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***THE RELEVANCE OF TRANSLATION AS A PEDAGOGICAL AID IN
IMPROVING ALGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL THIRD YEAR STUDENTS'
WRITING SKILL: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY***

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctoratedegree in
Applied Linguistics**

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Dedication

To my parents whose encouragement, love and support have been particularly inspiring.

To my dear lovely husband, Habib, to whom I owe extreme gratitude for always believing in me and for giving me the best of his continued support and love that empowered me to accomplish this thesis.

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I would like to thank all my colleagues and my third year foreign languages students who gave up their time to participate in this study and contribute to this empirical work.

ABSTRACT

In the 20th century, several researchers argued that translation could not be considered a useful pedagogical tool in second and foreign language teaching. Over the last few decades, however, there has been ongoing research reassessing translation practice in language classroom. The aim of the current thesis is twofold: firstly, it attempts to explore secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the use of translation as a teaching aid in English language classrooms to improve not only students' writing skill but to foster English as a foreign language learning in general. Secondly, it sheds light on the importance of translation in identifying students' common writing errors and how it can be successfully employed to improve their foreign language writing performance. The data were collected through a questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers working in different cities in Algeria to gauge their attitudes towards the usefulness of translation in EFL classroom. To endow this research with a practical dimension, an empirical study has also been conducted with the active participation of third year foreign languages students in Belaouinet Mohamed secondary school in Sig, Mascara, who were provided with Arabic texts of different genres and types to be translated into English. The findings report the positive attitudes of teachers towards the usefulness of translation in EFL classroom. Translation activities that have been practised with the students showed a clear evidence of the effectiveness of translation in raising students' awareness of their common writing errors and in helping teachers determine the areas of writing deficiencies. A number of translation activities that secondary school teachers can judiciously and purposefully try out in their classrooms to overcome the difficulties in writing classes have been suggested. The present work is an attempt to address in a methodological fashion the topic of pedagogical translation in language teaching which continues to be the focal point of a heated debate among researchers.

Key words: Foreign language teaching, pedagogical translation, error analysis, writing skill

RÉSUMÉ

Nombreux étaient les chercheurs du vingtième siècle qui prétendaient que la traduction ne pouvait être conçue comme moyen pédagogique susceptible de contribuer à l'opération d'apprentissage des langues étrangères. Au fil du temps, moult recherches réévaluant la pratique traduisante ont vu le jour, démontrant l'efficacité de la traduction comme outil pédagogique. Le but de la présente thèse est double: d'une part, elle tente d'explorer les attitudes des enseignants du secondaire envers l'utilisation de la traduction comme outil pédagogique, et ce dans le but d'améliorer et la compétence des étudiants en écriture et de promouvoir l'apprentissage de la langue en général; d'autre part, elle fait la lumière sur l'importance de la traduction dans le repérage des erreurs d'écriture et comment elle peut être fructueusement utilisée pour l'améliorer. Les données ont été recueillies au moyen d'un questionnaire s'adressant aux enseignants du secondaire afin de jauger leurs attitudes à l'égard de la traduction. Une étude empirique impliquant des étudiants de troisième année (langues étrangères) du lycée Belaouinet à Sig, Mascara a également été menée. Ceux-ci furent les récipiends de textes arabes de différents genres pour être traduits en anglais. Les conclusions indiquent des attitudes positives quant à l'utilité de la traduction. Les exercices de traduction démontrent l'efficacité de la traduction pour sensibiliser les étudiants à leurs erreurs et aider les enseignants à déterminer leurs lacunes. L'auteur suggère des exercices de traduction visant des objectifs précis que ces enseignants peuvent tenter dans leurs cours pour que, d'un côté, leurs apprenants puissent surmonter les difficultés en écriture et, d'un autre côté, faciliter le processus d'enseignement de l'écriture en anglais. Le présent travail est une tentative d'aborder le sujet de la traduction pédagogique dans l'enseignement des langues de manière méthodologique, sujet qui continue d'être le point central d'un débat suscitant une profonde controverse parmi les chercheurs et spécialistes du domaine.

