an L2 especially in the phase of generating ideas and solving linguistic problems like vocabulary (Zamel, 1982; Raimes 1985; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Woodall, 2002; Wang, 2003; Weijen, Den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, and Sanders, 2009). Cohen (2000) compared between intermediate students' outputs of two different writing tasks: Direct writing and translated writing. His findings showed that two-thirds of the participants (N=39) performed well in direct writing whereas one-third of them performed better in the translated writing task.

However, 80% of the participants admitted that they 'often' or 'always' translated mentally from their L1 when writing in L2. Cohen pointed out 'the two tasks, then, were not necessarily distinct in nature, but rather overlapping' (p. 42).

Manchón, Murphy, and Roca (2007) synthesised empirical research on the L2 writing process focusing on lexical retrieval strategies. They pointed out that the research they reviewed provided empirical evidence that corroborated Wang and Wen' claim that writing in L2 is "a bilingual event" (Wang & Wen as cited in Manchón el al., 2007, p. 165)

Kim and Uhm (2010) compared outcomes of 35 middle school learners on three tasks, direct writing (DW), translation writing (TW), and back-translation writing (BTW). Their findings corroborated the stance that L1 has positive effects on the process of L2 writing. They also noticed the fact that TW and BTW can be a useful resource for middle school learners to expand their vocabulary and to practice the language skills.

Stapa and Abdul Majid (2012) carried out an experiment to check the usefulness of employing L1 in the phase of generating ideas by low proficiency secondary school learners. The experimental group used L1 (Bahasa Melayu) in generating ideas before embarking on the task of writing their essays in English. The control group used English in generating ideas. Their findings showed that the students of the experimental group performed better than those of the control group in terms of ideas, organisation, vocabulary, and mechanics.

Contrary to the commonly held view that L1 is used by low proficiency learners (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Sasaki, 2000), some studies on the process of composing in

L2 proved that high proficiency learners also use mental translation while composing in L2 (Zamel (1982). Furthermore, Wang (2003) conducted a study to investigate whether the level of proficiency affected the amount of L1 use while writing in L2. He compared between two groups of eight ESL learners whose native language was Chinese. Four of the participants were with high level of proficiency in L2 and the other four participants were of low proficiency in L2. The findings obtained from thinking aloud protocols, retrospective interviews, questionnaires, and written compositions revealed that high proficiency students switched frequently to their L1 than did the low proficiency students. He suggested that L2 proficiency affected how and for what purposes they switched. He noticed that high proficiency students strategically switched to the L1 for 'rhetorical choices and discourse' and participants of low proficiency switched to the L1 in generating ideas and revising their products.

All in all, mental translation is a strategy used by both low proficiency and high proficiency learners while writing in the L2 and this is what differentiates it from L1 writing. Wang (2003) clearly stated this fact when he said

> In the domain of L2 writing, a consensus has been reached that one consistent and salient characteristic, which is fundamentally distinct from L1 writing processes, is that L2 writers, either ''skilled'' or ''unskilled,'' switch back and forth between their L1 and L2 in order to work through a particular problem that they are struggling with while composing in the L2 (p. 348).

As for the use of mental translation while listening and speaking in L2, scant research has been found. Janulevičienė and Kavaliauskienė (2002) investigated why ESP learners lacked fluency when speaking and observed that the way they used

mental translation strategy was not successful. They suggested training learners on how to translate accurately and efficiently to overcome that problem.

Research in the area of vocabulary also showed that L1 is always activated when processing L2 vocabulary, which is a struggle to learners when reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Stewart & Kroll, 1994; Hermans, Bongaerts, De Bot, and Schreuder, 1998; Hentschel, 2009). Related to this issue, Sunderman and Kroll (2006) (2006) maintained that

> recent evidence that demonstrates parallel activation of words in both languages during visual and spoken word recognition suggests that acquiring proficiency in a L2 does not imply that the individual has acquired the ability to switch off the influence of the L1 (p. 388).

To conclude, the L1 is a resource that FL learners resort to compensate for their failures when dealing with the target language. In this respect, G. Cook (2010) posited

> Humans teach and learn by moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar, by building new knowledge onto existing knowledge. Language learning and teaching are no exception to this general rule. Translation is just such a bridge between the familiar and the unfamiliar, the known and the unknown. To burn that bridge or to pretend that it does not exist, hinders rather than helps the difficult transition which is the aim of language teaching and learning (p. 155)

2.4.2.3. The Revival of CA in the FL Classroom: Translation as a Remedy to Interference

It has been also claimed that translation develops compound instead of coordinate bilingualism (House, 2009). Compound bilingualism is the case 'where the two languages fuse into a single signifying system' and coordinate bilingualism is the case 'where the two languages are kept apart as separate systems' (Widdowson, 2003, p.

150). However, as James (1996, p. 139) commented, this is 'something of an idealisation'. FL learners frequently resort to their L1 when dealing with the target language because L1 is always present in their minds. V. Cook (1999) explained this fact by stating

> L2 users have the L1 permanently present in their minds. Every activity the student carries out visibly in the L2 also involves the invisible L1. The apparent L2 nature of the classroom covers up the presence of the L1 in the minds of the students. From a multicompetence perspective, all teaching activities are *cross-lingual* ... the difference among activities is whether the L1 is visible or invisible, not whether it is present or altogether absent (p. 202).

It is a widespread belief that coordinate bilingualism is possible to achieve in the teaching of foreign languages. However, this claim has not been substantiated by empirical research (Widdowson, 2003; House, 2009). Moreover, 'the available evidence indicates that L1 and L2 are processed by the same neural devices' (Perani & Abutalebi, 2005, p. 202).

Basing the aim of language teaching on maintaining coordinate bilingualism is a result of the theory-practice dysfunction (Widdowson, 2003). In fact, there has not been agreement between teaching theories and real-life language learning. Widdowson (2003) admitted this saying

> While teachers are busy trying to focus attention on the L2 as distinct from the L1, thereby striving to replicate conditions of coordinate bilingualism, the learners are busy on their agenda of bringing the two languages together in the process of compound bilingualization. That the processes of teaching and learning should be so at odds is surely, to say the least, odd (p. 154).

Since mental translation is natural in learning foreign languages, interference is also natural and it is not practical to ignore this fact. It is wise, instead, to think about ways to lessen it and to raise students' awareness to the differences between their L1 and the FL. Recently, some scholars reconsidered the rejection of contrastive analysis and suggested integrating it not only in designing courses, as used in the ALM, but also to practising it inside classrooms (Widdowson, 2003). One way to make use of contrastive analysis is through translation.

Earlier on, James (1996) justified his argument for the rehabilitation of contrastive analysis (CA) through integrating translation activities stating that 'Translation is a particularly effective way to raise XLA [*Cross*-linguistic Awareness], since, uniquely, in the act of translation two manifestations of MT and FL are juxtaposed, and language juxtaposition is the very essence of Contrastive Analysis' (p. 147).

Widdowson (2003), plainly suggested this when he said

> I have argued that this monolingual teaching is at odds with the bilingualization process which learners necessarily engage in when they draw on the language they know as a resource for learning the language they do not. One obvious way of dealing with this disparity is to devise a bilingual pedagogy which exploits this process and seeks to direct it. Such a pedagogy would involve bringing contrastive analysis into classroom methodology in the form of translation and other activities which engage the learners in the exploration of the relationship between the two languages as alternative encodings of meaning (pp. 159-160).

On her part, House (2008) considered translation as the 'cross-linguistic technique par excellence' and pleaded for using it as a useful resource for teaching pragmatic

knowledge. She argued that it 'is high time I believe that the dominance of monolingual practices in language teaching is overcome, and contrastive, transcultural techniques be adopted to enrich the repertoire of pragmatics teaching' (p. 135).

A little earlier, starting from the assumption that translation produces interference, Schjoldager (2003) carried out a study in which she compared the number of errors occurred during performing on two different tasks, picture verbalisation and translation into L2. She found that errors in translation task outnumbered errors in the verbalisation task. She attributed the source of errors to interference from the L1 and suggested that translation can be an efficient way to draw students' attention to differences that exist between the L1 and L2 especially at the advanced level.

The idea that translation misleads the learners to think that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one can be dated back to the misuse of translation under the GTM. However, translation is a communicative activity that has to do with meaning and when we translate, we translate meaning. Translation is a creative task that needs deep understanding of the source text. In his article 'The Deep Structure of Discourse and the Use of Translation', Widdowson (1979) reassessed the principled idea that translation is a hindrance to the learning of foreign languages and distinguished three types of equivalence: structural equivalence, semantic equivalence, and pragmatic equivalence. He argued that translation has been proscribed on the principle that it entails producing structural equivalence and that it was thought to be misleading in that learners focus only on forms something considered to be a distraction (students forget about meaning). He suggested that employing semantic equivalence and pragmatic equivalence when translating, these two problems might be eliminated.

Moreover, in this respect, Halliday (1992) postulated 'Translation (translating/ interpreting is meaning-making activity, and we would not consider any activity to be translation if it did not result in the creation of meaning' (p. 15).

To conclude, we may say that translation should not be overused. And as Shiyab and Abdullateef (2001, p. 7) plainly put it

> translation can be like medicine, which, when administered in the right dose and way, has a curative effect, and otherwise, when used injudiciously, it can also prove harmful. In other words, by using translation, teachers do not invite interference indeed, but is done in order to overcome it and to create, using medical parlance again, anti-interference immunity and resistance.

2.4.2.4. Teachers and Students' Views Regarding the Use of Translation in Teaching and Learning a FL

For a long time, the goal of language teaching has been achieving native-like proficiency in the target language to enable learners to communicate with native speakers. Recently, however, many scholars have questioned basing the teaching and learning of a FL on the goal of achieving native-like proficiency and regarded it as utopian (Blyth, 1995; Mckay, 2003; V. Cook, 2013).

In the 1990s, V. Cook introduced the concept of multi-competence and emphasised that EFL learners differ from natives in that they have different purposes for learning English in their own countries and that they have different mental abilities. He used 'L2 user' concept as an alternative to the native speaker goal. L2 users, according to him, should not be treated as deficient but they should be distinguished as different from native speakers because they have two languages in their minds. He maintained

that L2 users can do things that native speakers cannot do; they can translate and code switch.

Many people learn English not because they want to know the culture of native speakers but to serve their needs, for example, to have access to scientific and technological information and to promote trade and tourism (Mckay, 2003). Translation is a skill that L2 learners need in their social and professional life especially in the age of globalisation (House, 2009, Campbell, 2013). Bilingualism, nowadays, is the norm rather than the exception (Barbour, 2004; Schwartz & Kroll, 2006).

The needs of the 21st century, in fact, give a prominent place to translation as a skill that EFL learners should develop (G. Cook, 2010). Moreover, the majority of EFL learners work as translators. Shaheen (1991), for example, reported that the majority of translators in the Arab World are graduates of English from Arab universities. Leonardi (2010), in this respect, also maintained that 'whereas translators tend to be viewed as good bilinguals and life-long language learners, language learners are meant to be natural translators who face this activity everyday as students and workers' (p. 17).

Translation has been rejected for a long time on the grounds that 'contact between the two languages is the last thing you want' (Widdowson, 2003, p. 150). Recently, however, it has been recognised that understanding teachers and students' beliefs is very important in constructing a sound and appropriate pedagogy (Horwitz, 1999; Basturkmen, Loewen, Ellis, 2004). And as regards the issue of translation, recent studies showed that both teachers and students hold positive views regarding the use of translation and L1 (Carreres, 2006; Liao, 2006; McMillan & Rivers 2011).

Furthermore, Sewell (2004) maintained that despite the fact that learners at the University of London had the chance to study in very well-taught communicative classes, they always asked to do translation.

Based on her experience as a learner of Spanish as a foreign language, Brooks-Lewis (2009) designed a course to Spanish-speaking adults in which she incorporated L1 of the learners. Based on her classroom-based research, she investigated learners' perceptions about incorporating their L1 in the English classroom. She collected written data concerning students' views about the course she devised and found that the participants of her study held positive views.

Using questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations, Al-Nofaie (2010) investigated teachers and students' attitudes in a Saudi intermediate school for females towards using Arabic in the English classroom. His research findings revealed that using Arabic was an "unavoidable phenomenon" and that both teachers and students held positive views about the use of Arabic as an aid in teaching and learning English.

By means of questionnaires and an interview, Bagheri & Fazel (2011) also examined beliefs of forty EFL students at Shiraz Azad University. Their findings showed that students believed that the use of translation helped them in the process of learning, especially in acquiring English writing skills.

Fernández-Guerra (2014) surveyed EFL learners and found that they held positive views about using translation in learning the foreign language. Furthermore, the participants in her study 'ranked translation tasks as the most motivating activities and the ones they believed that could be more effective in FL acquisition, alongside listening and/or watching activities and speaking activities' (p. 167)

As we have seen above, the native-speaker teacher helped the monolingual tenet to be entrenched for a long time. The majority of EFL teachers in the colonial and postcolonial eras were native-speakers of English which made the rejection of translation a logical action as Phillipson (1992b) argued 'Indeed, the notion that the ideal teacher is a native speaker of the language is a cornerstone of a monolingual pedagogy' (p. 13). However, nowadays the majority of EFL teachers are non native-speakers of English who share the same L1 with their students (Phillipson, 1992; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Canagarajah (1999) estimated that 80% of English language teachers are non-native speakers, which justified the use of translation and L1 in the teaching and learning of the target language.

Furthermore, recently, the idea that the ideal teacher is the native speaker has been questioned (Medgyes, 1992; Phillipson, 1992; Canagarajah, 1999; V. Cook and Wei, 2009). Many have argued that non-native teachers can achieve equal professional success as Phillipson (1992b) maintained 'Teachers, whatever popular adages say, are made rather than born, many of them doubtless self-made, whether they are natives or non-natives' (p. 14). Non-native teachers have advantages that most native-speaker teachers do not have. They can learn from their experience as learners of the FL and so they are more aware about needs, difficulties, strategies and above all, they share the L1 of their students which gives them an advantage over the native-speaker teachers because it facilitates the learning and teaching processes (Medgyes, 1992). Medgyes (1992) went to say that the more proficient native-speaker teacher is the one who knows the L1 of his students and suggested that native and non-native speaker teachers of the target language collaborate in their teaching.

2.4.2.5. Pedagogical Translation as a Sub-branch of Translation Studies

To recall from the previous chapter, the issue of translation has been always associated with the GTM which was criticised in that it had no theory and which misused and overused translation as a communicative activity. However, the field of Translation Studies (TS) has been established as a branch of applied linguistics that can be investigated systematically. So, language teachers can also benefit from the field of TS. Furthermore, pedagogical translation is a sub-branch of translation studies as the Holmes's map clearly shows:

Figure 2.2: Holmes' Map (adapted from Chesterman, 2009, p. 14)
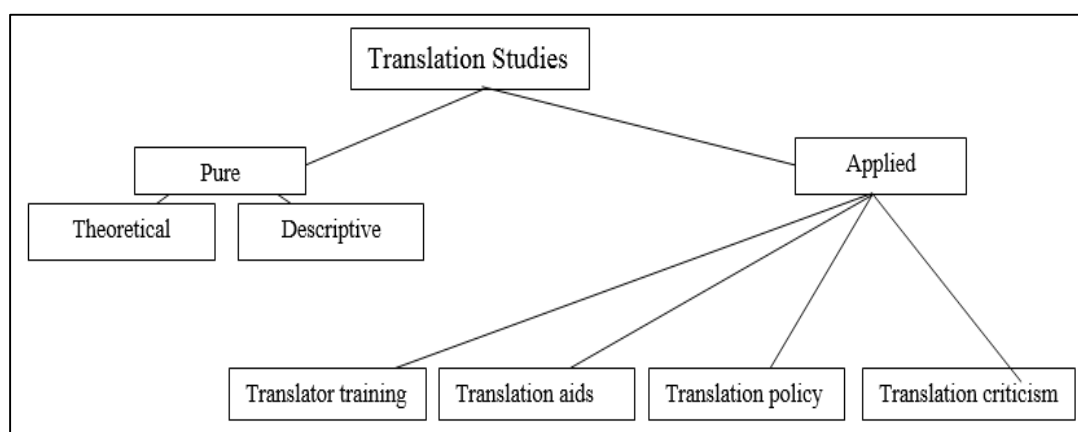
Both of the two main branches of TS may inform the teaching of translation in language teaching programmes. Moreover, the 'applied' branch in Holmes' map includes a part which is concerned with the place of translation in language teaching and learning and in the society at large. This is 'translation policy' (Holmes, 2000).

Developments in the field of translation training have encouraged the reassessment of translation, especially that we are witnessing an interdisciplinary orientation in the teaching of foreign languages (Laviosa & Cleverton, 2006). Moreover, many

translation scholars called for the use of translation in the FL classroom (Newmark, 1991; House, 2008 & 2009; Leonardi 2010; Malmkjaer, 2010; Pym et al., 2013).

2.5. The Role of Translation in Vocabulary Building

Translation contributes to developing many aspects of language. However, this study attempts to provide empirical evidence that supports its role in learning vocabulary. Dealing with vocabulary during the translation task differs significantly from the way students deal with it in other language activities like reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Finding equivalents, in fact, is at the heart of the process of translation. Thus, translation activities can be a useful resource for both the teaching and learning of lexis. So, this section is devoted to reviewing the literature on how vocabulary can better be taught and learned and in what ways translation can help in learning vocabulary.

2.5.1. Main Sources for Vocabulary Learning

Learning any language starts with learning its basic words. So, vocabulary is the most important component in learning any language. Of course, other components like grammar and pronunciation are important but nothing can be communicated without words as Harmer (1991) put it 'If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh' (p. 153). Furthermore, sometimes we communicate things using isolated words (Austin, 1962) and most of the time EFL learners fail to communicate in the target language due to their limited vocabulary.

Learning vocabulary in another language is not an easy task. This is especially true for the English language (Schmitt, 2007, p. 745) which 'probably contains the greatest number of words of any major language', about 54,000 word families. Even native speakers of English do not know all vocabulary items of their language (Nation, 2001).

Despite the fact that vocabulary is an essential component in communicative competence (Coady & Huckin, 1997), teaching vocabulary was a neglected issue till the late 1970s. It was thought that it could take care of itself (Decarrio, 2001). The 1980s, however, witnessed a great interest in how vocabulary was learned and taught. Many attempts have been done to find effective ways to promote the teaching and learning of vocabulary which resulted in the emergence of an abundant literature. This section reviews the literature on the different sources suggested for teaching and learning vocabulary.

2.5.1.1. The Role of Comprehensible Input in Learning Vocabulary

Krashen's theory of SLA (1982) has influenced views about language teaching and learning in general and learning vocabulary in particular. Based on his acquisition/learning distinction and his input hypothesis which, according to him, answered the most important question in the field of SLA which is "how do we acquire language?" (Krashen, 1982, p. 20), he argued that vocabulary is best acquired when learners read extensively (Krashen, 1993 & 2013).

Based on research studies which proved that children subconsciously acquire their first language vocabulary through listening and reading, some researchers in the field of SLA claimed the same to be true with learners of second and foreign languages (Nagy, Herman, and Anderson, 1985; Pitts, White, and Krashen, 1989; Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991). Since then, the belief that most vocabulary learning occurs when learners are exposed to comprehensible input has been an entrenched idea in the field of vocabulary learning and teaching. However, recent research (Wesche & Paribakht, 2000; Laufer, 2001; Nation, 2001; Hunt & Beglar, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Cobb, 2008; Schmitt, 2008) has shown that incidental learning of words from reading

is moderate and not sufficient and suggested integrating explicit teaching of words. Waring (2003), for example, investigated the extent to which a graded reader 'A Little Princess' was useful for incidental learning of 25 words and found that learners learned only few new words and that only words which occurred for many times could be retained by learners in the long term. Words that occurred less than eight times could not be retained after three months. He suggested that graded readers may be beneficial only for recycling already learnt words.

Therefore, no one can deny the role of comprehensible input in leaning a foreign language, especially vocabulary. However, it is not sufficient. Many researchers suggested other ways that help in learning vocabulary, which is incremental by nature. Some other researchers, as we will see, acknowledged the role of output in learning vocabulary.

2.5.1.2. The Role of Comprehensible Output in Learning Vocabulary

As a reaction to Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis and based on her experience of teaching in immersion programs, Swain (1985) developed the 'Output Hypothesis' (Swain, 2000). She observed that even after many years of exposure (6-7) to comprehensible input, students in French immersion programs had syntactic and grammatical problems. So, she claimed that learners must be pushed to produce the language through speaking and writing. She emphasised the role of output explaining that 'the importance of output to learning could be that output pushes learners to process language more deeply – with more mental effort – than does input' (Swain, 2000, p. 99).

In her publication 'Three functions of output in second language learning', Swain (1995) proposed that, besides its role in enhancing fluency, output may also enhance

accuracy in the target language in that it may serve three functions: the noticing function, the hypothesis-testing function, and the metalinguistic function. First, in accord with Schmidt & Frota (1986) noticing the gap principle, she pointed out that when they produce the target language, learners can be aware of the gaps they have in their competence. She explained this stating that 'in producing the target language, learners may encounter a linguistic problem leading them to notice what they do not know, or know only partially' (p. 129). Second, output may give students opportunities to test their hypotheses about the target language. She maintained that 'learners may use their output as a way of trying out new language forms and structures as they stretch their interlanguage to meet communicative needs; they may output just to see what works and what does not' (p. 132). Providing feedback also helps learners to acquire the target language. Finally, Swain (1995) postulated that when producing the language, learners reflect on their use of the target language which may contribute to language development. She referred to this function of output as the 'metalinguistic' or 'the conscious reflection' function.

Many empirical studies provided evidence on the usefulness of giving opportunities for output (Nobuyoshi and Ellis, 1993; Erlam, Loewen, and Philip, 2009). With regard to vocabulary learning, Laufer (2001) reported that empirical work on vocabulary acquisition showed that to do something with new words proved to be more beneficial than coming across them in input. She (2001) contended that she is

> unaware of any empirical studies which show that a particular number of exposures to a word in communication is more effective than a word-focused activity. Until such studies appear, we cannot dismiss the conclusion that doing something with a word is more effective than simply coming across it (Laufer, 2001, p. 50).

Laufer & Hulstijn (2001) reported that Ellis and He (1999) found that interactionally modified output resulted in better retention than interactionally modified input.