Mots clés: anglais comme langue étrangère, traduction pédagogique, analyse des erreurs, performance en écriture

ملخص البحث:

في القرن العشرين، ادعى عدد من الباحثين أن الترجمة لا يمكن أبدا أن تعتبر كأداة تعليمية مفيدة في تدريس اللغة الثانية و كذا الأجنبية. على مدى العقود القليلة الماضية، ومع ذلك، كان هناك بحث مستمر لإعادة تقييم ممارسة الترجمة في تعليم اللغة الأجنبية. الهدف من هذه الأطروحة ذو شقين : أولا، استكشاف مواقف الأساتذة اتجاه استخدام الترجمة كأداة مساعدة في التدريس في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية ليس فقط لتحسين مهارة الكتابة عند طلاب المدارس الثانوية ولكن لتعزيز تعلمهم للغة الأجنبية بصفة عامة؛ ثانيا، تسلط الأطروحة الضوء على أهمية الترجمة في تحديد أخطاء الكتابة الشائعة لدى الطلاب، وكيفية استخدامها بنجاح لتحسين أدائهم في الكتابة بالإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. وقد تم جمع البيانات من خلال استبيان موجه إلى أساتذة التعليم الثانوي الذين يعملون في مدن مختلفة في الجزائر لاستكشاف مواقفهم اتجاه الترجمة كوسيلة بيداغوجية تساعد في تدريس الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في الفصول الدراسية. و لإعطاء هذه الدراسة بعدا تطبيقيا، تم إجراء دراسة ميدانية بمشاركة نشطة من طلاب السنة الثالثة لغات أجنبية في ثانوية بلعوينات محمد - سيق، ولاية معسكر ، الذين قاموا بترجمة نصوص ذات أنماط مختلفة من اللغة العربية إلى الإنجليزية. أظهرت النتائج مواقف إيجابية من طرف الأساتذة اتجاه أهمية الترجمة في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية. كما أظهرت تمارين الترجمة التي مورست مع طلاب السنة الثالثة لغات أجنبية بوضوح فعالية الترجمة في رفع مستوى وعي الطلاب بأخطاء الكتابة الشائعة ومساعدة الأساتذة في تحديد المجالات التي ينبغي التركيز عليها لتفادي هذه النقائص. ، يقترح مؤلف هذا البحث عددا من أنشطة الترجمة التي يمكن لأساتذة التعليم الثانوي إستعمالها وفق أهداف محددة و بطريقة عقلانية للتغلب على الصعوبات التي يواجهها طلابهم أثناء الكتابة. هذا العمل هو محاولة لمعالجة موضوع الترجمة التعليمية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية التي لا تزال، كما كانت على مدى العقود القليلة الماضية موضوع نقاش جدلي بين الباحثين..

الكلمات الدالة: تعليم الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ، الترجمة التعليمية ، تحليل الأخطاء، مهارة الكتابة.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

EFL: English as Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

GTM: Grammar-Translation Method

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

NS: Native Speaker

ST: Source Text

TT: Target Text

X: Omission of Article

3FL: Third Year Foreign Languages Students

APPENDICES

A. Secondary school teachers' questionnaire

B. Ministerial decree advocating the use of translation in EFL classroom

C. Text 1

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Algeria, like many countries in the world, recognizes the necessity to teach English as a foreign language because of political, economic, communicative and educational reasons. Thus, English has been integrated in the Algerian educational system and introduced as a compulsory subject starting from the first year middle school level.

Algeria is characterized by a rich linguistic diversity that makes it one of the most prominent multilingual countries in Africa. Classical Arabic was adopted as the national and the official language of the country since the country's independence, an adoption stated in article 3 of the Algerian constitution, alongside Berber in its various forms (Kabyle, Chaouia, Tumzabt), the language and the dialect of many groups in North Africa and the west of the Nile river, which became an official language since 2002. (Journal officiel, 2002:11).

Algerian Arabic is the dialect that is spoken by the majority of Algerians in their everyday life. Besides, French language occupies an important position in Algeria as it is used by the Government, by the agencies revolving around it, and by the different media outlets. It is also used in education and even in the daily life of Algerians as part of the legacy that French colonization left in Algeria over a span of 130 years from 1832 to 1962. Starting from the new millennium, French began to lose its status as a prominent language in Algeria because of the incursion of English as a foreign language in the second year of the primary level where learners were given the choice to study either French or English. It did not come as a surprise to see that the majority of learners were assigned French as their parents, who provided guidance to their children, believed that teachers were not well-trained to teach English to young learners.