2.5.1.3. The Role of Focus-on-Form Activities in Learning Vocabulary

As stated previously, CLT has been criticised for many aspects. One of its drawbacks is its neglect of the role of formal teaching and learning (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, 1997). This has been especially urged when the Canadian immersion programmes, 'the most communicative language context educators have ever been able to conceive' (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 270), failed to enable learners to achieve target-like proficiency only through the provision of comprehensible input (Kowal & Swain, 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Dörnyei, 2009). This shift of attention to formal teaching that took place in 1990s has been referred to as focus-on-form (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

The origins of Focus-on-form have been traced back to Long's works (1988, 1991) (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Fotos, 1998). In 1988 Long presented his paper 'Focus on concept form: A design feature in language teaching methodology' in a conference in Italy and argued for combining pure communicative teaching and the teaching of grammar forms in context in order to improve proficiency in the target language (Fotos, 1998). According to him, 'focus on *form* … overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication' (Long as cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 3).

Form-focused instruction is sometimes used to refer to focus-on-form instruction. However, Doughty & Williams (1998) pointed out that the former label can be confusing in that it is also used to refer to focus on formS, which is used to refer to

traditional formal teaching of language forms, and suggested using focus-on-form instruction and 'FonF' instruction for short.

The late 20th century and the start of the 21st century witnessed remarkable attention to focus-on-form (Fotos, 1994 & 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998; Lyster, 1998; Nassaji, 2000; Ellis, Basturkmen, Loewen, 2002; Spada & Lightbown, 2008). The underpinning of focus-on-form instruction is Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009). Contra to Krashen's (1982) claim that acquisition is a subconscious process, Schmidt (1990, 1995) claimed that subliminal learning is impossible and that noticing is a precondition for input to be intake. In another respect, Schmidt and Frota (1986) claimed that 'a second language learner will begin to acquire the targetlike form if and only if it is present in comprehended input and "noticed" in the normal sense of the word, that is, consciously' (p. 311).

Some researchers also suggested integrating focus-on-form by emphasising the role of correcting errors during communicative activities. They claimed that negotiating meaning through the provision of feedback (explicit correction, recasts, prompts, and clarification requests) may push learners to be more accurate in producing the target language in that feedback may lead students to notice target language forms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 2006).

Muranoi (2000) investigated the usefulness of instruction enhancement (IE) in which the teacher provided implicit negative feedback during communicative activities in enhancing learners' level of proficiency in using articles of the target language. He compared between two groups: the experimental group received instruction

enhancement, the control group did not receive it. His findings yielded that unlike the control group, the experimental group significantly enhanced the use of articles.

Lyster (2004) also investigated the effectiveness of focus-on-form instruction (FFI) in the teaching of grammatical gender to students in French immersion programs. His results revealed that students received FFI outperformed those who did not receive it. He also suggested that recasts and prompts are two kinds of feedback that helped in the learning of grammatical gender.

Mackey (2006) used empirical research and found that there was a relationship between providing feedback and noticing the target language forms. She also found that there was a relationship between noticing the forms and the learning outcomes mainly in developing question forms.

Focus-on-form was first proposed to the teaching of grammar. Recently, however, some researchers have extended the role of focus-on-form to the teaching of vocabulary (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Laufer, 2001; de la Fuente, 2006, Alcón, 2007; Laufer & Girsai, 2008). It has been recognised that incidental vocabulary learning takes time, and the time devoted to exposure to the target language is not enough to teach vocabulary incidentally. Schmitt (2008) summarised research findings on incidental vocabulary learning and found that vocabulary learning does occur from reading however, the 'pickup rate is relatively low, and it seems to be difficult to gain a productive level of mastery from just exposure'. So, he suggested that 'it is probably best not to rely upon incidental learning as the primary source of learning for new words. Rather, incidental learning seems to be better at enhancing knowledge of words which have already been met' (p. 348).

Noticing has been claimed to be a precondition to the learning of vocabulary. Robinson (1995) investigated the relationship of memory to attention and consistently with Schmidt & Frota (1986) and Schmidt (1990) noticing hypothesis he concluded that 'There is minimal evidence of encoding into long-term memory without awareness' (p. 317). Furthermore, N. Ellis (1994) argued that

> Contra Krashen (1989), it does not follow that vocabulary has been subconsciously acquired from the fact that we have not been taught the vast majority of the words that we know. That we have not been taught vocabulary does not entail that we have not taught ourselves. It is quite possible, e.g., that there is some benefit to vocabulary acquisition from the learner (i) noticing novel vocabulary, (ii) selectively attending to it, and using a variety of strategies to try (iii) to infer its meaning from the context and (iv) to consolidate the memory for that new word (p. 40).

Many scholars in the field of L2 vocabulary teaching and learning suggested integrating focus-on-form instruction in the teaching of vocabulary. Zimmerman (1997) found that combining interactive vocabulary instruction and moderate amounts of self-selected readings resulted in gains of vocabulary. Paribakht & Wesche (1997) compared reading only tasks and reading plus activities on vocabulary and found that the latter condition proved to be more effective than the former one. Laufer (2000) found that using electronic dictionary to check the meaning of unfamiliar words encountered in reading an electronic text led to a long-term retention better than reading a paper text with glosses in the margin despite the fact that the target words were highlighted in both texts. In another study, Laufer (2001) surveyed research on vocabulary learning and concluded that reading only is not the main source of learning

vocabulary and she acknowledged the role of formal instruction in teaching vocabulary especially the role of word-focused activities. Folse (2006) measured vocabulary retention under three different tasks: one fill-in-the-blank exercise, three fill-in-the-blank exercises, and one original-sentence-writing exercise. He found that three fill-in-the-blank exercises were more effective in terms of vocabulary retention.

Based on the 'Depth of Processing Hypothesis' that was constructed by Craik & Lockhart (1972), who claimed that recalling items was dependent on the depth of processing of that items, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) proposed their motivational-cognitive construct of involvement load which includes three components: 'need', 'search', and 'evaluation'.

'Need' constitutes the motivational dimension of the construct. It is present in a given task when a word is necessary for the task completion and that the learner cannot ignore. It can be moderate or strong. It is moderate when a teacher imposes it externally, for example, in filling in the gap exercises. It is strong when the learner himself decides to know the meaning of a word while reading or to look up a word in a dictionary to use it while writing.

'Search' and 'evaluation' constitute the cognitive dimension of the construct of involvement. 'Search' is the attempt to know the meaning of a new word by consulting the dictionary or by guessing its meaning from the context. It is also present when the learner looks up a word form to express a given concept. 'Evaluation' occurs when the learner compares a given word to other synonyms or when he compares a meaning of a word with its other possible meanings to select the most appropriate word that fits the context. It can be moderate or strong. A moderate evaluation is the recognition by the learner of the differences between words in fill-in-

the blanks activities or the comparison by the learner between different meanings of a word in a given context. Evaluation is strong when the learner tries to use a new word in an original sentence.

Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) contended that retention of words learned incidentally depends on the depth processing of that words and the involvement load while performing on a task, which they defined as 'the combination of the presence or absence of the involvement factors Need, Search, and Evaluation' (p. 15), that a given task induces. According to them, a task's effectiveness depends on the involvement load it induces. A task with higher involvement load leads to better retention of words than a task with lower involvement load. They used the minus mark (-) to indicate the absence of a given factor, the plus mark (+) to indicate its presence, and the double plus marks (++) to indicate that a given factor is strong.

2.5.3. The Four Strands

Learning vocabulary in general, and learning vocabulary of a foreign language in particular is a complex phenomenon. Moreover, as Laufer (2001) postulated, 'vocabulary learning is a never ending process in one's native language, let alone in a foreign language' (p. 549). So, many factors and many sources may have roles in the learning of vocabulary.

Incidental learning of vocabulary through reading is important, however, it is not enough. In order to comprehend a text without assistance, the learners should understand 98% of its vocabulary (Hu Hsueh-chao & Nation, 2000). So, when can we expose learners to unfamiliar words? This question has an implication to the integration of other ways to enhance vocabulary teaching and learning. Nation (2001)

argued that four sources: comprehensible meaning-focused input, form-focused instruction, meaning-focused output, and fluency development are essential to the learning of vocabulary, which he called the 'four strands'. Nation gave equal importance to the four sources and suggested that 'In a language course, the four strands should get roughly the same amount of time' (p. 3).

2.5.3. The Merits of Translation in Vocabulary Learning

Many scholars (Heltai, 1989; Prince, 1996; Nation, 2001; Folse, 2004; Laviosa & Cleverton, 2006; Hayati & Mohammadi, 2009) acknowledged the role of translation in learning vocabulary. In the light of the above review, we try now to discuss ways in which translation can serve the learning of vocabulary.

First, translation, especially L1-L2 translation, is a pushed output activity par excellence for leaning vocabulary. FL learners frequently use strategies to compensate for their failure especially when dealing with vocabulary (Oxford, 1990). For example, they can overcome problems while speaking and writing by selecting the topic. They also tend to use only vocabulary they know and avoid using words that they fairly know (Jones, 2001; Lee & Muncie, 2006). When they read and listen, they can guess intelligently the meaning of words from context. However, when they translate, learners cannot skip words that they do not know. They have to focus on almost each word and when they fail to infer the meaning of a given word from context, they use monolingual and/or bilingual dictionaries. Therefore, the translation process prevents or limits the use of avoidance strategies. When they translate, learners may activate their dormant vocabulary and make use of the new vocabulary they have learned. Translating activities are also an opportunity for learners to enlarge their vocabulary and to learn vocabulary related to specific domains.

Second, translation is a useful focus-on-form activity for learning vocabulary. The fact that lexical items are inescapable in translation tasks, learners notice the lexical items presented in the text and they will be aware of their gaps of vocabulary knowledge. So, it gives learners the opportunity to assess their vocabulary knowledge both receptively and productively.

Third, translation is a task with a high involvement load (Laufer and Girsai, 2008; Lertola, 2012; Jahangard & Akbari, 2013). In their study, Laufer and Girsai (2008) compared performances of three high school groups whose L1 was Hebrew and who were with comparable L2 (English) proficiency in terms of incidental acquisition of single words and collocations. The first group had meaning focused instruction (MFI), the second group had non-contrastive form-focused instruction (FFI), and the third one had contrastive analysis and translation (CAT). They tested vocabulary retention after the task completion and one week after it and found that the (CAT) group performed better than the other two groups. Moreover, they found that 'The group that did not receive any form-focused instruction learnt almost no vocabulary' (p. 709). They explained their results in terms of 'noticing' hypothesis, 'pushed output', and 'task-induced involvement load'.

Laufer and Girsai (2008) argued that translation was a task with a high involvement load. They found that 'need' was present in both L1-L2 and L2-L1 translations. L2-L1 translation demanded knowing the meaning of items and L1-L2 pushed the subjects to have the form of words and so 'search' was present in both translation directions. Finally, they pointed out that both translation directions required from the subjects to evaluate words against the other surrounding words to get the most appropriate equivalent and so evaluation was also present in the two tasks. However, it was

moderate in L2-L1 translation and strong in L1-L2 direction. They described the involvement load of CAT as follows:

L2-L1: + need + search + evaluation

L1-L2: + need + search ++ evaluation

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature on the revival of translation in the postmethod era. It has discussed how the economic and political factors perpetuated the monolingual tenet in the teaching of foreign languages during the 20th century. It has also dealt with the widespread objections to translation and refuted them reviewing previous empirical studies. Finally, this chapter reviewed the main sources of vocabulary learning and highlighted the merits of using translation as another resource for promoting vocabulary learning which will help in data analysis.

Chapter Three

Situation Analysis: Teachers and Students' Views Regarding the Use of Translation in the FL Classroom

Chapter Three

Situation Analysis: Teachers and Students' Views Regarding
the Use of Translation in the FL Classroom

Introduction

This study argues that translation has a role to play in FL teaching and learning. To back this argument, it is very essential to investigate teachers and students' beliefs regarding the use of translation in the FL classroom. Thus, this chapter is devoted to analysing teachers and students' questionnaires. Probing their views towards Translation Practice module and knowing about their teaching and learning practices will undoubtedly give information about their perceptions regarding the use of translation in the teaching and learning of EFL.

3.1. The Rationale for Using the Questionnaires

According to Brown (2001) 'Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers' (p. 6). Though it is a widespread belief that data drawn from a questionnaire is not always reliable, a questionnaire remains a needed element in probing views of the subjects under investigation. Moreover, well structured questionnaires can yield valuable data. This study incorporated a questionnaire to teachers and another one to students to elicit information about their opinions on the role of translation in the FL classroom in general and in the learning of vocabulary in particular and about integrating it as a fifth skill.

3.2. The Teachers Questionnaire

3.2.1. The Teachers Pilot Questionnaire

To avoid problems of ambiguity, redundancy, and order of questions, a pilot questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was handed to four teachers of Translation Practice module (TP) at the Department of English Language, University of Constantine 1.

3.2.1.1. Analysis of the Teachers Pilot Questionnaire

Table 3.1 Results of Section One (Teachers' Background)

Questions	Results
Question 1	One of the four teachers holds a PhD and one of them is a Magister holder. The other two teachers hold BA.
Question 2	50% of the respondents worked as full-time teachers and the other 50% of them worked as part-time teachers
Question 3	75% of teachers said that they hold a diploma in translating.
Question 4	50% of teachers had one year of experience. 25% of them had experience of four years in teaching TP module and 25% had five years.
Question 5	75% of teachers said that they teach other modules like Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, Written Expression, and Grammar.

Table 3.2 Results of Section Two (Teachers' Perceptions on TP Module and their Teaching Practices)

Questions	Results
Question 6	100 % of the respondents see that TP was implemented to teach vocabulary, to raise the problem of interference, and to develop students' level of proficiency but not to train students to be professional translators.
Question 7	100 % of teachers consider TP as an important module.

Question 8	100% of the teachers claimed that their students are motivated during the translation class.
Question 9	100% of the respondents use texts in their teachings.
Question 10	100 % of the teachers claimed that they use different types of texts.
Question 11	50% of the teachers see that students find difficulty when they translate from Arabic into English. The other 50% said that they have difficulty in translating in both directions.
Question 12	100% of the respondents said that students perform well in English-Arabic translation.
Question 13	75% of teachers said that when they assess students' productions, they focus on grammar, vocabulary, and overall meaning. 25% of them focuses on vocabulary.
Question 14	75% of teachers claimed that their students possess their dictionaries.
Question 15	75% of teachers said that their students systematically use dictionaries while translating.
Question 16	75% of teachers see that translation activities are useful to students to develop the skill of using dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) *per se*.

Table 3.3 Results of Section Three (Translation and Vocabulary Learning)

Questions	Results
Question 17	100% of the teachers agree that most of the time EFL students fail to translate from and into English because of lack of English vocabulary.
Question 18	100 % of teachers see that translation activities are useful for the teaching of selected vocabulary (phrasal verbs, collocations, terminology, idioms).
Question 19	100 % of teachers agree that English-Arabic-English translation helps students to activate their dormant vocabulary.

Table 3.4 Results of Section Four (Translation as a Fifth Skill)

Questions	Results
Question 20	100% of the respondents see that translation helps EFL students to improve the writing and the reading skills.
Question 21	50% of the teachers welcome translation as a fifth skill. 50% of them answered by "no" but they did not justify their answers.

3.2.1.2. Discussion of the Teachers Pilot Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire helped us in improving the final version of the teachers questionnaire in terms of organisation, relevance, and completeness. The following are the modifications brought about by the analysis of the pilot questionnaire:

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions on TP Module and their Teaching Practices

- Two crucial questions were added to know more about how translation is taught at the Department of English. The first question is about translation theory "Do you teach translation theory in class, or do you only give students activities to practice translation?" The second question is on the type of equivalence teachers ask their students to provide.

- Question 12: the item "none of them" was included.

- Question 13: we added the item "all of them" because some teachers may focus on all of the suggested aspects in assessing students' productions.

- Questions 15, 16, and 17 on dictionaries were placed under section three because they are more related to vocabulary learning.

Section Four: Translation as a Fifth Skill

- Question 20 was rephrased as "can translation help EFL students to improve the other skills?" because in the translation class, students may also practice the listening and speaking skills and not only the reading and writing skills.

- Question 21: to probe teachers' views about integrating translation as a fifth skill, the items strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree were used instead of "yes" and "no". The phrase 'Please, justify your answer" was also added.

Furthermore, the findings yielded by the pilot questionnaire gave us more inspiration to carry on the investigation. 100% of the teachers see that translation may help in building vocabulary (Tables 3.3). 100% find it useful in improving the writing and reading skills and 50% of them endorsed it as a fifth skill (Table 3.4).

3.2.2. Description and Administration of the Teachers Questionnaire

The teachers questionnaire comprises 23 questions (Appendix 3), nineteen are closed-ended, two questions (Q9 & Q12) are open-ended questions, and two questions (Q22 & Q23) are with clarification questions. This questionnaire is divided into four sections. Section one (Q1-Q5) provides general information about the informants, namely their qualifications, academic status, experience, and field of speciality. Section two (Q6-Q15) is about teachers' attitudes towards the module of TP and their teaching practices. Section three (Q16-Q21) discloses teachers' views about the role of translation in learning vocabulary and in developing the skill of using dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual). Section four (Q22 & Q23) gauges teachers' views about the place of translation in developing the four skills and about the idea of integrating it as a fifth skill.

The teachers questionnaire was administered to 14 teachers of TP module at the Department of Letters and English Language at the University of Constantine 1. They filled in the questionnaire and the majority of them showed their interest in the addressed topic.

3.2.3. Analysis of the Teachers Questionnaire

Section One: Teachers' Background

Q1: What is your educational qualification?

Table 3.5: Teachers' Qualifications

PhD	Magister	Master	BA
05	01	06	02
35.71%	07.14%	42.86%	14.29%

Q2: What is your academic status?

Table 3.6: Teachers' Academic Status

Full-time	Part-time	Total
06	08	14
42.86%	57.14%	100%

As Table 3.5 displays, the majority of the respondents were qualified teachers. Five teachers were PhD holders, one teacher was a Magister holder, six teachers were MA holders who were undertaking doctoral research and only two respondents were BA holders. However, about 58% of them were part-time teachers (Table 3.6).

Q3: Is translation your field of specialisation?

Table 3.7: Teachers' Field of Speciality

Yes	No	Total
08	06	14
57.14%	42.86%	100%

Q4: How many years have you been teaching Translation Practice module?

Table 3.8: Teachers' Experience in Teaching Translation

Years of Experience	10	09	08	05	04	02	01
Number of teachers	01	01	01	02	01	01	07

Not all TP teachers were specialised in teaching translation (Table 3.7). Six of the eight teachers claimed that they had translation as part of their MA program and only the other two, who were BA holders, graduated from the department of translation. And as the above table shows, half the number of teachers had experience of one year in the teaching of TP module.

Q5: Do you teach other modules? Please name them

Almost all teachers reported that they taught modules other than TP like Written Expression, Oral Expression, Pragmatics, Linguistics, Phonetics, Grammar, ESP, Methodology, which revealed that teachers see the teaching of translation as not different from teaching other subjects. Overall, we may say that the majority of teachers taught translation because they had interest in it.

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions on TP Module and their Teaching Practices

Q6: What is the rationale behind the implementation of Translation Practice in the teaching of English as a foreign language?

a. To train students to be professional translators

b. To teach English vocabulary

c. As a remedy to the problem of transfer by comparing between the two systems (Arabic and English)

d. To improve students' level of English proficiency

Table 3.9: The Rationale Behind the Implementation of TP in the Teaching of
English as a Foreign Language

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
a	00	00%
b+d	01	7.14%
c	04	28.57%
c+d	02	14.28%
b+c+d	04	28.57%
d	03	21.42%
Total	14	100%

Permitted to tick more than one answer, none of the respondents ticked 'a'. 28.57%

of the teacher participants find that the module of TP is useful to eradicate the problem

of interference. 21.42% of them see that TP has been implemented to improve

students' level of English proficiency. Overall, the 14 participants believe that TP has

been devised to promote the teaching and learning of the FL and not to train students to

be professional translators.

Q7: How do you consider translation in the context of teaching English as a
foreign language?

a. An important and useful technique for teaching /learning/assessing the target
language
b. A suitable remedy to interference
c. Additional and useless

Table 3.10: On the Importance of TP Module

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
a	05	35.72%
a+b	03	21.42%
b	05	35.72%
c	01	7.14%
Total	14	100%

As the above Table demonstrates, the majority of teachers hold positive views about TP module. They acknowledged its usefulness in teaching, learning, and assessing the FL and also in eradicating the problem of interference. Only one teacher conceived of TP as an additional and useless subject.

Q8: Are your students motivated or bored when they translate in class?

Table 3.11: Students' Motivation in TP Classes

Well motivated	Motivated	Bored	Total
02	11	01	14
14.28%	78.57%	07.15%	100%

Only one teacher said that his/her students find it boring when they translate. The rest of teachers said that their students enjoy the translation class which contradicts the popular belief that translation activities are boring.

Q9: Do you teach translation theory in class, or do you only give students activities to practice translation?

Almost all teachers said that they focus on practising translation but they shift, from time to time, to translation theory when students come across problems in translating. As has been said in chapter one, the GTM was criticised on the grounds that it had no

theory and that the students translated mechanically isolated sentences. So, translation teachers should be aware of the importance of translation theory because it guides students to translate effectively and also to achieve dynamic translation. As stated above the majority of TP teachers are not specialised in translation but they can benefit from the discipline of translation.

Q10: What do you prefer for your teachings, sentence-level exercises or texts?

<p align="center">Table 3.12: Types of Exercises Used in the Translation Class</p>

Sentence-level Exercises	Translating Texts	Both	Total
03	10	01	14
21.42%	71.42%	7.14%	100%

Of the respondents (N=14), 71.42% said they use texts in their teaching. Translating texts offers students the opportunity to practise the other skills especially reading and writing. It also promotes discussion and negotiation of meaning and so students focus on achieving dynamic equivalence rather than word-for-word translation.

Q11: Do you use different types/registers of texts?

<p align="center">Table 3.13: Types of Texts Used in the Translation Class</p>

Yes	No	Total
14	00	14
100%	00%	100%

All teachers (N=14) claimed that they use different types of texts, something that helps learners in expanding their vocabulary stock and in improving their writing

styles. Also, they gain knowledge in different fields. Using a variety of texts also can minimise the problem of boredom.

Q12: What type of equivalence do you ask your students to provide?

All respondents admitted that they emphasise achieving dynamic equivalence. So, students become aware of similarities and differences that exist between their L1 and the target language.