Over the last two decades, English language has gained ground and pushed French to the margin. The prominence and the rapid spread of English in different parts of the world is primarily due to globalization that necessitates the use of a common language (a lingua franca) for communication and interaction across borders in different domains of human activity such as economy, politics, education, and technology. Hence, Algeria could not remain cut off from the rest of the world by confining itself to French and had to adopt a linguistic paradigm shift by allowing for a more serious but gradual inclusion of English into Algerian schools. As to French, this language is taught as the first foreign language as of the third year primary level. It is a compulsory subject in which pupils are tested in their final exam in the fifth year of the primary level and even in their final exams of both the middle and the secondary level. However, Algerian learners are taught English as a second foreign language for four years in the middle school and three years in the secondary school. At the university level, students in different faculties such as psychology, sociology, medicine, economic sciences, law and English for specific purposes (ESP), are having English as an integral part of their syllabus, the design of which has always been the teacher's responsibility despite its daunting nature. Usually, teachers overcome the unjustifiable absence of ESP curricula in most university departments by conducting needs' analyses to address the increasing language demands of students seeking admission into specialty programmes of all kinds.

In so far as the objectives of teaching English in Algerian secondary schools are concerned, the aim of teaching English to secondary school students is to help them use the language for interaction and communication with people of other cultures in different parts of the world. Mastering English will enhance their cross-cultural awareness and help them become more accepting of others and more tolerant of their differences. The aims of teaching

English are to help our citizens integrate modernity through their active participation within the global community of English users, aims clearly conveyed in the third year secondary school English curriculum.

In addition to its importance in accessing science and technology, English is taught to help students acquire the linguistic and communicative language skills, promote critical thinking and broaden their knowledge which allow them to be active citizens who can better represent their country in the external world, and what better way of aspiring to this representation than mastering the skill of writing. The reality, however, offers a different landscape. Students encounter many difficulties in writing and translation when they choose to study English as a foreign language studies or translation studies at the university.

Secondary school students' weaknesses in English writing may be related to the inadequate teaching methods and the environment in which a writing task is done. Moreover, students, themselves, may justify their lack of motivation in writing classes by their weak qualification in English and, sometimes, by the teacher's lack of interest. In all likelihood, the influence of the mother tongue, on the other hand, and the students' inability to distinguish between English structure and that of their native language result in their producing an ill-structured composition. Translation, in this respect, may be a good aid if it is well-presented in EFL classroom to serve writing.

In the classroom reality, writing in Algerian secondary schools is given less importance than the speaking skill. As a matter of fact, this makes writing a supplementary activity to consolidate what has been covered in the teaching unit, especially the grammatical points to which the learners have been introduced. This insubstantiality of the practice of

writing in EFL classroom and the absence of a bridging mechanism between theory and practice result in students having poor basic writing skills. It is, therefore, not surprising to say that most of secondary school students are unable to write error-free sentences.

In the light of the above introductory remarks, it may be high time to shift the compass towards a potential relevance of translation in the EFL classroom for the latter has long been regarded as an ineffective teaching tool due to its misuse and overuse in the heydays of the grammar-translation method. It has been criticized for emphasizing writing at the expense of speaking and favouring accuracy rather than fluency. The failure to understand the purposes and the principles that should characterize any translation activity induced teachers and syllabus designers to advocate a monolingual foreign language teaching. However, in the last few decades, there has been increasing research on the re-evaluation of the integration of translation in English language teaching classroom. Though many studies report positive evidence on the usefulness of such a teaching tool in foreign language classroom, translation has no official place in Algerian secondary schools as a purposeful and a principled activity. This thesis attempts to explore the relevance of translation as a pedagogical aid to improve students' writing skill and, thus, bridge the gap between the literature supporting the use of translation in English language teaching and its practical ramifications on the ground. Based on secondary school teachers' positive perceptions and the findings drawn from the empirical study conducted by the author of the thesis, some effective guidelines and practical activities on how to successfully integrate translation in enhancing students' writing skill are suggested considering the up-to-date literature and the ongoing research in the field of translation and language teaching.

1. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current research is to study the potential relevance of translation as a useful tool in the teaching of English as a foreign language. More precisely, it aims at exploring secondary schools teachers' perceptions on translation as a crucial teaching tool in an EFL context. It further aims at investigating the usefulness of translation in improving secondary school students' writing skill and, ultimately, at exploring the relevance and the effectiveness of translation as a purposeful teaching activity. Students' poor performance in writing, to which a section is devoted in a subsequent chapter, highlights the need for conducting empirical studies in order to identify the difficulties that they face and how to solve them. The main objective of this study is not only to explore the role of translation in foreign language teaching FLT, but also to discuss what must be given to learners as teaching material. In other words, a number of techniques and activities will be suggested on the basis of the learners' needs. Part of the research, therefore, will deal with analyzing the errors made by learners and which, the author of this thesis trusts, will serve as a valuable tool to implement recommendations likely to help the students be aware of their common errors and how best they can avoid them. In a nutshell, the study's focal point is to provide ways of implementing translation in EFL classroom to reach the already mentioned goals.

2. Research Questions

Based on the objectives of the study mentioned earlier, this research will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are secondary school teachers' attitudes toward translation as a pedagogical aid in English classes in general and in writing in particular?

2. Can translation be introduced as a teaching activity that promotes the learners' proficiency in writing? In other words, how can translation contribute to effective teaching outcomes in writing?
3. Lastly, how can translation be successfully integrated in the EFL classroom to improve the secondary school students' writing skill?

3. Hypotheses

As a result of the interrelation between foreign language teaching and translation, the above research questions need to be explored through empirical studies. The following hypotheses are suggested as tentative answers in this respect.

1. Secondary school EFL teachers may have a positive attitude toward the use of translation in EFL classes.
2. Translation may be a relevant activity that improves third year secondary school students' writing skill through developing their cognitive skills as well as raising their awareness of the nature of their common errors, due mainly to their first language interference so that they may avoid them through practice.
3. Purposeful and judiciously suggested translation activities enable third year secondary school students to achieve good results in writing in English as a Foreign Language.

4. Significance of the Study

Based on the different aspects of translation and foreign language teaching, this study, it is hoped, will provide a comprehensible data so that our understanding of the role of translation in language pedagogy can be expanded. The relevance of the theoretical framework of translation to language learners should be dealt with in order to provide teachers and language practitioners with a broad understanding of the nature and the

implications of such issues so that they can avail themselves with the theoretical background likely to help them reach their pedagogical objectives while taking into account the learners' preferences and the teaching context. Additionally, this study will also shed light on how translation, if appropriately used, can be part of regular classroom activity. This will raise the teachers' awareness of the importance of this tool in successfully structuring the teaching of writing skill so that the learners' proficiency in using English as a foreign language can be built. More importantly, the result of the present study will be useful for students and teachers in order for them to have an idea about the usefulness of translation activities that promote the foreign language writing skill and, thus, minimize linguistic interference between the students' native language and English. Teachers may utilize the suggested guidelines to design appropriate teaching activities that motivate students to write better English. Finally, curriculum designers may be more informed about the benefits of introducing translation as a regular pedagogical tool that can be conducive to developing language skills in EFL classroom.

5. Research Methodology

In an attempt to answer the research questions and obtain appropriate results that serve the aim of this study, a questionnaire has been addressed to 65 secondary school EFL teachers to analyze their attitudes toward the use of translation in English classes. Besides, an empirical study has been carried out to investigate the usefulness of translation as a pedagogical means to achieve good results in writing for the secondary school learner in an EFL context. The participants are 30 third-year secondary school students enrolled in the Foreign Languages branch whose mother tongue is Arabic. They all belong to the Foreign Language stream at Belaouinet Mohamed High school in Sig, Mascara, are of mixed gender with an age range between 16 to 20 years old. For the practical part of the research, these

participants have been provided with some samples of different types of Arabic texts to be translated. The models or rather the translation strategies have not been determined to them. Interestingly, students have been informed that their translated texts will be under scrutiny. Samples have been collected and analyzed to identify their common errors in order to come up with a proposal for practical translation activities that aim at improving the learners' writing skill in the foreign language. Another aspect of the present study is to discuss the history of translation in English foreign language teaching. In this respect, the author of this thesis tries to show how translation was part and parcel of the Grammar-Translation Method, known as GTM, and how it later on fell into disrepute with the advent of communication-based approaches to language learning and teaching. Then, the author attempts to present arguments in favour of including this methodology in EFL teaching in the post-communicative paradigm.