**Q13: What do you take more into consideration when you assess students'
translations?**

Grammar; (b) vocabulary; (c) surface features; (d) overall meaning; (e) all of them

Table 3.14: Areas of Focus in Assessing Students' Translations

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
a+b+d	02	14.28%
a+d	01	7.14%
e	11	78.57%
Total	14	100%

Of all the respondents (N=14), (78.57%) focus on all aspects when they assess students' translations. Only two teachers reported that they do not focus on surface features. So, assessing students' versions and focusing on their grammar, vocabulary, overall meaning, and surface features (capitalisation, punctuation, etc.) will undoubtedly contribute to developing their competence and also will help teachers in knowing students' problems, deficiencies, and pitfalls.

Q14: On which do you focus more, English-Arabic, Arabic-English, or both?

Table 3.15: The Direction Teachers Focus on in Their Teaching

Arabic-English	English-Arabic	Both	Total
03	03	08	14
21.42%	21.42%	57.14%	100%

Of the respondents, (57.14%) focus on both directions, three of them focus on Arabic-English and the other three focus on English-Arabic. Something which contradicts the old belief that translating from the mother tongue into the foreign language is a waste of time and that it does not help in learning the foreign language. Each direction has its benefits in developing students' competence in the target language. L1-L2 can be a pushed output activity in which students are obliged to produce in the target language and L2-L1 translation can be a rich input because students should read the original text carefully to comprehend it.

Q15: In which direction do students perform well?

Table 3.16: The Direction on which Students Perform Well

English-Arabic	Arabic-English	None of them	Total
13	00	01	14
92.85%	00%	7.14%	100%

Of all the respondents (N=14), (92.85%) acknowledged that students perform well when they translate from English into Arabic. This can be justified by the fact that students are more competent in Arabic and so they can translate easily but this does not mean that translating from Arabic into English is not useful, translating in this direction pushes students to use what they previously learned and so they can notice gaps in their knowledge.

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

Q16: Do you agree that _most _of the time EFL students fail to translate from and into English because of English vocabulary shortage?

Table 3.17: Teachers' Opinions on the Students' Frequent Failure to Translate because of Vocabulary Shortage

Yes	No	Total
13	01	14
92.85%	07.14%	100%

Only 07.14% of the teachers responded negatively to this question. Looking for equivalents is at the heart of the translation process. Even professional translators come across difficulties in translating lexical items and they must have their dictionaries. Of course grammar and other aspects of the language contribute to the rendition of meaning, but they do not lead to the complete distortion of meaning as lexical items do.

Q17: While translating many if not all the lexical items are inescapable, so do you think it is effective to teach selected vocabulary (phrasal verbs, collocations, terminology, idioms) through translation activities?

Table 3.18: Teachers' Views Regarding the Idea of Teaching Selected Vocabulary through Translation

Yes	No	Total
13	01	14
92.85%	7.14%	100%

About 93% of the respondents believe that the translation act helps in learning vocabulary in that almost if not all the lexical items are inescapable while translating. When students come across new words or words they are not sure about their meanings, they consult the dictionary and so they can elaborate their vocabulary unlike when reading a text to get the gist. Also, when students misspell words in their versions, they can correct their mistakes through discussion in the classroom. So, translation is a useful focus-on-form activity that gives students the opportunity to notice and learn new words especially idiomatic expressions, proverbs, and phrasal verbs.

Q18: It is said that translation is rewriting, so can English-Arabic-English translation help our students to activate their dormant vocabulary?

Table 3.19: The Role of Translation in Activating the Dormant Vocabulary

Yes	No	Total
14	00	14
100%	00%	100%

Of all the respondents (N=14), (100%) acknowledged that translation activities are useful for the promotion of vocabulary learning. As said above, most of the time the translator cannot skip words and when s/he comes across new lexical items, s/he uses dictionaries which help in enlarging and activating vocabulary.

Q19: Do your students possess their own dictionaries?

Table 3.20: Students Who Have Dictionaries

Yes	No	Total
13	01	14
92.85%	7.14%	100%

Q20: If yes, do they systematically use them while translating?

Table 3.21: Teachers' Views about the Way Their
Students Use the Dictionary

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
08	05	01	14
57.14%	35.71%	7.14%	100%

Of all the respondents, 92.85% reported that students possess their dictionaries (Table 3.20). So, students are aware of the fact that translation demands the use of dictionaries and this also revealed that students are interested in translation classes. Furthermore, (57.14%) of the respondents said that students systematically use dictionaries when translating (Table 3.21). So, translation activities are beneficial for developing the skill of using dictionaries, the bilingual and monolingual, which also help in developing students' competence especially in the learning of vocabulary.

Q21: Do you think that translation activities are useful to develop the skill of using dictionaries (bilingual and monolingual) per se?

Table 3.22: The Usefulness of Translation in Developing the Skill of Using Dictionaries

Yes	No	Total
13	01	14
92.85%	07,15%	100%

Of the teacher respondents (N=14), 92.85% acknowledged the fact that translation activities develop the skill of using monolingual and bilingual dictionaries which is totally ignored in the curriculum. The fact that most of the lexical items are inescapable

while translating, students cannot leave out words and they are obliged to use dictionaries which helps in expanding and consolidating their vocabulary knowledge and so they improve their communicative competence.

Section Four: Translation as a Fifth Skill

Q22: Can translation help EFL students to improve the other skills?

Table 3.23: The Usefulness of Translation in Developing the Four Language Skills

Yes	No	Total
12	02	14
86%	14%	100%

Figure 3.1: The Usefulness of Translation in Developing the Four Language Skills
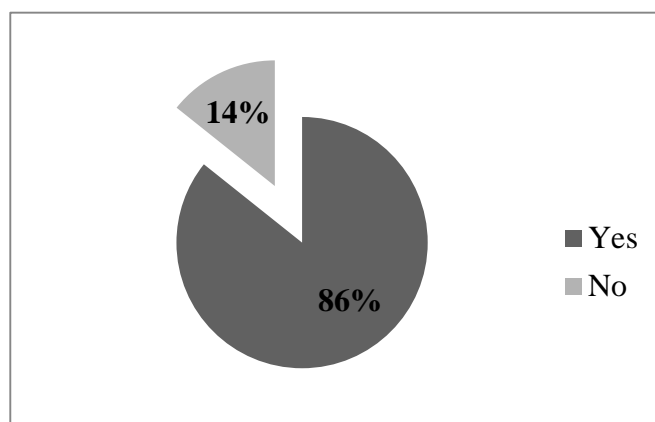
Of the total respondents (N=14), 86% believe that translation helps in developing the other four basic skills. Good translation entails good reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills. Translation is a multi-skilled activity that includes and to a certain extent depends on them, so it helps in practising and improving them. Translation is a context in which students put their language competence into real use. Discussing final products also gives students the opportunity to use the target language and so students

may improve the speaking and listening skills. The following are some of the explanations provided by teachers:

- Translation is not only limited to transferring the meaning of a text from one language to another. It has further purposes among which to enable one to communicate with clarity, style and precision.
- It helps them to enlarge vocabulary and to improve grammar.
- It helps them through providing them with basic knowledge about the language itself.
- Translation helps students develop their writing skill.
- Translation can be a means for motivating learners to investigate so many areas of language and culture in order to provide a faithful translation.
- It improves mainly writing.
- It improves writing (style), grammar, coherence, cohesion, etc.
- Knowing the areas of similarity and areas of differences between Arabic and English helps the students to <u>avoid</u> the pitfalls of translation, and helps them to produce meaningful, grammatically well-structured English sentences (essays). Enriching their lexicon helps them in improving the speaking skill.
- The student may improve his writing skills by learning from the teaching/learning process of translation, by correcting mistakes with teachers and classmates in order to produce adequate translations.
- While we translate, we cannot ignore grammar and vocabulary.

Q23: Translation depends on the other four language skills, especially Reading and Writing; do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the other skills?

Table 3.24: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Idea of Integrating Translation as a Fifth Skill

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
03	07	03	01	14
21.42%	50%	21.42%	7.14%	100%

Figure 3.2: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Idea of Integrating Translation as a Fifth Skill
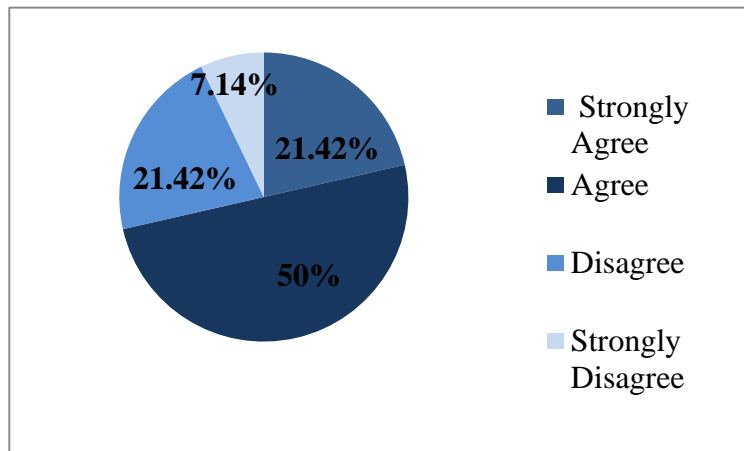
Of the total respondents, (50%) endorsed the idea of integrating translation as a fifth skill; against only one teacher (7.15%) who seemed to strongly disagree with. So, as the above figure shows, the majority of teachers welcomed translation as a fifth skill. The teacher who responded by 'strongly disagree' justified his answer saying that "Translation is the whole language; it is rather the four skills, not the fifth one". This result backs up the refutations of the widespread arguments against translation discussed in Chapter Two. The teachers who positively answered to this question gave the following explanations to justify their answers:

- Because of its importance in developing and improving the level in all other skills especially writing and reading
- It goes without saying that he who possesses good command of the four skills will not experience great difficulties in the process of translation. Nonetheless, this is not enough to achieve a proper translation. The translator must be well-acquainted with the language and culture of the writer, I would, thus, say that it may be considered as a fifth skill.
- Translation helps students in the process of language learning via getting large vocabulary and good grammar.
- Translation needs creativity and a good writing skill.

- Translation is a combination of the four skills; when we interpret, we practice speaking and listening and when we translate, we practise writing and reading. This is why we need to consider it as a fifth skill.
- Since translation helps students to improve their English language proficiency, so it can be considered as the fifth skill.
- It improves the reading skill
- Sure, because translation helps in developing the reading and writing skills.
- Of course, translation is a fifth skill. Being good in writing does not entail that you are good in translation. To be a good translator, you need to be a good writer.
- Translation is not a skill. It is a technique or a methodology of learning a language.
- Translation is a different aspect of language. It cannot be considered as a skill because either you have the talent of translating or not. One cannot improve his translation if s/he does not have it.

3.3. The Students Questionnaire

3.3.1. The Students Pilot Questionnaire

Fourteen third-year Applied Language Studies students at the Department of English, University of Constantine 1 were randomly chosen to fill in the student pilot questionnaire under the researcher's supervision. The pilot questionnaire comprises 20 items grouped under four sections (see Appendix # 2).

3.3.1.1. Analysis of the Students Pilot Questionnaire

The following tables summarise the results of the pilot questionnaire:

Table 3.25: Results of Section One (About Students' Use of Translation Strategy)

Questions	Results
Question 1	78.57% of the respondents (N=14) translate mentally while reading in the target language.
Question 2	12 students responded to this question. 75% of them translate mentally when listening.
Question 3	78.57% of the students translate mentally when writing in the target language.
Question 4	85.71% of the respondents use Arabic subtitles when they watch English-talking films to check comprehension.
Question 5	All of the students (100%) use Arabic when they work in groups.
Question 6	57.14% of the students draw comparisons between Arabic and English when they deal with English vocabulary and grammar.
Question 7	50% of the respondents reported that they are always curious to know the Arabic equivalents to the English words that they come across when they read or listen.
Question 8	71.42% of the student participants admitted that they often write the Arabic or French equivalents to the English new words when the teacher explains the lesson.

Table 3.26: Results of Section Two (Students' Opinions about the Value of TP Module)

Questions	Results
Question 9	Students' responses revealed that they hold positive views to translation. 50% ticked well motivated and 50% ticked motivated.
Question 10	All of the respondents (N=14), (100%) conceive TP as an important and interesting module.
Question 11	100% see that TP is the module which enables them to be aware of their vocabulary size.
Question 12	69.23% of them find it difficult to translate from Arabic into English. 30.77% said that they have difficulty when they translate from English into Arabic.

Table 3.27: Results of Section Three (Translation and Vocabulary Learning)

Questions	Results
Question 13	78.57% of the participants said that they focus on spelling and choice of words while translating.
Question 14	85.71% of the students admitted that they remember the new words that they came across while translating when performing on other language activities.
Question 15	42.85% of the respondents claimed to use all types of dictionaries while translating.
Question 16	57.14% of the fourteen students check pronunciations, spellings, inflections, synonyms, opposites, derivatives, and explanations when they look up words while translating.
Question 17	92.85% of the students check the meanings of the nearby words when they look up words while translating.
Question 18	35.71% of the participants said that their teachers allow them to use the bilingual dictionary.

Table 3.28: Results of Section Four (Translation as the Fifth Skill)

Questions	Results
Question 19	85.71% of the fourteen students see that translation helps them improve the other four skills.
Question 20	92.85% agree that translation could be considered as a fifth skill alongside the other four skills against only one who responded with "disagree".

3.3.1.2. Discussion of the Students Pilot Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire helped in refining the items for the final version of the questionnaire. After analysing results of the pilot questionnaire the following adjustments were made:

Section One: About students' use of translation strategy

- The word "often" was added in questions 1, 2, and 3.

- Question 2: the word "authentic" seemed to be ambiguous to some students and it was replaced by "English music, films, or other programmes".

- Some questions were also reordered. Questions 3 and 4 were reversed. Question 5 was placed after questions 6, 7, and 8.

- Because some students use French in learning English so, the phrase "or other language (French)" added to question 6 "Do you often compare to find similarities and differences between your mother tongue and English when you are dealing with English vocabulary and grammar?"

Section Two: Students' opinions about the value of TP module

- Question 11 "Is Translation Practice _the_ module that enables you be aware of your vocabulary size?" is related to vocabulary learning, so it was placed under section three.

Section Three: Translation and vocabulary learning

- Question 14 was reformulated as "Do you use the words that you came across while translating when you perform on other tasks in the target language?"

Section Four: Translation as the Fifth Skill

- Question 20 was reformulated as "Translation is an activity that language learners face every day as students and workers. It includes the four language skills and is, to a certain extent, dependent on them (especially Reading and Writing skills), so do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the four other skills?" The words "yes" and "no" seemed to be

extreme choices and so the items strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree were also added.

The findings of the pilot questionnaire also gave us inspiration to carry on the study. First, as Table 3.25 shows, translation is cognitive activity that naturally occurs in the process of learning foreign languages. 78.57% use it while reading, 75% when listening, and 78.57% employ it when writing in the target language. Second, 100% of the respondents hold positive views towards TP module (Table 3.26). Third, translation can be a useful resource for vocabulary building (Table 3.27). Finally, as Table 3.28 demonstrates, 85.71% of the participants find translation useful for developing the four skills and 92.85% of them welcomed it as fifth skill alongside reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

3.3.2. Description and Administration of the Students Questionnaire

For the students questionnaire, it includes 20 closed-ended questions (Appendix 4). This was done on purpose to make respondents more motivated to fill in the questionnaire. The questions are grouped under four sections. Section one (Q1-Q8) deals with students' use of translation strategy and Arabic in learning English. Section two (Q9-Q11) is about the views students hold about TP module. Section three (Q12-Q18) is concerned with the role of translation in learning English lexis and in developing the skill of using dictionaries (monolingual & bilingual) *per se*. Section four (Q19 & Q20) gauges students' perceptions on the place of translation in enhancing the four skills and on integrating it as a fifth skill.

The students questionnaire was distributed to 90 third year Applied Language Studies students in the Department of Letters and English Language at the University

of Constantine 1. The purpose of choosing to work with these subjects was that they were expected to have acquired basic knowledge (in their second year) about translation and that they had TP in their third year as an important subject. Students completed questionnaires under the researcher's supervision during their class and they were given enough time to respond.

3.3.3. Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

Section One: About Students' Use of Translation Strategy

Q1: Do you often translate mentally while reading books, newspapers, magazines, or other materials in English?

Table 3.29: Students' Use of Translation Strategy When Reading

Yes	No	Total
80	10	90
88.89%	11.11%	100%

Q2: Do you often translate mentally when you listen to English music, films, or other programmes?

Table 3.30: Students' Use of Translation Strategy When Listening

Yes	No	Total
71	19	90
78.89%	21.11%	100%

Q3: When you watch an English-talking film that provides subtitling, do you use Arabic subtitles to check your comprehension?

Table 3.31: Students' Use of Arabic Subtitles to Check their Comprehension

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
81	08	01	90
90%	8.89%	01.11%	100%

Q4: Do you often translate mentally when writing in the target language (English)?

Table 3.32: Students' Use of Translation Strategy When Writing

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
70	19	01	90
77.78%	21.11%	11.11%	100%

Table 3.33: Students Answered by Yes/No in All Questions about Translation Strategy Use

Only Yes	Only No
41	00
45.55%	00%

Tables 3.29, 3.30, 3.31, and 3.32 above show the inevitability of mental translation in learning the FL. Of the total respondents (N=90), 89% said they use it when reading (Table 3.29); 79% when listening (Table 3.30); 90% employ it to check comprehension (Table 3.31) and 79% when writing (Table 3.32). Furthermore, as Table 3.33 shows, (45.55%) of the respondents translate mentally when they read, listen, and write. This result revealed the fact that mental translation is a learning strategy used by both skilled and unskilled learners. So, in spite of the efforts made by methodologists and may be by some teachers to adhere to the English –only policy, learners, unconsciously and consciously, think in their L1 when they perform on other tasks in the FL. These

results substantiate the literature on the impossibility of achieving coordinate bilingualism (Widdowson, 2003). They also corroborate the findings of research on translation as a naturally occurring activity in learning foreign languages dealt with in Chapter Two. Moreover, these results refute arguments 5, 6, and 7 against translation mentioned by Malmkjaer (1997) (see Chapter Two).

Q5: Do you often compare to find similarities and differences between your mother tongue or other language (French) and English when you are dealing with English vocabulary and grammar?

Table 3.34: Students' Use of Comparing Between Arabic and English as a Leaning Strategy

Yes	No	Total
68	22	90
75.56%	24.44%	100%

Q6: Are you [always] curious to know the Arabic equivalents of the English words that you come across when you read or listen?

Table 3.35: Students' Curiosity to Know the L1 Equivalents of English Words

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
68	20	02	90
75.56%	22.22%	02.22%	100%

Q7: Do you often write the Arabic or French equivalents of the English new words when your teacher explains the lesson?

Table 3.36: Students' Use of Translation in Learning New Vocabulary

Yes	No	Sometimes	No Answer	Total
64	24	01	01	90
71.11%	26.67%	01.11%	01.11%	100%

Q8: Do you use Arabic when you are in group work?

Table 3.37: Students' Use of L1 in the FL Classroom

Yes	No	Total
82	08	90
91.11%	08.89%	100%

About 76% of the respondents admitted that they draw comparisons between the target language and that they are always curious to know the Arabic equivalents of the English words (Table 3.34 & Table 3.35), which proves that 'the L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life' (Stern, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 188). 71% of them revealed that they use notebooks to write Arabic and French equivalents to the English new words during their classes (Table 3.36). Furthermore and unsurprisingly, 91% of the respondents said that they use Arabic when they work in groups (Table 3.37) -a fact that proves that whatever the directions given by teachers are how their students would work, the latter use their L1 in their learning of foreign language. This result backs the research findings on code switching as a natural phenomenon among learners of foreign languages (see Chapter Two). The results displayed in the above tables refute objections 5, 6, 7 stated by Malmkjaer (1997). Interference is an inherent problem in learning foreign languages, so translation can be a remedy to it. When

learners compare between the two systems, they can test their hypotheses about the target language.

Section Two: Students' Opinions about the Value of TP Module

Q9: How do you feel during translation classes?

Table 3.38: Students' Motivation in Translation Classes

Well motivated	Motivated	Bored	Total
18	59	13	90
20%	65.56%	14.44%	100%

Q10: How do you consider Translation Practice module?

Table3. 39: Students' Opinions about the Usefulness of TP

Important and Interesting	An additional Subject	Not important at all	Total
78	12	00	90
86.67%	13.33%	00%	100%

The majority of students hold positive views regarding the use of translation in the FL classroom: (20%) of them said that they are well-motivated and (65.56%) are motivated during translation classes (Table 3.38). Students' answers to this question are in accordance with the teachers answers to the same question. Moreover, (86.67%) assume that TP is an important and interesting module (Table 3.39).

Q11: Which direction of translation do you find difficult: Arabic-English or English- Arabic?

Table 3.40: The Direction of Translation that Students Find More Difficult

Arabic-English	English-Arabic	No Answer	Total
61	28	01	90
67.78%	31.11%	11.11%	100%

Although Arabic is the students' L1, (31.11%) of them find it difficult to translate from English into Arabic which proves that not all students have the same level of proficiency in Standard Arabic. So, translation not only helps in developing foreign language proficiency but also in preserving and enriching the students' L1. (67.78%) of the participants find it difficult to translate from Arabic into English. This can be explained by the fact that this activity demands more efforts to be accomplished and it pushes the learners to use the words presented in the text and so learners cannot avoid items they do not know.

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

Q12: When translating, do you focus on spelling and choice of words?

Table 3.41: The Importance Students Give to Spelling and Choice of Words While Translating

Yes	No	Total
74	16	90
82.22%	17.78%	100%

Q13: Do you use the words that you came across while translating when you perform on other tasks in the target language?

Table 3.42: Students' Use of the Words They Learn When Translating While Performing on Other Tasks

Yes	No	Total
77	13	90
85.56%	14.44%	100%

Q14: Is Translation Practice _the_ module that enables you to be aware of your vocabulary size?

Table 3.43: Students' Views about the Idea that TP Is _the_ Module That Enables Them to Be Aware of Their Vocabulary Size

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
70	17	03	90
77.78%	18.89%	03.33%	100%

As the above tables demonstrate, translation is a useful resource for the promotion of learning vocabulary. 82.22% said that they focus on choice of words and spelling when they translate (Table 3.41). 85.56% admitted that they use the words that they come across while translating when they perform on other tasks (Table 3.42). Moreover, about 78% of the participants acknowledged that TP module is the subject in which they can assess and test their vocabulary knowledge (Table 3.43). Translation is a pushed output activity par excellence because students cannot ignore words presented in the text which enables them to notice the gaps in their knowledge. It is also an activity with a high load involvement which induces need, search, and evaluation which may lead to long term retention.

Q15: Do you use all types of dictionaries while translating?

Table 3.44: Types of Dictionaries that Students Use

Yes	No	Total
42	48	90
46.67%	53.33%	100%

Q16: Does your teacher allow you to use the [bilingual] dictionary?

Table 3.45: About the Use of the Bilingual Dictionary

Yes	No	Total
50	40	90
55.56%	44.44%	100%

In spite of the fact that using dictionaries is part and parcel in the act of translating, 54% of the student participants do not use different types of dictionaries (Table 3.44) and about 45% reported that their teachers do not allow them to use the bilingual dictionary (Table 3.45). The latter may facilitate the translation process especially if students use them effectively. Translation is a task with a high involvement load (L2-L1: + need + search + evaluation / L1-L2: + need + search ++ evaluation), so the more students process the word, the more they consolidate it.

Q17: When you look up the meaning of a given word in the dictionary while translating, do you often check pronunciations, spellings, inflections, synonyms, opposites, derivatives, and explanations provided in the entry?

Table 3.46: About What Students Do When they Look Up the Meaning of a Word While Translating

Yes	No	Total
58	32	90
64.44%	35.56%	100%

Q18: When you look up a word in the dictionary while translating, do you often check the meanings of the nearby words?

Table 3.47: Students Who Often Check the Meanings of the Words Nearby the Word they Look Up in the Dictionary While Translating

Yes	No	No Answer	Total
67	22	01	90
74.44%	24.44%	11.11%	100%

Learning vocabulary is an incremental process. So, learners can benefit from translation as an activity with a high involvement load to enlarge and consolidate their vocabulary knowledge. The fact that lexical items are very important for the completion of translation task, learners during translation tasks are pushed to use dictionaries which are also important in building vocabulary. About 65% of the students admitted that they often check pronunciations, spellings, inflections, synonyms, opposites, derivatives, and explanations provided in the entry when they consult the dictionary (Table 3.46) and about 75% of them claimed that when they look up a word in the dictionary while translating, they check the meanings of the words nearby that word (Table 3.47) which may help them to enrich their vocabulary.

Section Four: Translation as the Fifth Skill

Q19: Does translation help you in learning English and improving the four language skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking)?

Table 3.48: Students' Views on the Usefulness of Translation in Improving the other Four Skills

Yes	No	Total
74	16	90
82.22%	17.78%	100%

Figure 3.3: Students' Views on the Usefulness of Translation in Improving the Other Four Skills
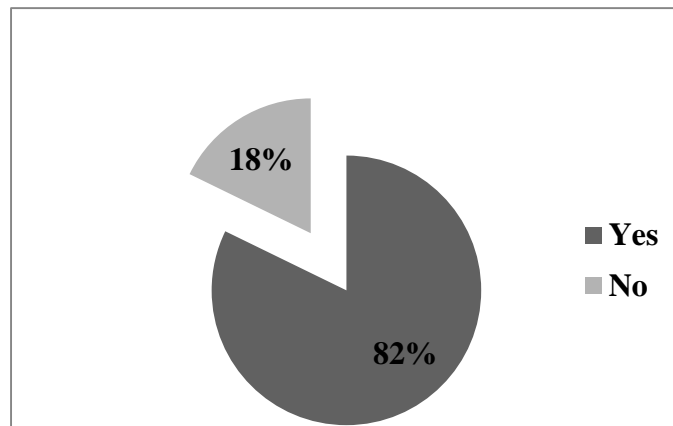
The overwhelming majority of students (82.22%) acknowledged that translation helps them improve the four skills. As we have seen in Chapter Two, translating written products entails good reading and writing skills. Furthermore, nothing can be taken as final in translation and it always needs pruning, so it promotes discussion and negotiation of meaning which gives students the opportunity to practise the listening and speaking skills. So, this result refutes objections 1, 2, 3, and 8 mentioned previously. Translation is not independents of the other four skills and it can be used to test them, so it not a waste of time.

Q20: Translation is an activity that language learners face every day as students and workers. It includes the four language skills and is, to a certain extent, dependent on them (especially Reading and Writing skills) so, do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the four other skills?

Table 3.49: Students' Attitudes towards Translation as a Fifth Skill in their Learning and Careers

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
21	56	11	02	90
23.34%	62.22%	12.22%	2.22%	100%

Figure 3.4: Students' Attitudes towards Translation as a Fifth Skill in their Learning and Careers
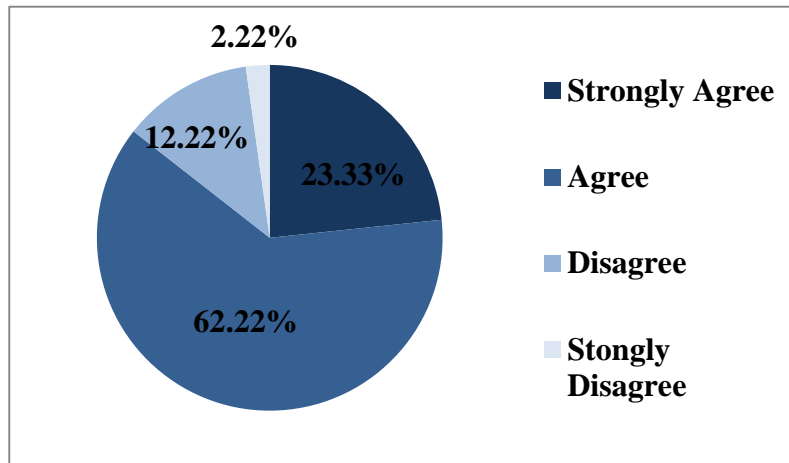
As the above figure clearly shows, the majority of students welcomed the idea of translation being a fifth skill in that it helps them both in improving the other four skills and in their future careers. As we have seen in the previous chapter, FL learners are multicompetent users who have different needs and abilities; they may work as translators. This result refutes arguments 4 and 9 against translation mentioned in the previous chapter.

3.4. General Discussion of the Results of the Questionnaires

The majority of teachers and students openly expressed their support for the use of translation in the EFL class (Tables 3.10, 3.11, 3.38, and 3.39) and they welcomed it as a fifth skill (Tables 3.24 and 3.49). Also, the questionnaires revealed that students use translation as a learning strategy (Tables 3.29-3.33) which corroborates the research findings on the inevitability of mental translation in performing other tasks in the target language (Upton, 1997; Cohen, 2000; Wang, 2003; and Seng & Hashim, 2006). Almost all of the student participants in this study use it when reading, writing, and listening.

Both teachers and students acknowledged the usefulness of translation in learning vocabulary (Tables 3.17, 3.18, 3.19, 3.41, 3.42, and 3.43). Translation is a pushed output activity with a high involvement load that gives students the opportunity to use and assess their vocabulary knowledge. It is also a focus-on-form activity in which students can notice lexical items. Besides, the results of the questionnaires revealed that translation promotes the use of dictionaries (Tables 3.22 and 3.44) which have a vital role in enlarging and enriching vocabulary stock.

Results obtained from the questionnaires also refute arguments against translation stated in Chapter Two. Translation is one form of using the language and which includes the four skills. It also helps as a remedy to interference which is an inherent phenomenon when learning foreign languages. Translation is also essential for EFL students who may work as translators after graduation. The results also substantiated previous research findings dealt with in Chapter Two on teachers and students' views regarding the use of translation and its role in building vocabulary. So, the results obtained from the teachers and students questionnaires supported the hypothesis of this study.

Conclusion

The questionnaires helped in gauging the views teachers and students hold regarding the use of translation in the FL classroom. The results revealed that both teachers and students find translation useful in the teaching learning process especially in promoting vocabulary learning and the overwhelming majority of them agree to the idea of integrating it as the fifth skill.

The results also refuted all of the nine objections to translation mentioned in Chapter Two. Translation is a natural thing to do and that EFL learners need in their future careers. Some results substantiated the research findings talked about in Chapter Two mainly on the inevitability of mental translation while performing on other tasks in the target language and the usefulness of translation in learning lexis.

Chapter Four: Fieldwork

Investigating the Usefulness of Arabic-English-Arabic Translation as a Resource for the Promotion of Vocabulary Learning

Introduction

At the beginning of the 21st century, many researchers called for carrying out more empirical studies to reassess the role of translation in the FL classroom. As a response to their calls, the present study is an attempt to extend empirical support to the use of translation in learning foreign languages. It investigates the efficacy of Arabic-English-Arabic translation in learning English lexis. This chapter includes two experiments. Experiment # 1 focuses on quantitative analysis to investigate the extent to which translation may help in learning vocabulary. Experiment # 2, a thinking-aloud protocols study, focuses on qualitative analysis to discern the ways in which the translation act in both directions may promote learning lexis.

4.1. Experiment # 1

The aim of this experiment is to investigate the extent to which translation may help in learning lexical items. It tracks the quantitative and qualitative changes in vocabulary knowledge during, and after the translation task.

4.1.1. Methodology

This section describes how the current study was carried out. It gives an account about the participants, the materials used, and the techniques and procedures followed in collecting the data.

4.1.1.1. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following questions motivated this study:

1. Does the act of translating (Arabic-English-Arabic) help in learning, consolidating, and enlarging vocabulary?

2. Will students gain significantly after a subsequent in-class discussion?

3. Can learners retain word forms and meanings one week, for example, after they translate the text and discuss its translation with the teacher?

In consideration of the above questions, we hypothesised that if translation helped in the promotion of learning vocabulary as reading, writing, listening, and speaking do, it could be considered as a fifth skill.

4.1.1.2. Sampling

The study was carried out during the second semester of the academic year 2011-2012 at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1. The population of this study were a sample of 34 third-year Applied Language Studies students. The rationale behind working with these participants was that they had translation in their second year and that they had it as an important subject in their third year. They were also acquainted with the different types of translation and translation equivalence which was assumed to enable us avoid or at least minimise the problem of word-for-word translation. Initially, the four third-year Applied Language Studies groups took part in the study. They were randomly assigned to perform on two different tasks; two groups translated from Arabic into English and the other two groups translated from English into Arabic. However, because of students' absences in one or more of the phases of the study, we used data of 34 students. Only 17 students among the two groups performed on Arabic-English translation completed all of the research phases. 20 students from the two groups performed English-Arabic translation attended all the sessions of the study. However,

to balance the number of participants in the two groups, we randomly selected 17 students.

4.1.1.3. Materials

4.1.1.3.1. Texts

For Arabic-English translation, a text entitled الأمم المتحدة /alʔumamu almuttaḥida/ was selected. It is a political text which gives a general background about the United Nations (UN). It comprises four short paragraphs. It is not a difficult text and it does not contain a lot of unfamiliar words. (176 words)

For English-Arabic translation, the text "The Ocean's Appearance" was chosen. It is a non-authentic scientific text. It describes the ocean and gives information about its ingredients and characteristics. It is not a difficult text and it does not contain many unfamiliar words. (128 words)

4.1.1.3.2. The Target Words

For the Arabic text الأمم المتحدة /alʔumamu almuttaḥida/, the students' knowledge of English equivalents of the Arabic words was not tested. The following nineteen words were chosen to be tested:

الأمم المتحدة /alʔumamu almuttaḥida/ – رسميا /rasmiyyan/ – التصديق /atasdiq/ – ميثاق /miṯaq/ – احتفال /iḥtifal/ – السلام /assalam/ – مبادئ /mabadiʔ/ – العدالة /alʕadala/ – الكرامة /alkarama/ – رفاه /rafah/ – توازن /tawazun/ – الجمعية العامة /aljamʕiya alʕama/ – برلمانا /barlamanan/ – صوت /ṣawtun/ – مقر /maqar/ – علمها /ʕalamuha/ – طوابع /ṭawabiʕ/ – جنيف /junif/ – سويسرا /swisra/

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Concerning the English text (The Ocean's Appearance), fourteen words were selected to be tested: eight nouns (waves, odour, horizon, toes, ingredients, sediment, tropics, traits), four adjectives (salty, rippling, stretching, enormous), and two verbs (shiver, dumped into). The unfamiliarity of the selected words to students was not checked before the experiment, but the words were selected on the assumption that the majority of students did not know or partially knew them.

4.1.1.3.3. The Pretests and the Posttests

To measure students' knowledge of the target words before and after the completion of the translation task and the classroom discussion, the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) proposed by Paribakht and Wesche (1993) was adapted both as a pretest and a posttest. This scale has been used by many researchers in the field of vocabulary learning especially in measuring incremental vocabulary knowledge (Folse, 2006; Joe, 2010). The adapted scale was assumed to help test the depth of vocabulary knowledge. Below is the VKS as used by Paribakht and Wesche (1993) followed by the modified versions used in this study.

Table 4.1: The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale as Used by Paribakht and Wesche (1993, p. 15)

1. I have never seen this word.
2. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
3. I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means....... (Synonym or translation)
4. I know this word. It means........... (Synonym or translation)
5. I can use this word in a sentence:

To suit the aim of this study, we dropped out category 5 in their scale because we did not give words in isolation but we presented them in sentences or phrases of the

original texts so students could provide the meaning of the words as used in the texts.

The following scale was used in English-Arabic translation.

Table 4.2: English-Arabic Translation Pretest and Posttest (Adapted from Paribakht and Wesche, 1993, p. 15)

Self-report categories

a. I don't remember having seen this word before.

b. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

c. I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means …… (Synonym or translation)

d. I <u>know</u> this word. It means ……. . (Synonym or translation)

For Arabic-English translation, the same categories were used in the pretest and posttest but because we are interested in the learning of English vocabulary, we added two other categories: e and f.

Table 4.3: Arabic-English Translation Pretest and Posttest (Adapted from Paribakht and Wesche, 1993, p. 15)

Self-report categories

a. I don't remember having seen this word before.

b. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

c. I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means …… (Synonym or translation)

d. I <u>know</u> this word. It means ……. . (Synonym or translation)

e. I do not know the English equivalent of this word.

f. I know the English equivalent of this word …………… (give the English word)

4.1.1.4. The Scoring Procedure for Pretests and Posttests of Both Translation Directions

The following table provides the scoring method we utilised for the present study.

Table 4.4: The Scoring Procedure for the Pretest and Posttest

Self-report categories	Scores
a. ──────────────▶	0
b. ──────────────▶	1
c. ──────────────▶	2
d. ──────────────▶	3

* If the student reports that s/he knows the meaning of the word (c, d) but s/he does not provide the correct synonym or translation, S/he receives the score of category b (1).

e. ──────────────▶	0
f. ──────────────▶	1

* If the student reports that s/he knows the English equivalent but s/he misspells it, s/he gets 0.5. And if s/he provides a wrong equivalent, s/he gets 0.

4.1.1.5. Procedures of Data Gathering

To investigate the efficacy of translation in learning vocabulary, this study opted for one-group pretest-posttest design. The data collection went through four phases: administration of the pretest, the translation task as an immediate test followed by an oral discussion, the posttest, and the back-translation task as a delayed posttest. Of course, students were not informed that the researcher was interested in assessing their vocabulary knowledge.

In the first phase of the study, the pre-test was administered one week before the translation session. No use of dictionaries was allowed during the pretest and the participants were not informed about the aim of research and that they would translate texts. They responded to the pretest with the presence of the researcher. They were instructed how they exactly answer and also they were asked to write their names and the group.

In the second phase (one week after the pretest), the students translated the texts in class and they were allowed to use the dictionaries. Different types of dictionaries (English-English, English-Arabic, and Arabic-English) were brought into the classroom because not all of the students had dictionaries. Students were not informed that the researcher was interested in measuring their vocabulary knowledge. Every student had his individual printed source text, the answer sheet, and the draft. They were instructed to translate the texts individually and to take them seriously as their final productions were what really counted. This time, too, students were asked to write their names and the group. When they finished, the final versions were collected to make sure that every student performed on the task. After the completion of the translation task, the researcher discussed the translation of the text with the students and gave feedback whenever necessary.

Two days after the completion of the task and the classroom discussion, the student participants sat for an unannounced post-test to check the quantitative and qualitative improvements in their vocabulary knowledge. Administering the posttest after two days was not a condition for the experiment but it was dependent on students' availability. Not all of the sessions of the study took place in their translation classes but some teachers allowed us to use their sessions to complete the experiment. No

dictionaries were allowed during the posttest and the researcher was present during the completion activity. Students were also asked to write their names and the group.

In the final phase, which took place one week after the translation task and the subsequent classroom discussion, the students performed on the back-translation task as a delayed post-test without using dictionaries. The back-translation task was used as an unannounced delayed posttest to avoid serial learning effects that were assumed to result from rote learning through repetition of the same posttests. Each student was given the printed version of the text, the answer sheet, and the draft and they were asked to write their names and the group on the final version.

4.1.1.6. Assessing Students' Productions

Before assessing the translation and the back-translation productions, we organised the data of the different stages. In all phases of the experiment, the students wrote their names and this was very important in organising the data. So, the answer sheets of each student were bound and numbered from 1 to 17 in each translation direction.

Students' final products of the translation and the back-translation tasks were evaluated in terms of meaning, accuracy, and coherence. Marks were not given but the products were just assessed as bad, average, or good. The students' performances were compared to the version translated by a teacher of translation who works as a professional translator. As this study is concerned with the usefulness of translation in learning lexical items, the students' knowledge of equivalents to the target words during the translation task and in the back-translation activity was measured. If the student provided a correct equivalent, s/he scored 1 point. In case a word was

misspelled, s/he scored 0.5. If the student provided an unacceptable translation or missed a word making a gap in his translation, s/he received 0.

4.1.2. Data Presentation and Analysis

To analyse the data of this study, an SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) V21 was used. It is widely used by researchers in the field of second language acquisition. Both descriptive statistics (mean & standard deviation) and inferential statistics (t-test) were performed to test the usefulness of (Arabic-English-Arabic) translation activities in vocabulary learning.

4.1.2.1. Descriptive Analysis

4.1.2.1.1. The Results of Arabic-English Translation

The following table provides the scores each participant obtained in the different phases of the experiment. It also gives the mean scores, the standard deviations, and the minimum and maximum values for each testing period.

Table 4.5: Arabic-English Translation Results

Students	Knowledge of Arabic words /57	Pre-test /19	During Translation /19	Post-test /19	Back Translation /19
1	57	4.5	7.5	10	15
2	57	3.5	12	16.5	19
3	57	12.5	18	16	19
4	57	4.5	8.5	12	19
5	57	6.5	12	15	19
6	57	10	11	18	19
7	57	10	13	17.5	19
8	57	7.5	9	17	18
9	57	4	7.5	15.5	19
10	57	9.5	9	18	18
11	57	7.5	10	16	19
12	57	5	11	18.5	19
13	57	8	9.5	17.5	18
14	57	4.5	7	14.5	17
15	57	7.5	8	16	16
16	57	10	8.5	11.5	16
17	57	9	7.5	18	17
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	57	7.294	9.941	15.735	18.000
Standard deviation (SD)	00	2.6461	2.7550	2.4819	1.3229
Minimum	/	3.5	07	10	15
Maximum	/	12.5	18	18.5	19

4.1.2.1.1.1. Results of the Pretest

Expectedly, as Table 4.5 shows, all the participants were familiar with the nineteen Arabic words. The mean for the pretest concerning word recognition is 57 and the standard deviation is 0. In fact, all of them ticked category (d) in the VKS (see pretest and posttest for Arabic-English translation direction) and provided necessary explanations or synonyms (French & English). This result is explained by the fact that Arabic is the students' L1, the medium used in their learning for many years, and so they have a rich and deep vocabulary knowledge in this language.

Now, since we are concerned with the learning of English vocabulary, we included categories (e) and (f) to test students' knowledge of English equivalents to the nineteen target words. The mean of the pretest scores is 7.29 and the standard deviation is 2.64 which reveals that there are differences among students' achievements. As the graph below clearly shows, the sample was heterogeneous. The scores spread is from 3.5 to 12.5. The curve is also slightly skewed to the right which means that most of the participants did poorly.

Figure 4.1: Arabic-English Translation Pretest Results

Before (Ar-En) [/19]

Mean = 7.29
Std. Dev. = 2.646
N = 17
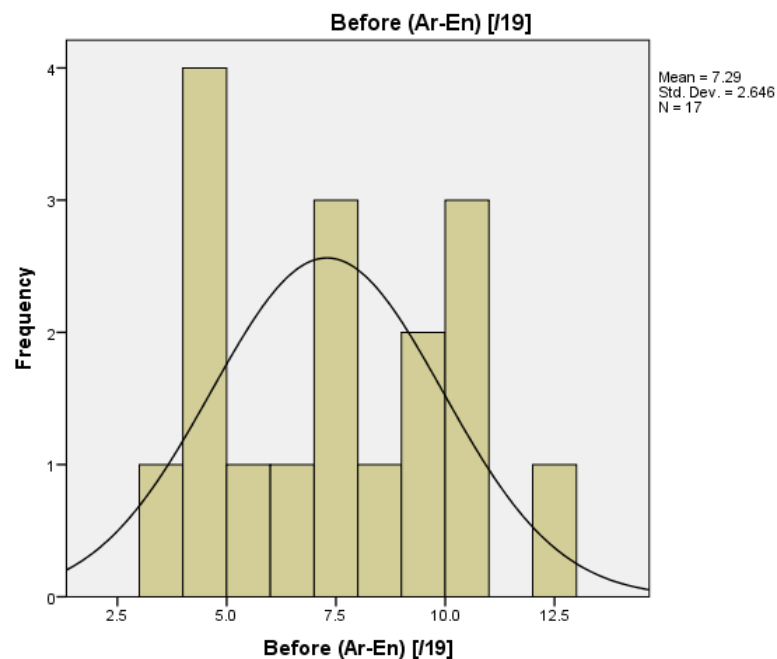
The results from the pretest revealed that the majority of the student participants had a lack of English productive vocabulary. In spite of the fact that the target words were presented either in full sentences or meaningful phrases, only three students scored 10 and one student scored 12.5. The pretest has proved that translation can be a useful technique for vocabulary testing.

The words that most students failed to translate are:

ميثاق /miθaq/– التصديق /atasdiq –/rafah/ رفاه –الجمعية العامة aljamʕiya alʕama/– صوت /şawtun/–مقر /maqar/ – طوابع/ţawabiʕ/-جنيف /junif/- سويسرا /swisra/

4.1.2.1.1.2. Results of During the Translation Task

During the translation task, students showed improvement in their vocabulary knowledge. The mean of the students' scores at this stage is 9.94 and the SD is 2.75. However, as the graph below shows, the bulk of the data is at the left and the right tail is longer which indicates that the majority of the participants did not perform well on the translation task regarding the use of the nineteen target words.

Figure 4.2: Arabic-English Translation during the Translation Results
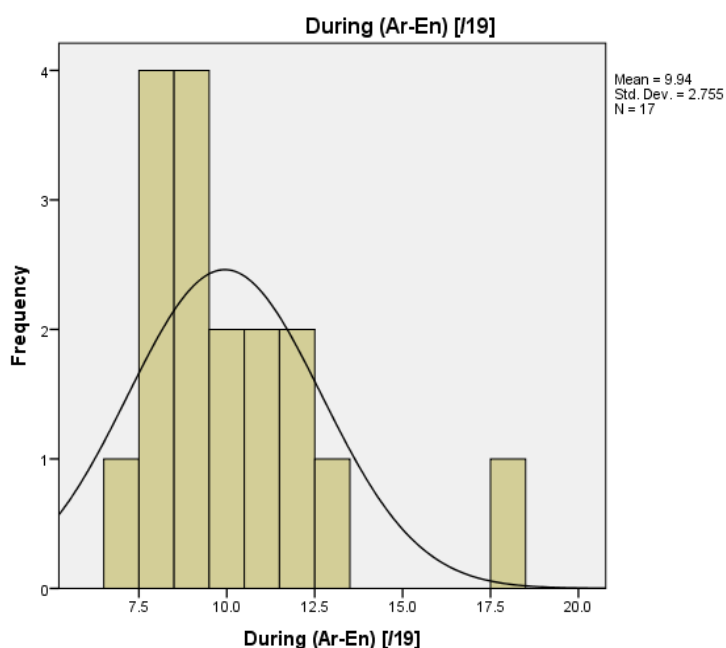
The marks fall between 7 and 13. Ten out of the seventeen participants scored below the average. There is one extreme score which is 18 obtained by the student who scored 12.5 in the pretest. This student (3) gave acceptable equivalents and did not misspell any word. However, he used the Arabic word الجمعية العامة /aljamʕiya alʕama/ in his English version to make up for his failure in finding the equivalent.

Despite the fact that students were given enough time to translate the text and different types of dictionaries were brought into the classroom, many of them did not perform well on the task. Evaluating their translation products, we found 9 bad translations (students 1, 4, 5, 8, 9, 14, 15, 16, 17), 6 average translations (students 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13), and only 2 good translations (students 2, 3). Translating from L1 into L2 is a highly demanding task that needs efforts from the learners, especially in finding equivalents to save the meaning of the source text. The following are the common mistakes made by students.

الميثاق /almiṯaq/ (document, paper), الأمم المتحدة /alʔumamu almuttahida/ (Union Nations, United States), الجمعية العامة /aljamʕiya alʕama/ (general society, public association, general charity), الطوابع /aṭawabiʕ/ (tempers, stams, tembers) صوت /ṣawtun/ (voice)

It seems that these words are not commonly encountered and used by the students. And in spite of the fact that they were allowed to use the dictionaries which were also available, the students did not check their meanings and spelling forms. None of them used the word "headquarters", they instead used "place, seige, center, residence, location, local, situated". The word "charter" was used by some students (students 2, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 17). The word "welfare" was used by only one student. The others used "luxury, pleasure, comfort, prosperity". The word "vote" was used by three students. The other students used "voice" and one of them used "sound". L1-L2 translation is a pushed output activity with a high involvement load (+ need + search ++ evaluation) in

which the lexical items are inescapable. It pushed the students to produce and test their vocabulary of the target language.

4.1.2.1.1.3. Results of the Posttest

The posttest took place two days after the completion of the translation task which was followed by the classroom discussion. The mean of the posttest is 15.73 and the SD is 2.48. The distribution, as the below figure demonstrates, is skewed to the left which means that the overwhelming majority of students performed well at the posttest. The scores range between 10 and 18.5.

Figure 4.3: Arabic-English Translation Posttest Results
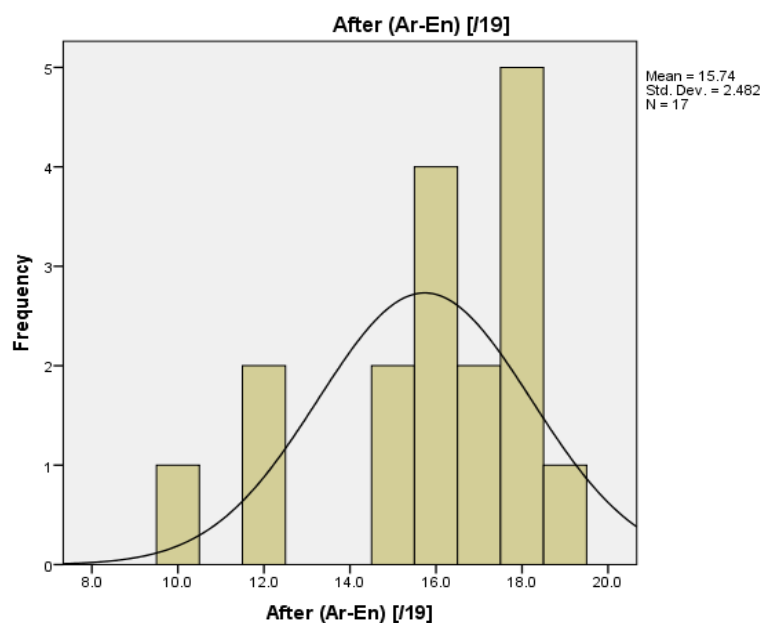
Comparing the posttest results with the pretest results ($\bar{x}$ = 7.29, SD = 2.6461), we may say that the learners improved significantly after the translation task followed by the classroom discussion. Though, if we compare the mean of the posttest to the mean of-the-during translation-task ($\bar{x}$ = 9.94), it becomes clear that the subsequent in-class correction and discussion had a great effect on the learning of vocabulary. This result corroborates the research findings on the importance of focus-on-form activities in the teaching and learning of lexis. The researcher interacted with the learners and

discussed rights and wrongs and gave feedback on their errors. The researcher also discussed the problems students encountered while translating.

So, translation can be an effective focus-on-form activity that serves the learning of lexical items. Despite the fact that we did not inform the student participants about the aim of the study and that the posttest was unannounced, the students focused on the learning of words. At the posttest the students were given the Arabic words and they were asked to provide the English equivalents, so the students were assessed on both word forms and meanings.

4.1.2.1.1.4. Results of the Back-translation Task

The back-translation task was administered one week after the completion of the translation task and the classroom discussion as an unannounced delayed posttest to rate students' vocabulary recognition and retention. So, the suggested version of the source text (appendix # 7) was given to the students and they were instructed to translate it into Arabic. The students were asked to work individually and without the use of dictionaries. The mean for the scores achieved by the participants in the back-translation task is 18 and the SD is 1.32 which means that the scores are close together. The scores spread is from 15 to 19.

Figure 4.4: Arabic-English Back-translation Results

Back Translation (Ar-En) [/19]

Mean = 18.0
Std. Dev. = 1.323
N = 17
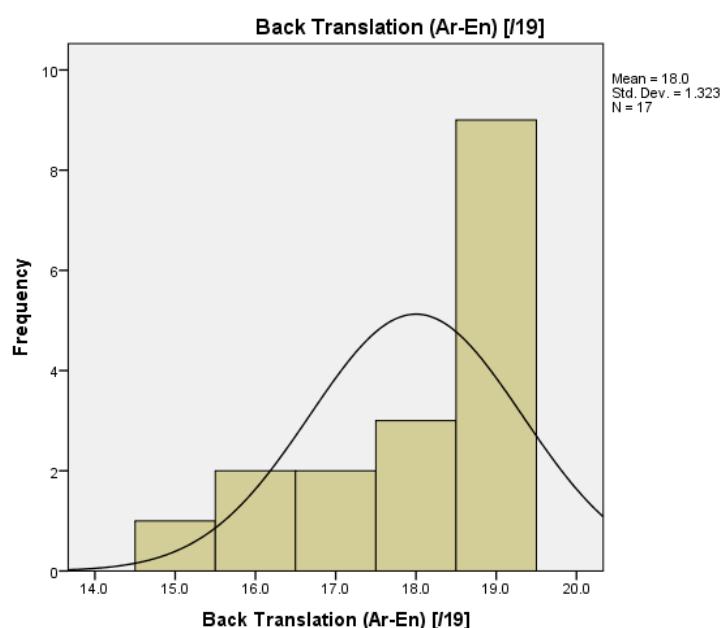
In fact, the students showed a strong recognition of the English words and they retained their meanings one week after the completion of the task and the classroom discussion. The distribution is also skewed to the left which means that all the participants did well. It is also important to mention that L1-L2 translation, a task with a high involvement load, helped learners to enlarge and consolidate their vocabulary.

All in all, we may say that Arabic-English translation activity followed by the classroom discussion is a useful resource for the learning of vocabulary. The students activated their dormant vocabulary, expanded their productive vocabulary, and moved from a weak recognition to a strong one.

4.1.2.1.2. The Results of English-Arabic Translation

The following table presents the scores each participant achieved in the four different stages of this study: pretest, during translation, the posttest, and the back-translation task. It also gives the mean scores, the standard deviations, and the minimum and the maximum scores of each testing period.

Table 4.6: English-Arabic Results

Students	Pre-test /42	During Translation /14	Post-test /42	Back-Translation /14
1	25	13	42	12
2	24	12	41	12
3	11	10	34	9
4	16	13	33	13.5
5	25	8	38	8
6	18	7	32	11
7	18	13	38	13.5
8	24	11	30	9
9	20	10	29	9
10	27	9	35	11
11	26	6	38	14
12	14	5	30	10.5
13	30	10	40	6.5
14	31	13	42	12
15	17	11	38	10
16	15	8	23	10
17	24	11	40	11.5
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	21.471	10.000	35.471	10.735
Standard deviation (SD)	5.8215	2.5249	5.3633	2.0472
Minimum	11	5	23	6.5
Maximum	31	13	42	14

4.1.2.1.2.1. The Pretest Results

L2-L1 translation differs from L1-L2 translation in many aspects. The input, which is the source text, is in the L2. So, dealing with vocabulary when translating in this direction differs from dealing with it when translating in the other direction. The word forms are presented and the translator needs to recognise the word and recall its meaning in L1. So, in the pretest we assessed learners' vocabulary knowledge using the VKS which helped us in tracking the improvement in vocabulary learning using the four categories.

As the figure below shows, the mean for the pretest, which is marked out of 42 (see the scoring procedure) is 21.47 with a SD of 5.821. The scores are more spread. Half the number of the participants obtained marks below the average. The other students obtained the average and only a handful of them (2 students) did well.

Figure 4.5: English-Arabic Translation Pretest Results
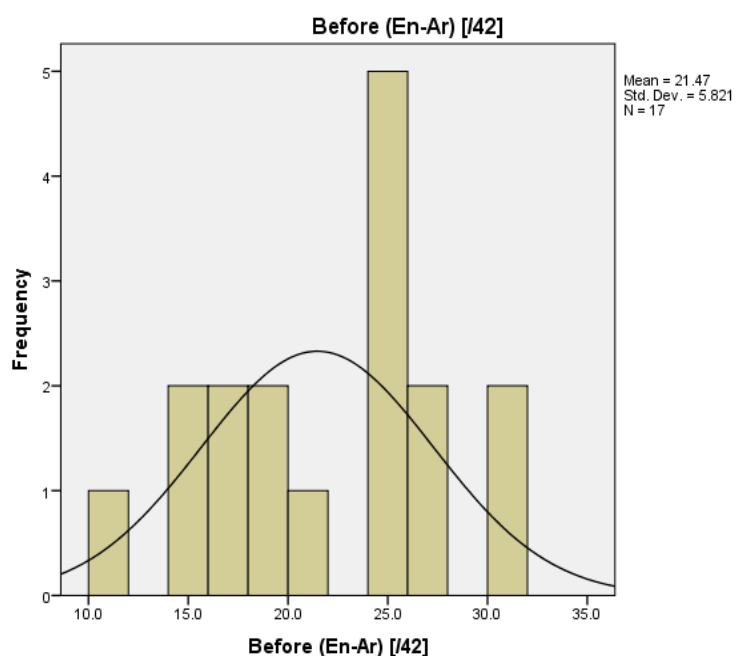
Most of the students did not recognise the words (odour, rippling, stretching, shiver, sediment, and Tropics).

4.1.2.1.2.2. Results of During the Translation Task

When translating into the L1, the input is in English. So, we just test receptive or passive vocabulary knowledge. As the graph below demonstrates, the shape of the data distribution is slightly skewed to the left which means that few of the participants did poorly on the translation task regarding the use of the 14 target words. The mean for the scores of this task, which is marked out of 14, is 10 and the SD is 2.52.

Figure 4.6: English-Arabic during the Translation Results
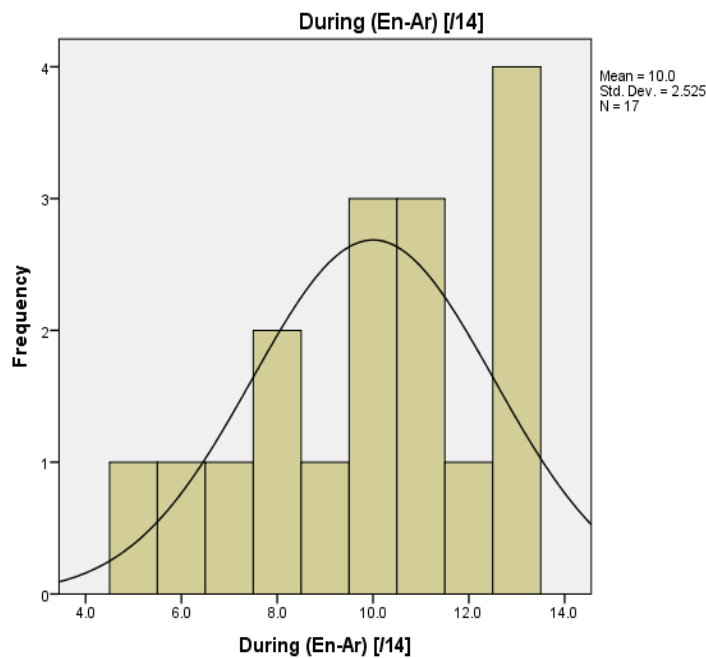
In spite of the fact that the text contains some new words which normally pushed the subjects to use the dictionary, they failed to find L1 equivalents because they did not understand the English words. The word "Tropics" translated by the majority of students as /almanaṭiq almadariya/ المناطق المدارية. Five of the testees obtained marks between 5 and 9. Four out of the seventeen students obtained 13/14 and one student obtained 12. Six of the participants scores between 10 and 11.

It is a commonly held belief that translating into L1 is easier than translating into L2. However, assessing students' translation products, we found seven bad translations (students 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16), five average translations (students 3, 8, 13, 15, 17),

and only five good translations (students 1, 2, 4, 7, 14). Translation is a creative task which entails good reading and writing skills. In order to translate the text, students have to read and analyse the text to understand it. In other words, it is not enough to scan and skim the text. Furthermore, students may read the text more than once. Also, students focus on each sentence so, the students have the chance to practice the reading skill and they also have the chance to notice the word forms.

4.1.2.1.2.3. Results of the Posttest

In the posttest, which took place two days after the completion of the task and the classroom discussion, students showed significant improvement in their scores in comparison to the pretest scores, the mean is 35.47 and the SD is 5.36.

Figure 4.7: English-Arabic Translation Posttest Results
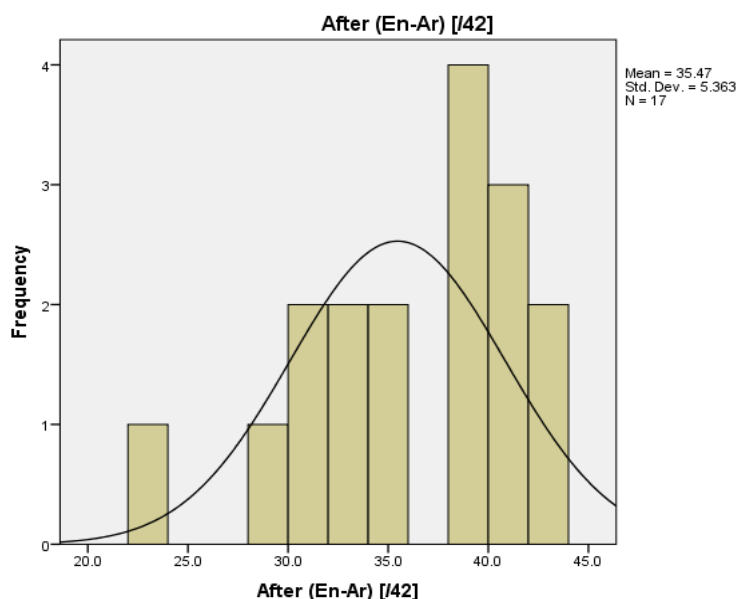
The distribution, as the above graph shows, is skewed left which indicates that the majority of the subjects substantially enhanced the depth of vocabulary knowledge. They consolidated their knowledge in that the majority ticked category 'd', which indicates that the subjects became familiar with the English words and were sure about their meanings. In other words, they moved from a weak recognition to a strong one. They confirmed this by providing the Arabic equivalents.

Translation can be a useful focus-on-form activity for the learning of vocabulary. The subsequent discussion helped the learners to consolidate word recognition and meaning. This result refutes the stance that comprehensible input is sufficient for learning vocabulary.

4.1.2.1.2.4. Results of the Back-translation Task

In the back-translation task the input is in Arabic. Each of the student participants was given a copy of the suggested translation of the source text (see appendix # 10) and they were asked to translate it into English without using dictionaries. This activity was also marked out of 14 (see the section of assessment of translation and back-translation productions). The task needed some efforts on the part of the students because they were pushed to find and recall the English words and also to write them correctly. In other words, students were tested on their productive vocabulary knowledge. The mean of the students' scores is 10.74 and the SD is 2.04. This activity also gave the students the opportunity to practise the writing skill and to make use of the previous knowledge they gained during the translation task and the classroom discussion. The results showed that the majority of the subjects consolidated their knowledge. As the graph below shows, the scores are close together.

Figure 4.8: English-Arabic Translation Back-translation Results
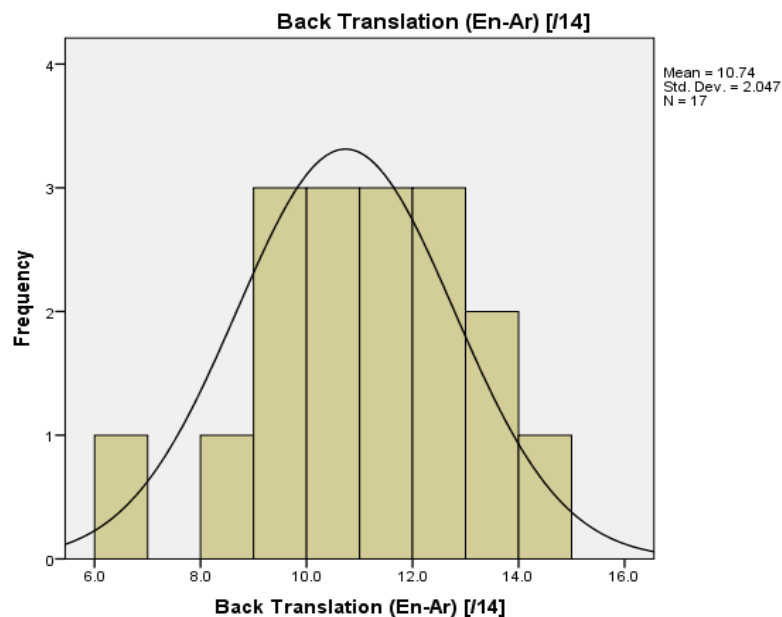
The back-translation task has been proved to be a pushed output activity and also as a beneficial test of vocabulary knowledge. The five bad products found are: (students 5, 6, 8, 9, 13), six average products (students 3, 10, 12, 15, 16, 17), and six good products (students 1, 2, 4, 7, 11, 14).

Students retained some words but they misspelled them which proved that learning vocabulary is an incremental process and also that comprehensible input is not sufficient for learning vocabulary, especially with unfamiliar words. For example, two students used the forms "shirivelling" and "dimpling" to express the word "rippling". Learners need to produce in order to reinforce their learning. The following are some commonly misspelled words by the students:

Table 4.7: Some Commonly Misspelled Words

Words	Misspellings
odor	odr, oder,
Horizon	orizon
sediment	(seduiment, siddement), sidement, sediment,
tropics	tropicals
stretching	streching), streaching, (streghting
enormous	enourmous, enomerous, inormous
shiver	(shaved/shiver), shaver shiever, chiver

Students also consolidated the knowledge of some unfamiliar words. For instance, the word "Tropics" was problematic to all students in the pretest, but in the back-translation task, they wrote it correctly.

4.1.2.2. Inferential Analysis

Inferential statistics are used to generalise the findings to the population from which the sample is drawn. So, to test the significance of results of this study, a paired t-test, also referred to as the paired-samples t-test or the dependent samples t-test, was performed. This t-test is a type of hypothesis test that allows the researcher to compare the means of scores achieved by the same subjects at two different times with an intervention between the two points of time. So, we set the alpha level ($\alpha = .05$) which is generally used in the field of L2 language research (Larson-Hall, 2009). If the *p* value is less than or equal to .05, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the means and that the difference is not due to chance. So, we reject the null hypothesis. If it is greater than.05, then it is concluded that there is not a statistically significant difference and that the difference is due to chance. In this case the null hypothesis is not rejected. Before conducting the t-test and based on the posited questions, the following four null hypotheses can be stated:

1. There is not a difference between the mean scores of the pretest and after the translation task followed by the in-class discussion.

2. There is not a difference between the mean scores of the pretest and during the translation task.

3. Students will not retain the meaning of words one week after the translation task followed by the classroom discussion.

4. There is not a difference between the mean scores of the during-translation task and the posttest.

So, the alternative hypothesis can be supported by rejecting the stated null hypotheses. The following are the results obtained from the SPSS program.

Table 4.8: Results of the Paired-Samples t-test

Pairs	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
1. Before (Ar-En) [%]- After (Ar-En) [%]	-.44427	.15786	.03829	-11.604	16	0.000
2. Before (Ar-En) [%] - During (Ar-En) [%]	-.13932	.14346	.03480	-4.004	16	0.001
3. Before (Ar-En) [%] - Back Translation (Ar-En) [%]	-.56347	.15403	.03736	-15.083	16	0.000
4. During (Ar-En) [%] - After (Ar-En) [%]	-.30495	.16383	.03973	-7.675	16	0.000
5. Before (En-Ar) [%] - After (En-Ar) [%]	-.33333	.11785	.02858	-11.662	16	0.000
6. Before (En-Ar) [%] - During (En-Ar) [%]	-.20308	.20380	.04943	-4.109	16	0.000
7. Before (En-Ar) [%] - Back Translation (En-Ar) [%]	-.25560	.20534	.04980	-5.132	16	0.000
8. During (En-Ar) [%] - After (En-Ar) [%]	-.13025	.16605	.04027	-3.234	16	0.005

The p value in the first and fifth pairs is 0.000. This value is less than .05. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and the posttest both in Arabic-English and English-Arabic translations. This reveals that the translation act followed by the subsequent classroom discussion had positive effects on the learning of vocabulary. So, we can reject the first null hypothesis.

The p value of the second (p = 0.001) and sixth (p = 0.000) pairs are less than .05 which confirmed that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the pretests and during the translation tasks. So, we reject the second null hypothesis.

The p values of the third and seventh pairs are less than .05 (p value = .000) which indicates that the difference between the mean scores of the pretest and the back-

translation task is statistically significant. So, it can be concluded that students could retain the word forms and meanings one week after the translation task and the classroom discussion. So, we reject the third null hypothesis.

The p value of the fourth pair (during Arabic-English translation and the posttest) is less than .05 (p = 0.000). The p value of the eighth pair (during English-Arabic translation and the posttest) is also less than 0.05; (p = 0.005). These final results proved that the classroom discussion had the great effect on the learning of vocabulary. So, we can reject the fourth null hypothesis.

Based on the obtained results of the dependent-samples t-test, the four null hypotheses are rejected. So, we can accept the alternative hypothesis.

4.1.3. General Discussion

Translation has been banned from the FL for a long time (G. Cook, 2010). Recently, however, it has gained a revival and many scholars welcomed it and called for reassessing its role as a fifth skill in the teaching and learning of foreign languages (Witte et al. 2009; G. Cook, 2010; Leonardi, 2010; Malmkjaer, 2010). This study is a response to their calls. Its aim is to lend more empirical support to the idea of integrating translation as a fifth skill. So, it investigated the extent to which Arabic-English-Arabic translation is useful for vocabulary learning. The results of the experiment revealed that translation helps in promoting the learning of vocabulary as reading, writing, listening, and speaking do and can therefore be considered as a fifth skill.

First, Arabic-English translation results revealed that translation is a useful resource for promoting vocabulary learning. Comparing the mean scores of the pretest

and the during the translation task ($\overline{x} = 7.29$, $\overline{x} = 9.94$ respectively), we may say that the act of translation helped students improve their vocabulary knowledge. Before the translation task, students had a lack of productive vocabulary. So, Arabic-English translation, as Laufer and Girsai (2008) contended, is a pushed out activity and a task with a high involvement load (+ need, + search, ++ evaluation) in which the lexical items are inescapable and students could not ignore them. However, if we compare results of the posttest ($\overline{x} = 15.73$) to the pretest results, students were seen to have significantly improved their vocabulary. So, the classroom discussion had a great effect on learning vocabulary which corroborates the research findings on the importance of focus-on-form activities in learning vocabulary (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997; Laufer, 2000). The results of the back-translation task also revealed that the overwhelming majority of students retained the target words one week after the completion of the translation task and the subsequent classroom discussion. In other words, they moved from a weak recognition to a strong one.

Second, English-Arabic translation results showed that translating in this direction helped the learners improve the depth of vocabulary knowledge. The results of the pretest revealed that learners had a lack in their receptive vocabulary and that the majority of them did not recognise many of the target words ($\overline{x} = 21.47$). During the translation task, the students improved their vocabulary knowledge to some extent. But the classroom discussion helped them more in leaning the target lexical items ($\overline{x} = 35.47$). This result corroborates the research findings on the importance of focus-on-form in learning vocabulary and it further substantiates the research findings (Waring, 2003) that comprehensible input alone is not enough for learning vocabulary. Negotiating meaning and providing feedback are vital for any learning to take place. Results of the back-translation-task showed that students improved their productive

vocabulary. The majority of the students retained word forms and meanings one week after the completion of the translation task followed by the classroom discussion. So, they consolidated and enlarged their vocabulary.

The findings of this research added more support to integrating translation as a fifth skill in the FL classroom. Based on the results of the paired-samples t-test, the stated four null hypotheses were rejected at .05 alpha level. Accordingly, the alternative hypothesis that if translation helped in the promotion of learning vocabulary as reading, writing, listening, and speaking do, it could be considered as a fifth skill has been confirmed.

The results also proved that the translation and the back-translation tasks are useful for testing both receptive and productive vocabulary. Translation, as a pushed output activity, gives the learners the opportunity to notice gaps in their vocabulary knowledge. Also, students' performance was not as good as was expected, and thus they need more training in translation.

4.2. Experiment # 2: Investigating Ways in Which the Translation Act Can Promote the Learning of Vocabulary: A Think-aloud Protocols Study

4.2.1. The Validity of the Think-aloud Method

The origins of the think-aloud or thinking-aloud method go back to the introspection method used in psychological research which claimed that 'one can observe events that take place in consciousness, more or less as one can observe events in the outside world' (Van Someren, Barnard, and Sandberg, 1994, p. 29). In think-

aloud experiments, participants are required to verbalise what is going through their minds while performing a task.

The shift to process-oriented research has led many researchers to use thinking-aloud as a data elicitation method to discern the mental processes while performing on tasks. It is widely used in L2 research. Cohen (1998) considered it as the best method for investigating learning strategies. Block (1992), Upton (1997), and Seng & Hashim (2006) used it to investigate reading comprehension strategies, Woodall, (2002) and Weijen, Den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, and Sanders (2009) employed it to investigate the writing process. Krings (1994) also summarised research findings of nine studies on the writing process in the foreign language and found that five of the nine studies employed the thinking aloud method. Moreover, the fact that the thinking-aloud method is compatible with problem-solving tasks, it is frequently used in investigating the translation process which is by its very nature a problem-solving task (Lorscher, 1996; Jääskeläinen, 2005).

Following Wesche and Paribakht (2000) who described it as 'the appropriate methodology' in investigating how learners deal with vocabulary and who suggested it as a 'complement to and explanatory follow-up to experiments' (p. 208), a thinking-aloud protocols study was incorporated as a follow-up to the previous one. Its aim is to track how learners cope with vocabulary problems while translating the texts to elicit information about how translation promotes learning lexis.

4.2.2. Methodology

This section describes the methodology for this study. It provides information about the subjects of the study, the materials used, and the procedure for data collection.

4.2.2.1. Subjects

Unlike quantitative research methods, qualitative research is frequently done with small samples of participants and this is especially true with the thinking-aloud method (Dörnyei, 2007). Accordingly, fourteen students, who also participated in the first experiment, volunteered to take part in this study. The justification for choosing to work with these subjects was that they had experience in translating texts in their Translation Practice classes which was assumed to help them verbalise their thoughts. Seven students were randomly assigned to translate from Arabic into English and the other seven students translated in the other direction.

4.2.2.2. Texts

Because the fourteen participants took part in the first experiment, two other texts were chosen for this study. For Arabic-English direction, a text entitled فكرة لأحمد أمين **/fikra li ʔaḥmad ʔamin/** was used (see Appendix 11). It is a political text which does not contain many unfamiliar words. For English-Arabic direction the text **The Ocean's Memory** was selected (see Appendix 13). It is a non-authentic scientific text which does not include a lot of unfamiliar lexical items.

4.2.2.3. Procedure for Data Collection

The data collection process went through three main phases: the training phase, the main recording sessions, and the transcription of the tapes into written protocols.

4.2.2.3.1. The Training Session

Before the recording sessions, the fourteen subjects were first acquainted with the thinking-aloud method. The researcher explained the procedure to the students and

gave them two short texts to train them in using it. The subjects were trained to verbalise and not to interpret and analyse their thoughts. They were very enthusiastic and pleased to take part in the study.

4.2.2.3.2. The Recording Sessions

Collecting data using the thinking-aloud method is time-consuming and laborious especially to the subjects. Each subject was recorded individually and was not limited by time. All of the recording sessions were held in a quiet room so that the participants could concentrate.

Before the recording step, the subjects had a warm-up to be reminded about the think-aloud procedure. The researcher also explained to the participants that the data will be used confidentially so that they can naturally perform on the task. The subjects were instructed to verbalise their thoughts while performing the translation task and were informed that their final productions will be taken into consideration. The researcher sometimes intervened to prompt the subjects to verbalise whatever came to their mind while translating by saying "please keep on talking". Besides, the researcher inconspicuously checked the recording equipment to ensure that it was functioning correctly.

The fact that even professional translators have their own dictionaries, the researcher brought the following bilingual and monolingual dictionaries and permitted students to use them: Atlas Dictionary: English-Arabic; Al-Mawrid Dictionary: Arabic-English; Al-Mawrid Pocket Dictionary: English-Arabic/Arabic-English; and Oxford Dictionary: English-English.

4.2.2.3.3. Transcription of the Verbal Protocols

Transcribing think-aloud data is a time consuming and tedious task. So, the researcher used a quiet room and created the appropriate atmosphere for the transcription stage. The experimenter listened carefully to the tapes and transcribed them verbatim into written protocols. After finishing the first transcription, the records were listened to and compared to the transcripts to check any missing information. The following transcription marks were used.

- (...) indicates that the student was checking the dictionary
- ... denotes a short pause
- Hhh indicates that the student laughed
- ! is used to indicate an exclamation
- ? used to indicate questioning
- × denotes how often the word was repeated

4.2.3. Data Analysis

While the first experiment focused on quantitative analysis of the data, this experiment focuses on qualitative analysis. After transcribing the recording sessions, the researcher had the hard copies of the verbal protocols. However, the fact that the thinking-aloud procedure yielded large amounts of data, only some instances of vocabulary treatment episodes were included in this study. The researcher read the written protocols and highlighted the segments related to how students dealt with vocabulary problems while translating.

Coding is a crucial step in analysing qualitative data. So, after initial analysis of the selected written protocols, the researcher grouped them under main categories. The

data were also analysed in the light of the theoretical account on the merits of translation in vocabulary learning provided in Chapter Two namely, translation as pushed output task, translation as a focus-on-form activity, and translation as a task which induces a high involvement load. The following are the main common strategies used by students when translating the texts:

- Reading the whole text

- Translating sentence by sentence

- Writing the first draft

- Revising the first draft

- Writing the final version

4.2.3.1. Arabic-English Translation

When translating from L1 into the FL, the translator has to provide both the word form and meaning in the target language. It is an activity which demands active recalling of words. The following are some detected illustrative examples of how students dealt with vocabulary items while translating in this direction.

a) Some Instances When the Translation Act Pushed the Learners to Activate and Use Previously Learned Lexical Items

[1]: Reading the ST sentence. يتشدد /yatašaddadu/ I did not find it. So, I use Al-Mawrid (…) strict, severe… to be strict or ... I forgot it.

[2]: And he used to be severe مواقفه /mawaqifihi/ I have seen this word before but I could not give the exact word. So, I look it in the dictionary (...) stands, yes. And he used to be severe in his stands against the Arabs.

[3]: Reading the sentence in the ST. عرقل /ʕarqala/ I know the English equivalent but I forgot it. I check Al-Mawrid (…) to hinder, to hamper, impede, obstruct, yes this is the equivalent that I know obstruct.

[4]: Reading the sentence in the ST. مفاوضات /mufawaḍat/ I have seen this word before but I forgot its meaning (...) مفاوضة /mufawaḍa/ means negotiation (reading all English equivalents), so I use negotiation

The fact that lexical items are inescapable while translating, translation is a focus-on-form activity which draws students' attention to notice the words. It is also a pushed output task with a high involvement load in which the three components of need, search, and evaluation are present. In example [1], the student looked up the word "يتشدد" /yatašaddadu/ in the bilingual dictionary and attempted to recall another

equivalent to the suggested words and said I forgot it. The same student in example [2] seemed to know the meaning of the Arabic word but he could not provide the English equivalent. This can be explained by the fact that the student did not use the English word before. In examples [3] and [4] the student claimed that she knew the meaning of the Arabic words in English but she forgot them and because the words were necessary for translating the sentence, she was obliged to look them up in the dictionary. So, translation gave the student the opportunity to activate the dormant vocabulary.

[5]: Reading the ST sentence. I check تشدد /tašaddada/ (...) severe, strict, inflexible. I know all these words! hhh

[6]: He fought against us and انتصر /ʔintaṣara/ I forgot it, so I use the dictionary (...) I use to triumph. He fought against us and defeated us then we fought against him and defeated him.

[7]: Reading the ST sentence. المجني عليه /almajni ʕalayhi/ I forgot the English synonym. I use Al-Mawrid (...) the victim hhh

[8]: Reading the ST sentence. العنيفة /alʕanifa/ normally I know it. It is in my mind but I forgot it. العنيفة /alʕanifa/ × 3. I check the dictionary (...) violent, wallah neʕrefha = (I swear, I know it).

[9]: الحادث المؤلم /alḥadiṯ almuʔlim/ What does it mean المؤلم /almuʔlim/? I forgot everything! … reading the ST sentence, bad accident

In the above examples, the translation act gave the students the opportunity to use and test the vocabulary items they learned previously. The student in example [5] checked the word تشدد /tašaddada/ in the dictionary and read all of the suggested equivalents and said 'I know all these words' and laughed. Furthermore, even the very simple words which are frequently seen in language input cannot be retrieved if they are not used by the learners. The student in example [6] forgot the English word "win" and consulted the bilingual dictionary but he decided to use a new word "triumph". However, when he came to use it in context, he recalled the word defeat and used it instead. The same student in [7] could not give an equivalent to the word المجني عليه /almajni ʕalayhi/ and after checking it in the dictionary, he laughed. The student in example [8] used the dictionary to find an equivalent to the Arabic adjective العنيفة /alʕanifa/ and swore that he knew the word before. The same student in [9] failed to give an English equivalent to the adjective المؤلم /almuʔlim/ and said 'I forgot everything!" The students in the above examples had the words in their minds but they could not use them. So, translation pushed the learners to produce in the target language and to notice gaps in their knowledge.

[10]: Reading the ST sentence. يعرقل /yuʕarqilu/ I underlined it but I did not check it. Eh, ipediment or impediment I think. I check the dictionary (...) عرقل /ʕarqala/ hinder, hamper, impede, obstruct, block. Impede, who impeded the negotiations.

[11] I feel that we lose a strong opponent who which was who was the blocker block blocker of the converances.

[12]: Reading the ST sentence. اتهام /ʔitiham/ (…) accusation, charge. Yes it is accusing, accusate, accusation. اتهم /ʔitahama/ accuse double c, u, s, e

[13]: Reading the ST sentence. الاتهامات /alʔitihamat/ means accusations. I check الاتهامات /alʔitihamat/ in Al-Mawrid. Accusations. Ok. اتهام /ʔitiham/ normalement accusation, c'est pas sur, I am going to check it. I am not good in using dictionaries. اتهم /ʔitahama/ (…), oh my God ! Accusations! The right word I am just checking, ok.

[14]: No one from the Arabs is left over without being accused that he is the killer of the president of the ministers, رئيس وزراء /raʔis alwuzaraʔ/ × 2 … normally prime minister (…) yes prime minister of Israel.

Only when students produce the language can they test the depth of their vocabulary knowledge. The student in example [10] was not sure about the English equivalent impediment, he said ipediment or impediment. When he consulted the dictionary he became sure about its form. The student in example [11] also translated مفاوضات /mufawaḍat/ as conferences which she spelt as 'converances' in her final version. This is an instance of translation as focus-on-form activity where the student could benefit from the teacher's correction. The student in example [12] checked the dictionary and corrected his mistake of the word 'accusate' as a verb and focused on its spelling form so, he learned a new derivation.

The student in example [13] was not sure about the equivalent "accusation" and felt the need to check it in the dictionary. The same student after finishing with translating the whole text said: 'words I know, I forgot them: victim, accused oh, stupid'. This example is an instance of translation as a pushed output task which drew student's attention to notice gaps in her vocabulary knowledge and forced her to check the

English equivalents to make sure she provided the right word. The student in [14] was not sure that prime minister is the equivalent to رئيس وزراء /raʔis alwuzaraʔ/. Translating the text pushed her to check it in the dictionary. So, the translation act pushed the students to use words they partially knew and so they noticed gaps in their vocabulary knowledge.

b) Some Instances When the Translation Act Pushed the Learners to Learn New Vocabulary

[15]: Reading sentences in the ST, I have not the equivalents of أعارضه /ʔuʕariḍuhu/ استنكرت-/alʔiġtiyalat/ الاغتيالات- /ʔinhalat/ انهالت- /yatahimu/ يتهم- /yuʕarqilu/ يعرقل– /ʔistankartu/ -المفاوضات /almufawaḍat/ I will write all of the words and I will write full sentences. I will use the Atlas dictionary.

As manifested in the above example, L1-L2 translation induces a high involvement load in which the "need" element is present. The student was aware of the fact that the words were necessary to task completion. The element of "search" is also present since the students felt the need to use the dictionary.

[16]: Reading the ST sentence. أقبح /ʔuqabbihu/ I do not know. I use the bilingual dictionary Al-Mawrid to check it (...) to rebuke or reproach. I think according to this context reproach is the most appropriate word. I check further the meaning of reproach in the monolingual dictionary Oxford. To reproach (reading the explanation in the dictionary). So, I use reproach.

This example illustrates the fact that translation is focus-on-form activity which induces a high involvement load. The element "need" is imposed by the task itself. "Search" is also present; the student checked the bilingual dictionary. The element "evaluation" is also strong; the student chose the word "reproach" and said "I think according the context reproach is the most appropriate word". Moreover, the student

checked the meaning of the word "reproach" in the monolingual dictionary before he decided to use it. So, the strategies used by the student to cope with vocabulary problems resulted in a deep processing of the word which may lead to long-term retention.

[17]: Reading the ST sentence. استنكرت /ʔistankartu/ I use Al-Mawrid (...) to condemn or denounce. I think to denounce. To denounce. I do not know whether denounce regular or irregular verb. I check it in Oxford dictionary (...) I first read what denounce means (reading the provided explanation and examples).

In this example, the element of "need" is present since the word is important for task completion. The element "search" is also present because the student looked for the equivalent to the word "استنكر" /ʔistankara/. The element "evaluation" is strong since the student chose denounce and when he checked the monolingual dictionary to know its past form, he read the suggested explanations and examples to further evaluate whether it fitted the context or not.

[18]: I do not know البلاء /albalaʔu/ (...) ordeal, misfortune, disaster, catastrophe, evil, scourge. What is the most appropriate one? I do not know it. Misfortune it means that. It is not the appropriate one. Disaster, catastrophe, no, evil, no. I will use the monolingual one. I choose disaster and I will…disaster, I think the appropriate one (...) disaster: an unexpected event such as a very bad accident, ah yes. A flood or fire that kills. … yes disaster is the appropriate in this context.

[19]: Reading the ST sentence. اغتيالات /ʔiġtiyalat/ I use Al-Mawrid (...) to murder, to kill, assassinate this is the verb I need. I use the Oxford dictionary (...) Assassinate, reading the meaning, ok the noun is assassination.

The translation act here pushed the learners to use the dictionary and also to compare between the suggested equivalents in the bilingual dictionary to choose the most appropriate one. When they selected "disaster" and "assassinate", they further

checked their meanings and uses in the monolingual dictionary before deciding to use them. So, all the components of the involvement load construct are present in examples [18] and [19] (+ need, + search, ++evaluation).

[20]: Reading the ST sentence, خصم /xaṣmun/ I do not know the equivalent so I check Al-Mawrid (...) opponent (reading all English words) enemy, yes I know enemy, so I think خصم /xaṣmun/ is opponent.

[21]: Reading the ST sentence. الاغتيالات /alʔiġtiyalat/ kills. I check the dictionary (...) اغتال /ʔiġtala/ kills. Ah nooo assassinate, assassinations. I condemn its death because we are against the assassinations whether the victim is a friend or an opponent.

[22]: مفاوضات /mufawaḍat/ is not مناقشات /munaqašat/ discussions. I use the dictionary but which one? I use the bilingual dictionary English-Arabic. I know this word before but I do not know what it means. So, let's put discussions. I do not think it is the appropriate word. So, normally I have to find the equivalent in English. So, I put discussions. He was interrupting discussions. It is a strange idea, normally it is not discussions.

Translation is a pushed output activity which promotes the choice of words and necessitates the use of the dictionaries which play an important role in learning vocabulary. When the student in example [20] checked the meaning of خصم /xaṣmun/ in the bilingual dictionary, she remembered the word "enemy" and learned a new equivalent "opponent" and attempted to use it. The student in example [21] also had the equivalent "kills" but he looked for the exact meaning of اغتال /ʔiġtala/ in the bilingual dictionary which resulted in knowing a new word "assassination".

In spite of the fact that the student in example [22] was sure that "discussions" is not the equivalent of مفاوضات /mufawaḍat/ as used in a political text, she used it. The

translation act made her aware to notice the gap in her knowledge but she did not use the dictionary and so she failed to give the exact equivalent "negotiations".

c) Some Instances When the Translation Act Pushed the Learners to Maintain Accuracy

[23]: I feel that we lost a strong opponent, opponent, o, double p, o, n, e, n, t.

[24]: Who impeded the negociations. Negociations with c or t, I check the Atlas dictionary (...) negotiations with "t" not "c".

Translation is also a task which promotes accuracy. In order to give a good translation, students have to focus on both word form and meaning. The student in the above examples spelt the word "opponent" to write it correctly. He was also not sure about the spelling form of the word "negotiation" with "c" or "t" and so he felt the need to check it in the dictionary.

[25]: We thank God that Rabin was killed by يهودي /yahudiyun/ Jawish, Jew, normally Jawish, I check the spelling of Jawish in the Oxford dictionary (...) I am not sure, so I use Al-Mawrid and I check يهودي /yahudiyun/ (…) Jewish with "e" not with "a". So, we thank God that Rabin was killed by a Jewish.

The student was not sure about the spelling form of the word "Jewish". She consulted the dictionary and corrected her mistake. The student also knew the word "Jew" but did not use it. This mistake could be corrected by receiving feedback from the teacher.

[26]: Sad with 'a' or 'u' with a ... no it is with u.

Despite the fact that this student was in her third year, she was not sure about the spelling form of the word "sad" which is frequently used and normally it was not new

to the student at this level. Translation is a pushed output activity which obliged the student to write the word "sad" which she was not sure whether it is written with 'a' or 'u'. Unfortunately, the student wrote it with 'u' in her final version. Translation, as a pushed output task, can be a useful remedy to the problem of fossilisation.

[27]: و قد حاربنا و انتصر علينا /wa qad ḥarabana wa ʔintaṣara ʕalayna/ he fight us and he win, he won. Fight, fight, fought? I check the past of fight in the dictionary (...) fight, fought.

[28]: The past simple of fight (the spelling of the simple past of fight), fight×6. I use the Oxford dictionary normally there is a list for irregular verbs (...) reading the suggested meanings, I forgot the past of fight. Fought (ou)

[29]: and he had fight us. I check the Oxford dictionary for the past participle of fight (...) fought

[30]: I do not know whether denounce regular or irregular verb. I check it in Oxford dictionary (...) so, I denounced his death.

The students in the first three examples were aware of the fact that "fight" is an irregular verb but they forgot its past form. The student in example [30] did not know whether "denounce" is an irregular or a regular verb. So, recalling the past forms was imposed by the task of translation and students could not avoid the use of the dictionary.

4.2.3.2. English-Arabic Translation

While translating from the L2 into L1, the input is in the target language and so, students are pushed to recognise the word forms and to recall their meanings in the L1 which is usually deemed as a less demanding task than L1-L2 translation. The following are some illustrative examples of how the act of translating from L2 to L1 may help in enhancing vocabulary learning.

a) Instances When L2-L1 Translation Could Enhance Pronunciation

The process of transcribing the verbal protocols revealed that all students had pronunciation problems especially with new words. Below is an example of pronunciation mistakes:

[31]: The student read the whole text and mispronounced many words (Snowflakes /snəʊflʌk/ instead of snəʊfleɪk/; sediment/sedɪmənt/ like /sɪdɪmənt; piles up /pɪlzʌp/ instead of /paɪlzʌp/; mud /mʌd/ as /mʊd/; buried /bʌrɪed/ instead of /berɪed/

Translation is a focus-on-form activity in which errors, including pronunciation mistakes, can be identified and corrected. First, reading the text aloud by the teacher before discussing it, students may correct their pronunciation mistakes. The teacher may also correct pronunciation mistakes when students give their suggested translations. Another opportunity for correcting mistakes of pronunciation in the translation class is when students look up unknown words in the dictionary.

b) Some Instances When L2-L1 Translation Pushed the Learners to Retrieve the Meaning of Words they Met before

[32]: Reading the ST sentence. Sediment I have seen this word before and I forgot it. I forget the words that I do not use. I use Al-Mawrid (...) الرسابة /arusaba/

[33]: mud, I check Al-Mawrid (...) yeeeeeees الوحل /alwaḥl/

[34]: The ocean's floor. I am gonna to check floor in Al-Mawrid dictionary, I forgot it (...) أرضية /ʔarḍiya/ yes أرضية /ʔarḍiya/

The above examples illustrate translation as a pushed output activity in which the lexical items cannot be ignored by students. Coming across a new word for one time is not always enough to learn it or even remembering seeing it. Furthermore, it is not sufficient to learn words by just coming across them in input, but students should use

them in their productions to learn them. So, translating from L2 to L1 pushed the students to check the meaning of words they remembered having seen them before.

c) Some Instances When L2-L1 Translation Pushed the Learners to Notice and Learn New Vocabulary Items

[35]: I read to understand vocabulary in context

[36]: Reading the ST sentence. So, I translate correctly, I focus on word for word and the meaning of the whole sentence.

Translation is a communicative activity which gives the opportunity to students to learn words in context. The student in example [35] tried to infer the meaning of words from context and the student in example [36] attempted to achieve semantic or dynamic equivalence and not word for word translation.

[37]: Deposited on the seabed, I use Al-Mawrid, I hate the dictionary but I am obliged to use it here.

[38]: Construct, Al-Mawrid (...) normally I should have an electronic dictionary using mobile

The above two examples illustrate translation as a task with a high involvement load. Dictionaries are unavoidable while translating and that which differentiates translation from other tasks in which the need element is absent or moderate.

[39]: Reading the ST. I do not know the meaning of debris ... I keep this word and look for it later. Particles I do not know this word, so I will keep it. I am not sure about the meaning of drift, so I keep it. Sediment, I do not know the word, I look for it later.

[40]: These particles drift to the bottom like snowflakes and form sediment. I do not know all of these words. This sentence contains words I did not see before, so I have to use the dictionary.

[41]: Sediment I know first what is sediment then I translate the sentence

[42]: I have to check /mu:d/ or /mʌd/ in the bilingual dictionary (...) it means طين /ṭinun/ أو وحل /waḥlun/

Lexical items are very necessary for the completion of the translation task. The students in the above examples could not skip the words and they were aware of this fact. Whether they like it or not, students must use dictionaries to check the meaning of unknown words. Translation is a pushed output activity that induces a high involvement load. The elements of "need" and "search" are present in the above examples.

[43]: Reading the ST sentence. Debris I do not know the meaning of this word. I check the Oxford monolingual dictionary (...) here I think the appropriate translation is, reading the full sentence and said, so, we may say بقايا /baqaya/

[44]: Reading the ST sentence, yes here there are many difficult words. Particles. I have to use the dictionary again (...) (reading the explanation and also the examples in the entry) reading the sentence. Now I move to the verb which is also new for me (...) I first translate particles: it means قطعة /qiṭʕatun/, now I check drift (...) in this context, I think that the appropriate meaning is to ... reading the sentence in the ST. I think it is يغوص /yaǧoṣu/.

[45]: piles up is not familiar to me, so I check the Oxford dictionary (...) I did not get the meaning of the word, so I use Arabic-English/ English-Arabic dictionary (...) pile means دعامة أو ركيزة /daʕama ʔaw rakiza/ as a verb, piles means تكدس و تركم /tarakama wa takadasa/.

[46]: Reading the ST sentence. Deposited I use the Oxford dictionary (...) deposit as a verb (...) I think the second meaning is the appropriate one. On the seabed (...) so I

use the bilingual dictionary to deposit (...) /yudaʕu/ يودع /yaḍaʕu/ يضع- /yurasibu/ يرسب. Re-reading the sentence of the ST, I think it is يرسب /yurasibu/. On the seabed I check the bilingual dictionary (...) it not mentioned here, so I use the monolingual dictionary (...) floor of the sea or ocean قعر البحر /qaʕri albaḥr/

The students in the above examples could not leave out the words they did not understand and they were obliged to use dictionaries. The involvement load in the above examples is (+need, + search, + evaluation). The element of "need" is present and it was imposed by the task. The element of "evaluation" is also present because students attempted to understand words as used in the text. The student in [46], for instance, used the monolingual dictionary to check "deposit" and said that the second meaning was the most appropriate one so, she compared between the suggested meanings in the entry. When she came across the word "seabed" she decided to use the bilingual dictionary and checked the meaning of "deposit" again. Then she re-read the ST sentence and chose the word يرسب /yurasibu/. When she did not find the word "seabed" in the bilingual dictionary, she resorted to the monolingual one and found its meaning.

[47]: I check thick in the dictionary (...) سميك /samik/

In spite of the fact that she was a third year student, she did not know the meaning of "thick" which is a frequently used adjective that is normally learned at the first stages of learning English. This can be explained by the fact that the student knew the word before but she did not use it and so she forgot it. The translation task, in this example, pushed the student to notice a gap in her vocabulary knowledge and was obliged to check the meaning of "thick" in the bilingual dictionary.

[48]: Seabed, I check Al-Mawrid (...) I did not find the word in this dictionary. I use the Oxford monolingual dictionary to check seabed (...) even here I did not find it.

So, I use English-Arabic Atlas dictionary to check it (...) yeees that is the word, قاع البحر /qaʕi albaḥr/.

 [49]: I really do not know the meaning of the seabed at all, so I use Al-Mawrid (...) hhh it is useless, so I use the Oxford dictionary (...) I did not find it, so, I use Atlas dictionary (…) ok I find it, أرضية البحر أو المحيط /ʔarḍiyat albaḥr ʔaw almuḥiṭ/ or قعر /qaʕri albaḥr/.

[50]: Fossils, I use the bilingual dictionary (...) بقايا المستحجرات /baqaya almustaḥjarat/.

[51]: Fossils. I do not know this word I check it in Al-Mawrid (...) المستحثات أو الاحفور /almustaḥaṯat ʔaw alʔuḥfur/.

Translation can be a useful resource for teaching and learning new words. The students in the above examples could not avoid the words "seabed" and "fossils" which were important for translating the sentences. The students in examples [48] and [49] checked the meaning of "seabed" in the bilingual dictionary and when they did not find it, they used the monolingual dictionary. When they did not find it, they used the Atlas dictionary and found it. The element of need is strong here which resulted in learning new lexical items.

4.2.4. Discussion of the Results

The thinking-aloud protocols study enabled us discern the ways in which the act of translating from and into the FL may enhance vocabulary learning. First, the fact that translation is a communicative activity in which the lexical items are inescapable, translation is a focus-on-form activity that draws students' attention to notice words. Translating from L1 into the L2 pushes the learners to recall both word form and meaning and L2-L1 translation pushes the learners to recognise word forms and to

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retrieve their equivalents in L1. So, in both tasks students are obliged to activate and use the previously learned vocabulary items.

Second, accuracy and fluency are two dimensions of language learning and translation is a task that promotes linguistic accuracy. Coming across words in input is not sufficient to develop productive vocabulary. Students need to produce language in order to be aware of the gaps in their knowledge (Swain, 2000). When they translate from L1 into the L2, students are pushed to produce in the target language and so they can detect 'gaps' in their competence. They may also benefit from the teacher's feedback when they discuss their [possible] translations.

Third, in accordance with Laufer and Girsai (2008), the study revealed that translation is a pushed output activity par excellence that induces a strong involvement load. In L1-L2 translation the involvement load is: + need, + search, ++ evaluation. The component of 'need' is imposed by the task itself, 'search' is also present because most of the time students fail to infer the meaning from context and they resort to the use of dictionaries. 'Evaluation' is also strong in that students compare between the equivalents suggested in the dictionary and then they check them against the context before they decide which word is more appropriate. The involvement load in L2-L1 is + need, + search, + evaluation. Translating in this direction pushes the learners to recall the meanings of words in L1 and so students are forced to use dictionaries, especially when they come across new words. The component of evaluation is moderate because the sentences are presented in the target language.

Fourth, translating from and into the target language is always a task of pruning because there always exist many possibilities for translating a sentence that helps in consolidating vocabulary knowledge. This study has also revealed that the translation

process goes through different stages: reading the whole text, translating sentence by sentence, writing the first draft, revising the first draft, and writing the final version. So, each time students revise their translations and evaluate them in order to achieve a good translation, they have the opportunity to deeply process the words which is very important for learning and consolidating their vocabulary knowledge.

The results of this qualitative study lend more support to the argument for incorporating translation as a fifth skill alongside the reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. The analysis of the thinking-aloud protocols revealed that the act of translating in both directions can serve the teaching and learning of vocabulary in many ways. Moreover, the fact that translation is a pushed output activity with a high involvement load, it can promote the learning of lexis more than any other pushed output tasks can do. The words are predetermined by the ST and so students cannot avoid words and are forced to process them.

Conclusion

This study attempts to add empirical evidence on the usefulness of translation in the FL classroom. First, the findings of experiment one proved that translation can be a useful resource for the promotion of vocabulary learning. Arabic-English-Arabic translation, as a pushed output activity with a high involvement load in which the lexical items are unavoidable, helped learners enhance both receptive and productive vocabulary. The subsequent classroom discussion proved that translation is very useful as a focus-on-form activity which gives the opportunity to students to notice words and also to notice gaps in their vocabulary knowledge. The translation and the back-translation tasks also proved that translation is very useful for testing vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, results of the paired-samples t-test lent more support for

accepting the alternative hypothesis of this study which states that: if translation (Arabic-English-Arabic) helped in promoting learning vocabulary as the other four skills do, it could be considered as a fifth skill. Second, the thinking-aloud protocols study showed how the act of translating may help in learning vocabulary. The analysis of the protocols revealed that translation can serve the learning of vocabulary in different ways but especially as a pushed output activity and as a focus-on-form activity. The results of this experiment also lent more support to the stated hypothesis.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

The issue of using translation in the FL classroom was glossed over for about one century without providing convincing reasons. The objections that translation gained from the GTM led many researchers and methodologists to reject it from the FL classroom without questioning. Recently, however, many researchers have attributed the reasons behind banning translation to political and commercial factors rather than to linguistic and academic ones and called for reassessing its role in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Furthermore, some researchers went to consider it as a fifth skill. So, this study attempted to reconsider the role of translation in learning vocabulary and to highlight it as a fifth skill.

To lend more empirical support to the findings in favour of translation, the following hypothesis was posited:

If translation helped in the promotion of learning vocabulary as reading, writing, listening, and speaking do, it could be considered as a fifth skill.

The study comprises four chapters. The first chapter revisited the main teaching methods during the method era to reconsider the rejection of translation from the FL classroom and to know the reasons behind banning it. The review of literature revealed that the rejection of translation was not based on convincing evidence and that the main source of its rejection was by proponents of the Direct Method for commercial and political factors of that time.

The second chapter dealt with the new trends in language teaching methodology, mainly with the break with the method concept and the move to the postmethod pedagogy. It reviewed the literature on the current trends concerning the place of

translation in foreign language teaching and learning. It also discussed the widespread objections to using translation and refuted them reviewing empirical studies. And finally, it highlighted the merits of translation in the learning of vocabulary. This chapter revealed that translation has gained importance in the postmethod era and that the literature on its revival is a reputable, a recent, and an abundant one. Also, many researchers welcomed it as a fifth skill alongside reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It has also revealed that translation can serve the learning of vocabulary in many ways, as a resource for providing comprehensible input, as a pushed output activity, and also as focus-on-form activity.

The third chapter is devoted to the analysis of teachers and students questionnaires to gauge their perceptions regarding the use of translation in the teaching and learning of the foreign language and about integrating it as a fifth skill. The teachers and students questionnaires revealed that the majority of teachers and students hold positive views about translation and welcomed it as a fifth skill. Students' answers also demonstrated that the overwhelming majority of them reported using translation strategy in the operation of learning which proves that translation is indeed a naturally-occurring activity in learning the foreign language, irrespective of whether teachers encourage or discourage it.

The fourth chapter devoted to analysing data obtained from the two experiments to investigate the efficacy of translation in the learning of vocabulary. The results of the experiments yielded support to the argument that translation is a useful resource for the promotion of vocabulary learning.

Recalling Popovic's suggestion that 'if a strong case for translation in the language classroom is to be made, at least three things ought to be demonstrated: that criticisms

against it are not valid, that learners need it, and that it promotes their learning' (2001, p. 3), the findings of the present research added more support to the proposition of integrating translation as a fifth skill in the FL classroom. First, the literature review revealed that arguments against translation were not based on empirical evidence and that the rejection of translation was illegitimate and that it was a result of the method concept as a colonial construct. Second, results of questionnaires proved that both teachers and students hold positive views towards translation and that translation is a naturally-occurring activity in the process of learning foreign languages. Third, the results of the experiments proved that translation can serve the learning of vocabulary in many ways which confirmed the hypothesis of this study.

In the light of the above mentioned findings, the following implications are made:

➢ Since translation is a naturally-occurring activity in learning foreign languages, so it is very beneficial to train students to use translation effectively to avoid problems of interference.

➢ Translation can be an effective focus-on-form activity in which students have the opportunity to notice lexical items and process them deeply which may lead to long-term retention. Students also can benefit from classroom discussions and teachers' feedback to consolidate their vocabulary.

➢ Translation is pushed output activity with a high involvement load (L2-L1: + need + search + evaluation, L1-L2: + need + search ++ evaluation) which is useful for enriching vocabulary and for developing the skill of using dictionaries per se.

➢ Translation and the back-translation tasks are very useful for testing vocabulary.

➢ Translation includes and to a certain extent depends on the other four skills, so translation is not a waste of time in that it may improve them.

➤ EFL students may work as translators, so they need to be trained in translation.

Some suggestions can also be offered:

➤ This study revealed that all of the student participants in the experiment did not translate effectively, so students need to be trained in the translation skill. The translation class should include translation theory. In order to be effective, translation in EFL classrooms must resemble translation programmes for training translators.

➤ Devising the translation course to all options not only to Applied Language Studies.

➤ Allocating more time to translation especially in the second year.

➤ Translation can be integrated in different ways not only in the form of translating texts. Students may be trained to provide subtitles or they may be trained on simultaneous translation.

➤ Since translation is a task with high involvement load which necessitates the use of different types of dictionaries. So, providing electronic dictionaries in classrooms may improve students' performance in translation.

Each study is not without its limitations. So, the following are some suggestions for future research:

➤ Dealing with translation in the teaching and learning of foreign languages is undoubtedly a wide area of research. Addressing the issue of translation raises many discussions in a variety of fields: language teaching methodology, theories of language and language learning, the four skills, translation studies...etc. So, it is better for future studies to narrow dawn the topic to be addressed.

➤ Including many texts in the study.

➤ Administering delayed posttests, for example one month after the treatment.

➢ Focusing on testing the learning of unknown words.

➢ Future studies may focus on other aspects of language such as grammar, reading, writing, etc.

By way of conclusion, this study is a response to the researchers' calls for reassessing the role of translation in the foreign language classroom. It attempted to reconsider the rejection of translation and also to provide more empirical support to the literature in favour of it. So, it has become clear through the literature review that the onslaught against translation was illegitimate and that the literature in favour of it is a prolific one. The results of the questionnaires and the experiments support the idea of integrating translation as a fifth skill in the context of teaching and learning foreign languages, especially at the advanced level.

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Appendices

Appendix # 1

Teachers Pilot Questionnaire

Section One: Teachers' Background

1. What is your educational qualification?
   a. BA ☐   b. Master ☐   c. Magister ☐   d. PhD ☐

2. What is your academic status?
   full-time teacher ☐   part-time teacher ☐

3. Is translation your field of specialism (do you hold a diploma in translating)?
   Yes ☐   no ☐

4. How many years have you been teaching Translation Practice (TP) module? ☐

5. Do you teach other modules? Please name them
   ……………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………….......

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions on TP Module and their Teaching Practices

6. What is the rationale behind the implementation of Translation Practice in the teaching of English as a foreign language?
   a. To train students to be professional translators ☐
   b. To teach English vocabulary ☐
   c. To raise the problem of transfer by comparing between the two systems (Arabic and English) ☐
   d. To improve students' level of English proficiency ☐

7. How do you consider translation in the context of teaching English as foreign language?
   a. An important and useful technique for teaching/learning/assessing the target language ☐
   b. A suitable remedy to interference ☐
   c. Additional and useless ☐

8. Are your students motivated or bored when they translate in class?

   well motivated ☐   motivated ☐   bored ☐

9. Do you prefer
   Sentence level exercises ☐   texts ☐

10. Do you use different types / register of texts?

yes ☐   no ☐

11. On which do you focus more, English-Arabic, Arabic-English, or both?

English-Arabic ☐   Arabic-English ☐ Both ☐

12. In which direction do students perform well?

English-Arabic ☐   Arabic-English ☐

13. What do you take more into consideration when you assess students' translations?

Grammar ☐ Vocabulary ☐   Surface structures ☐ Overall meaning ☐

14. Do students possess their own dictionaries?

yes ☐   no ☐

15. If yes, do they *systematically* use the while translating?

yes ☐   no ☐

16. Do you think that translation activities are useful to students to develop the skill of using dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) *per se*?

yes ☐   no ☐

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

17. Do you agree that **_most_** of the time EFL students fail to translate from and into English because of English vocabulary shortage'?

yes ☐   no ☐

18. While translating many if not all the lexical items are inescapable, so do you think it is effective to teach selected vocabulary (phrasal verbs, collocations, terminology, idioms) through translation activities?

yes ☐   no ☐

19. It is said that translation is rewriting, so can English-Arabic-English translation help our students to activate their dormant vocabulary?

yes ☐   no ☐

Section Four: Translation as a Fifth Skill

20. Can translation help EFL students to improve the writing and the reading skills, to name but these two?

    yes ☐   no ☐

    If yes, in what ways?

    ……

    ……

    ……………………………. ……………………………………………………...............

21. Translation depends on the other four language skills, especially Reading and Writing, so do you think it could be considered as a fifth skill along with the other four skills? If yes or no, say why?

    yes ☐   no ☐

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………...

                                                                                Thank you!

The Students Pilot Questionnaire

Section One: About Students' Use of Translation Strategy

1. Do you translate mentally while reading books, newspapers, magazines, or other materials in English?

    yes ☐   no ☐

2. Do you translate mentally when you listen to authentic English?

    yes ☐   no ☐

3. Do you translate mentally when you are choosing appropriate vocabulary when writing in the target language (English)?

    yes ☐   no ☐

4. When you watch an English-talking film that provides subtitling (translation at the bottom of the television screen), do you use Arabic subtitles to check your comprehension?

    yes ☐   no ☐

5. Do you use Arabic when you are in group work?

    yes ☐   no ☐

6. Do you often compare to find similarities and differences between Arabic and English when you are dealing with English vocabulary and grammar?

    yes ☐   no ☐

7. Are you [always] curious to know the meaning of the English words that you come across when you read or listen in your mother tongue?

    yes ☐   no ☐

8. Do you often write the Arabic or French equivalents of the English new words when your teacher explains the lesson?

    yes ☐   no ☐

Section Two: Students' Opinions about the Value of Translation Practice module

9. How do you feel during translation classes?

    well motivated ☐   motivated ☐   bored ☐

10. How do you consider Translation Practice module?

an important and interesting module ☐ an additional module ☐not important at all ☐

11. Is Translation Practice _the_ module that enables you be aware of your vocabulary size?
yes ☐   no ☐

12. Which direction of translation do you find difficult: Arabic-English or English-Arabic?
Arabic-English ☐   English-Arabic ☐

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

13. When translating, do you focus on spelling and choice of words?
yes ☐   no ☐

14. Concerning vocabulary in translation activities, do you remember the new lexical items you came across while translating while reading, writing, listening, or speaking?

yes ☐   no ☐

15. Do you use all types of dictionaries while translating?

yes ☐   no☐

16. Does your teacher allow you to use the [bilingual] dictionary?
yes ☐   no ☐

17. When you look up the meaning of a given word while translating, do you often check pronunciations, spellings, inflections, synonyms, opposites, derivatives, and explanations provided in the entry?
yes ☐   no ☐

18. When you look up a word in the dictionary while translating, do you often check the meanings of the nearby words?
yes ☐   no ☐

Section Four: Translation as the Fifth Skill

19. Does translation help you in learning English and improving the four language skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking)?
yes ☐   no ☐

20. Do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the four other skills Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking?

yes ☐   no ☐

Thanks for your answers!

Appendix # 3

The Teachers Questionnaire

This questionnaire helps us collect the data needed for the accomplishment of PhD thesis.

So, please tick in the appropriate boxes and provide explanations when needed.

Section One: Teachers' Background

1. What is your educational qualification?

 a. PhD ☐   b. Magister   c. Master ☐   d. BA ☐

2. What is your academic status?

 full-time teacher ☐   part-time teacher ☐

3. Is translation your field of specialization (do you hold a diploma in translating)?

 yes ☐   no ☐

4. How many years have you been teaching Translation Practice (TP) module? ☐

5. Do you teach other modules? Please name them

 …………………………………………………………………………………………………….

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions on TP Module and their Teaching Practices

6. What is the rationale behind the implementation of Translation Practice module in the teaching of English as a foreign language?

 a. To train students to be professional translators   ☐

 b. To teach English vocabulary ☐

 c. As a remedy to problem of transfer by comparing between the two systems (Arabic and English)   ☐

 d. To improve students' level of English proficiency ☐

7. How do you consider translation in the context of teaching English as foreign language?

    a. An important and useful technique for teaching/learning/assessing the target language ☐

    b. A suitable remedy to interference ☐

    c. Additional and useless ☐

8. Are your students motivated or bored when they translate in class?

    well motivated ☐   motivated ☐   bored ☐

9. Do you teach translation theory in class, or do you only give students activities to practice translation?

....

10. What do you prefer for your teachings?

sentence level exercises ☐   texts ☐

11. Do you use different types/ register of texts?

    yes ☐   no ☐

12. What type of equivalence do you ask your students to provide?

…………………..

13. What do you take more into consideration when you assess students' translations?

grammar ☐   vocabulary ☐   overall meaning ☐

surface features ☐   all of them ☐

14. On which do you focus more, English-Arabic, Arabic-English, or both?

    English-Arabic ☐   Arabic-English ☐   Both ☐

15. In which direction do students perform well?

English-Arabic ☐   Arabic-English ☐   None of them ☐

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

16. Do you agree that <u>most</u> of the time EFL students fail to translate from and into English because of English vocabulary shortage'?

       yes ☐   no ☐

17. While translating many if not all the lexical items are inescapable, so do you think it is effective to teach selected vocabulary (phrasal verbs, collocations, terminology, idioms) through translation activities?

       yes ☐   no ☐

18. It is said that translation is rewriting, so can English-Arabic-English translation help our students to activate their dormant vocabulary?

  yes ☐   no ☐

19. Do students possess their own dictionaries?

       yes ☐   no ☐

20. If yes, do they *systematically* use them while translating?

       yes ☐   no ☐

21. Do you think that translation activities are useful to students to develop the 'skill' of using dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) *per se*?

       yes ☐   no ☐

Section Four: Translation as a Fifth Skill

22. Can translation help EFL students to improve the other skills?

       yes ☐   no ☐

 If yes, in what ways?

    ....

23. Translation depends on the other four language skills, especially Reading and Writing; do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the other skills?

Strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

Please, justify your answer:

………………………………………………………………………………………………..................

....

....

Thanks for your collaboration!

The Students Questionnaire

Section One: About Students' Use of Translation Strategy

1. Do you often translate mentally while reading books, newspapers, magazines, or other materials in English?

    yes ☐   no ☐

2. Do you often translate mentally when you listen to English music, films, or other programmes?

    yes ☐   no ☐

3. When you watch an English-talking film that provides subtitling (translation at the bottom of the television screen), do you use Arabic subtitles to check your comprehension?

    yes ☐   no ☐

4. Do you often translate mentally when writing in the target language (English)?

    yes ☐   no ☐

5. Do you often compare to find similarities and differences between your mother tongue or other language (French) and English when you are dealing with English vocabulary and grammar?

    yes ☐   no ☐

6. Are you [always] curious to know the Arabic equivalents of the English words that you come across when you read or listen?

    yes ☐   no ☐

7. Do you often write the Arabic or French equivalents of the English new words when your teacher explains the lesson? (vocabulary notebook)

    yes ☐   no ☐

8. Do you use Arabic when you are in group work?

    yes ☐   no ☐

Section Two: Students' opinions about the value of Translation Practice module

9. How do you feel during translation classes?

    well motivated ☐   motivated ☐   bored ☐

10. How do you consider Translation Practice module?

    important and interesting ☐ an additional subject ☐ not important at all ☐

11. Which direction of translation do you find difficult: Arabic-English or English-Arabic?

    Arabic-English ☐   English-Arabic ☐

Section Three: Translation and Vocabulary Learning

12. When translating, do you focus on spelling and choice of words?

    yes ☐   no

13. Do you use the words that you came across while translating when you perform on other tasks in the target language?

    yes ☐   no ☐

14. Is Translation Practice *the* module that enables you be aware of your vocabulary size?

    yes ☐   no ☐

15. Do you use all types of dictionaries while translating?

    yes ☐   no ☐

16. Does your teacher allow you to use the [bilingual] dictionary?

    yes ☐   no ☐

17. When you look up the meaning of a given word while translating, do you often check pronunciations, spellings, inflections, synonyms, opposites, derivatives, and explanations provided in the entry?

    yes ☐   no ☐

18. When you look up a word in the dictionary while translating, do you often check the meanings of the nearby words?

    yes ☐   no ☐

Section Four: Translation as the Fifth Skill

19. Does translation help you in learning English and improving the four language skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking)?

    yes ☐   no ☐

20. Translation is an activity that language learners face every day as students and workers. It includes the four language skills and is, to a certain extent, dependent on them (especially Reading and Writing skills), so do you agree that translation can be considered as a fifth skill alongside the four other skills?

    strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

Thanks for your answers!

Text One:

الأمم المتحدة

خرجت الأمم المتحدة رسميا إلى حيز الوجود يوم 24 اكتوبر1945 عندما تم التصديق على ميثاق الأمم المتحدة بأغلبية من الدول الأصلية الأعضاء الإحدى و الخمسين. و ما زال هذا اليوم موضع احتفال كل سنة في جميع أنحاء العالم بوصفه يوم الأمم المتحدة.

والهدف من الأمم المتحدة هو تواجد جميع الدول في العالم على صعيد واحد للعمل من اجل السلام و التنمية استنادا إلى مبادئ العدالة و الكرامة الإنسانية و رفاه جميع الشعوب. و هي تتيح الفرصة أمام البلدان لكي توازن بين التكافل العالمي و بين المصالح الوطنية لدى التصدي للمشاكل الدولية.

وقد بلغ أعضاء الأمم المتحدة حاليا 185 عضوا (مارس1995) و هم يجتمعون في الجمعية العامة التي تكاد تمثل برلمانا عالميا. و لكل بلد، صغير أو كبير، غني أو فقير صوت واحد. و مع ذلك فان القرارات التي تتخذها الجمعية العامة ليست ملزمة. إلا أن ما تقرره الجمعية تصبح قرارات تحمل وزن الرأي الحكومي العالمي.

و مقر الأمم المتحدة هو مدينة نيويورك و لكن الأرض و المباني في المقر إقليم دولي. و للأمم المتحدة علمها الخاص و دائرة البريد و طوابع البريد الخاصة. ....

The Pretest and Posttest of Arabic-English Direction

2. خرجت الأمم المتحدة <u>رسميا</u> إلى حيز الوجود	1. خرجت الأمم المتحدة رسميا إلى حيز الوجود
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word. f) I know the English equivalent of this word. ……………(Give the English word)
4. عندما تم التصديق على <u>ميثاق</u> الأمم المتحدة	3. عندما تم *التصديق* على ميثاق الأمم المتحدة
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word
6. للعمل من اجل <u>السلام</u> و التنمية	5. و ما زال هذا اليوم موضع *احتفال* كل سنة
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word
8. استنادا إلى مبادئ *العدالة* و الكرامة الإنسانية و رفاه جميع الشعوب	7. استنادا إلى *مبادئ* العدالة و الكرامة الإنسانية و رفاه جميع الشعوب
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't

know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word	c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word
9. استنادا إلى مبادئ العدالة و <u>*الكرامة*</u> الإنسانية و رفاه جميع الشعوب. a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word	10. استنادا إلى مبادئ العدالة و الكرامة الإنسانية و <u>*رفاه*</u> جميع الشعوب. a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word
11. لكي <u>*توازن*</u> بين التكافل العالمي و بين المصالح الوطنية لدى التصدي للمشاكل الدولية. a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word	12. هم يجتمعون في <u>*الجمعية العامة*</u> a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word
13. التي تكاد تمثل <u>*برلمانا*</u> عالميا a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word	14. لكل بلد، صغير أو كبير، غني أو فقير <u>*صوت*</u> واحد a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means.............. (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means .... (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ....(Give the English word

16. و للأمم المتحدة <u>علمها</u> الخاص	15. و <u>مقر</u> الأمم المتحدة هو مدينة نيويورك
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word
18. أما المقر الأوروبي للأمم المتحدة فهو في قصر الأمم في <u>جنيف</u>	17. و <u>دائرة البريد</u> و <u>طوابع البريد</u> الخاصة
a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word
	19. أما المقر الأوروبي للأمم المتحدة فهو في قصر الأمم في جنيف و<u>سويسرا</u>
	a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means..………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation) e) I do not know the English equivalent of this word f) I know the English equivalent of this word ……………(Give the English word

The Translation of "الأمم التحدة" **Text**

United Nations

The United Nations officially came into existence on October 24, 1945 when the UN Charter was adopted by a majority of the then 51 member states. This date is still commemorated every year all over the world as the United Nations Day.

The aim of the United Nations is to enable every member state to stand on an equal footing with the others, to work to establish peace, ensure sustained development based on the principles of justice, human dignity and well-being for all peoples. It provides world countries with the opportunity to balance global interdependence and national interests when addressing international problems.

The United Nations member states have currently reached 185 (March 1995). They meet in the General Assembly, which represents an almost world parliament. Each country – small or large, rich or poor – has one vote. However, the resolutions the General Assembly approves are not binding. But the resolutions the Assembly carries are as significant as international public opinion.

Though the United Nations has its headquarters in New York City, the headquarters premises and buildings are regarded as an international property. The United Nations has its own flag, its own Postal Service and stamps. Six official languages are used at the United Nations: English, Spanish, Russian, Chinese, Arabic and French. As for the United Nations European headquarters, it is at the Palais des Nations in Geneva, Switzerland.

Appendix # 8

The Ocean's Appearance

The ocean fills all our senses. We can hear its waves, smell its salty odor, and see its rippling blue surface stretching toward the horizon. Dipping our toes in it makes us shiver, and tasting it makes us wince! The ocean is an enormous soup made up of about 60 different chemical elements that give it its salty taste. The main ingredients-chlorine, sodium, sulfate, magnesium, calcium, and potassium-come mostly from river sediment dumped into the ocean. The world's saltiest waters are in the Tropics. In these regions, high temperature and a lack of rain increase evaporation. This reduces the amount of freshwater in the ocean and raises its concentration of salt. Besides its saltiness, the ocean has several other traits, which include color, pressure, and temperature.

The Pretest and Posttest of English-Arabic Direction

1. The ocean... We can hear its *waves*	2. The ocean We can smell its *salty* odor
a) I don't remember having seen this word before.	a) I don't remember having seen this word before.
b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)	c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)
d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
3. The ocean We can smell its salty *odor*	4. The ocean...and see its *rippling* blue surface
a) I don't remember having seen this word before.	a) I don't remember having seen this word before.
b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)	c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)
d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
5. Its surface *stretchi*ng toward the horizon	6. … toward the *horizon*
a) I don't remember having seen this word before.	a) I don't remember having seen this word before.
b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)	c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation)
d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
7. Dipping our *toes* in it	8. Dipping our toes in it makes us *shiver*
a) I don't remember having seen this word before.	a) I don't remember having seen this word before.
b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...…………	c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...…………

(synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	(synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
9. The ocean is an *enormous* soup a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	10. The main *ingredients* a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
11. river *sediment* dumped into the ocean a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	12. river sediment *dumped into* the ocean a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)
13. world's saltiest waters are in the *<u>Tropics</u>* a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)	14. the ocean has several other *<u>traits</u>* a) I don't remember having seen this word before. b) I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means. c) I have seen this word before, and I <u>think</u> it means...………… (synonym or translation) d) I <u>know</u> this word. It means …………… (synonym or translation)

Appendix # 10

The Translation of the Ocean's Appearance Text:

<div dir="rtl">

مظهر البحر

البحر يملأ حواسنا كلها. فإنا نسمع أمواجه، ونجد ريحه المِلِحة، ونرى سطحه الأزرق المتموج يمتد حتى الأفق. فإذا غمسنا أصابع أقدامنا فيه ارتجفنا، وإذا طعمناه قطّبنا. البحرُ مَرَقٌّ جَمٌّ مركب من ستين عنصر كيماوي مختلف تجعله ملح المذاق. وأكبر عناصره التي هي الكلور والصوديوم والكبريت والمنغنيزيوم والكالسيوم والبوتاسيوم تأتي في الجملة من رواسب الأنهار الملقاة في البحار. وأشد مياه الأرض ملوحةً هي في النواحي الإستوائية. إذ تزيد شدة الحر وقلة المطر من التبخر في هذه الجهات. فيقلل ذلك من مقدار الماء العذب في البحر ويزيد من شدة ملوحته. وللبحر، فضلا عن ملوحته، خصائص أخرى عديدة، منها اللون والضغط والحرارة.

</div>

Appendix # 11

فكرة

مصطفى أمين

كنت دائما ضد الرئيس رابين, كنت أعارضه و أقاومه و أقبح من تصرفاته العنيفة ضد العرب, و لكني حزنت لمصرعه, و شعرت بأننا خسرنا خصما قويا كان يعرقل المفاوضات, و كان يتشدد في مواقفه ضد العرب, و لكنه كان يحب بلاده, و قد حاربنا و انتصر علينا, ثم حاربناه و انتصرنا عليه في 6 أكتوبر. استنكرت لمصرعه لأننا ضد الاغتيالات سواء كان المجني عليه صديقا أم خصما, و كان أهم ما في الحادث المؤلم انه اثبت أن العرب ليسو وحدهم في ميدان الاغتيالات, بل إن إسرائيل كذلك تشاركنا هذا البلاء. و نحمد الله أن رابين قتل بيد يهودي, و لو كان القاتل عربيا لانهالت علينا الاتهامات من كل مكان, و لما بقي عربي واحد بغير أن يتهم بأنه قاتل رئيس وزراء إسرائيل. أما الآن فالقاتل شخص واحد لا ملايين العرب الذين يتهمون بكل شيء يحدث في العالم.

Appendix # 12

A Thought

I have always been against President Rabin; I have challenged and opposed him; I have sniffed at his violent reactions against the Arabs. Yet, I was dismayed by his murder; I felt we had lost a strong opponent who used to hamper negotiations, who used to adopt a hard line in his positions against the Arabs. However, he used to love his country. He waged war against us and won it. We later emerged victorious when we went to war against him on October 6.

I have condemned his assassination because I'm against murders, whether the victim is a friend or a foe. The most significant thing about the painful incident was the fact he had provided evidence that the Arabs do not stand alone when it comes to assassinations, and that Israel does have its fair share of the trouble.

We are so thankful to Allah that Rabin was killed by a Jew. Had the killer been an Arab, we would have been the target of a worldwide finger-pointing blame game. Every single Arab man would have stood accused of slaughtering the Israeli prime minister. But now the killer stands as a unique person, not as millions of Arabs who [typically] get accused of everything that happens around the world.

Appendix # 13

The Ocean's Memory

The ocean is constantly collecting debris of all kinds. These particles drift to the bottom like snowflakes and form sediment. Over time, the sediment piles up on the ocean floor and becomes a layer of mud that may be 300 to 500 m thick. Some sediment comes from the remains of marine plants and animals. Some comes from land, where wind, ice, and water break down rocks into tiny pieces. These pieces are carried to the ocean by rivers, and then deposited on the seabed. Over millions of years, the sediment piles up, hardens, and is transformed into sedimentary rock. This kind of rock contains fossils, the imprints or remains of plants or animals that have been buried in the sediment. By studying fossils, we can reconstruct what life on Earth was like long ago.

ذكرى البحر

لا ينفك البحر يجمع أشلاء كل شيء، ولا تنفك الأشلاءُ تتصوّبُ كنُدَفِ الثلج إلى القعر وتترسب. فيتراكم على مر الأيام ما يترسب في قاع البحر حتى يصير طبقة من الطين قد يكون سمكُها من 300 م إلى 500 م.

من الرسوبات ما ينشأ من بقايا نبات البحر ودوابّه. ومنها ما يرد من صخور البر التي يفتّتها الريح والجليد والماء. فتجرف الأنهار هذا الفُتات إلى البحر، ثم يُستودع في قاع البحر. فتتراكم الرسوبات في ملايين السنين وتتصلّب فتنقلب صخورا.

تشتمل هذه الصخور على رُفات، وهي ما ينطبعُ أو يتبقى من النبات والحيوان المدفون في الرسوبات. وبدرس الرفات يمكننا أن نقف على ما كانت عليه الحياة في العصور الغابرات.

Résumé

De nombreux chercheurs ont remis en question le rejet de la traduction de la classe de langue étrangère et ont appelé à en réévaluer le rôle. D'autre part, d'autres l'ont perçu comme une cinquième compétence tout comme la lecture, l'écriture, l'écoute et l'oral. Cette étude plaide défend l'idée de la réhabilitation de la traduction dans le contexte de l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'anglais comme langue étrangère. Cette étude a un double objectif: *1.* Tenter de ressasser le rejet de la traduction et *2.* Fournir un soutien plus empirique à la littérature en faveur de la traduction. Ainsi, l'hypothèse émise est que si la traduction (arabe-anglais-arabe) favorise la promotion du vocabulaire d'apprentissage tout comme les quatre autres compétences, elle peut subséquemment être considérée comme une cinquième compétence. Pour vérifier cette hypothèse, des méthodes quantitatives et qualitatives ont été utilisées. D'abord, des questionnaires ont été distribués aux enseignants du module Thème et Version aussi bien qu'aux étudiants de troisième année d'études en Linguistique Appliquée au département des lettres et de langue anglaise à l'Université de Constantine 1 afin de sonder leurs points de vue sur l'utilisation de la traduction en général et sa fonction dans l'apprentissage du vocabulaire en particulier. Deuxièmement, cette étude fait appel à deux expérimentations. La première porte sur l'analyse quantitative pour déterminer dans quelle mesure la traduction peut contribuer à l'apprentissage des éléments lexicaux. La deuxième, une étude des protocoles de la réflexion à voix haute, sert à acquérir une compréhension approfondie sur comment la traduction peut favoriser l'apprentissage du vocabulaire. Les résultats des questionnaires ont montré que la plupart des enseignants et des étudiants estiment que la traduction mérite d'être intégrée comme une cinquième compétence tout en reconnaissant son rôle dans la promotion de l'apprentissage du vocabulaire. En outre, les résultats de la 1ère expérimentation ont démontré que la traduction a aidé les élèves à apprendre des termes lexicaux, notamment après la discussion en classe. L'analyse de la 2ème expérimentation a montré que la traduction peut servir l'apprentissage du vocabulaire à bien des égards comme le font les quatre autres compétences. Somme toute, les résultats de cette recherche confirment dans une certaine mesure l'hypothèse formulée.

ملخص

كثيرٌ من الباحثين رأَهم آنفا فصلُ الترجمة تماما من أقسام اللغات الأجنبية، ودعوا إلى إعادة النظر في وظيفتها. هذا، وعدّها بعض العلماء مهارة خامسة تصاحب القراءة والكتابة والاستماع والتحدث. وتؤيد هذه الدراسةُ إدراج الترجمة في سياق تعليم اللغات الأجنبية وتعلمها. وتنادي الدراسة بإعادة النظر في رفض الترجمة وتحاول تقديم مزيد من الدعم العملي للكتابات المستحسنة لها. لذلك، إن كانت الترجمة (عربية–إنجليزية–عربية) تعين على تيسير تعلم المفردات كما تفعل المهارات الأربعة الأخرى، فيمكن عندئذ القولُ بعدِّها مهارة خامسة. للتحقق من هذه الفرضية، جمعت هذه الدراسة بين الأساليب الكمية والنوعية. فوزعت أولا استبيانات على مدرسي مقياس الترجمة وعلى طلاب السنة الثالثة للدراسات اللغوية التطبيقية بقسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة قسنطينة 1 سبرًا لآرائهم فيما يتصل باستخدام الترجمة عموما وجدواها في تعلم المفردات خصوصا. وأدرجت بتجربتين. ارتكزت التجربة الأولى على التحليل الكمي للتحقق من مدى مساعدة الترجمة في تعلم المفردات المعجمية. أما التجربة الثانية —وهي دراسة أساليب التفكير الجهري—فاستعملت للوصول إلى فهم عميق لكيفية إعانة الترجمة على تيسير تعلم المفردات. وأظهرت نتائج الاستبيان أن السواد الأعظم من المعلمين والطلاب يعتقدون أن الترجمة جديرة بأن تدرج على أنها مهارة خامسة وبأن يُعترف بدورها في تيسير تعلم المفردات. وكشفت نتائج التجربة الأولى أن الترجمة ساعدت الطلاب في تعلم المفردات المعجمية، خصوصا بعد التحاور في القسم. وبيّنَ تحليل التجربة الثانية أن الترجمة قد تعين على تعلم المفردات بوجوه شتى كالمهارات الأربع الأخرى. وبالجملة، فقدعززت نتائج هذا البحث الفرضية المذكورة.