Being a holistic activity, translation, by way of variety of exercises, helps learners pay attention to both the source and the target text and may raise their awareness of both form and meaning in context so that they may improve their writing competence. This is vital for detecting the learners' common errors and finding appropriate mechanisms to solve them. In this respect, practical suggestions on how to integrate translation in EFL classroom have been put forward. By introducing these guidelines, learners can overcome the challenges that hinder their progress to achieve a better writing proficiency. Learners' responses to the material to which they have been exposed (different types of texts to be translated) have also been presented.

6. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into six chapters in which the section 'Introduction' is a brief overview of the background, the problem and the objective of the current work. It also discusses the status of English in the Algerian secondary education, especially in third year classes and provides a summary of the main objectives of teaching English to secondary school students in Algeria. It also explains how the writing skill is taught under the principles of the Competency- based Approach (CBA). Chapter one is reserved to the theoretical framework on the notion of translation, its models and the roles it serves in people's daily life. A historical perspective of translation in the different teaching methodologies as well as the theoretical work supporting its use in EFL context have also been discussed in detail.

This chapter examines the different types of translation at the core of heated controversies in the history of translation studies. The first section of chapter two is devoted to writing in second and foreign language. It reviews the place of writing in second language acquisition theories and summarizes the research that has been done on second language writing. It presents the different approaches to teaching L2 writing, its models and importance in second and foreign language learning. Students' writing difficulties in EFL classroom have been briefly listed. The second section of this chapter is devoted to error analysis, its procedure and importance in the language teaching and learning process. The distinction between errors and mistakes, as demonstrated by a number of studies, is presented. This section also discusses the learners' types of errors and their sources of occurrence in writing. It concludes with reviewing the most significant criticism that error analysis has received in history. In chapter three, early perceptions and current views of translation in EFL classroom have been presented. The researchers' arguments favouring and disfavouring the use of translation in foreign language teaching along with the traditional reasons against using the learners' own-language as part of teaching a foreign language have been examined in depth.

This chapter ends with discussing text typology and its relevance to translation. Chapter four describes the research methodology used in this study. After introducing the aims of the study and the participants, this chapter explains how data are collected using teachers' questionnaire and texts for translation that have been selected on the basis of selected criteria. It briefly discusses the model of error analysis used in this study to identify and categorize the students' errors as well as the main characteristics of Arabic language according to Sofer and Raimes (2002). Chapter five deals with data analysis of both the questionnaire and the texts destined to third year foreign languages students. The current thesis ends with chapter six, which summarizes the general findings of the study and suggests a number of recommendations on how to use translation to improve students' writing performance in English.

CHAPTER ONE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF TRANSLATION

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on the different aspects of translation and its relation to language teaching. It sets off with the definition of translation and its models and then sheds light on the historical perspective of translation in the different teaching methodologies and laying special emphasis on the work that supports its use in EFL classroom. The roles of translation as a communicative, cognitive, cultural and intercultural experience are discussed. Besides, the chapter examines the various types of translation suggested by researchers.

1.1. Definitions of Translation

Much of the current research on translation is centered on what has come to be known as the nature of translation. Serious and extensive thinking about the definition of the term implies a complex journey through different disciplines. While some scholars define it according to its nature, others define it according to the functions it serves. Translation, in its broad sense, is the transfer of meaning from one language to another and comes from the Latin origin “translatum”, the equivalent of the English word “transfer”, which means “to carry across”. Proponents of the linguistic models of translation (Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), Newmark (1988), Mounin (1964), to cite but a few, consider translation as a process of linguistic formulation in which the translator reproduces a message conveyed in the source language text (SLT) for the target language (TL) readers and makes it accessible by paying close attention to all the grammatical and the lexical features of the source language text in finding equivalents in the target text.

Larson (1994:4685) states that " *Translation of a text in one language into a text in a second language would seem to be a linguistic process*". Along the same lines, Newmark (1988:5) claims that " *translation is the rendering of the meaning of a text into another language in the way the author intended the text*". Newmark is highly influenced by the theory of language that views translation as part of the field of applied linguistics. In this regard, he highlights the importance of two distinct factors. The first factor points to the fact that the translated text has a referential dimension in as much as it refers to some slice of reality or "truth", and the second factor is the difference that exists between two or more languages in reflecting this reality. That is to mean that an original text and its translation refer to the same reality because both of them encode the same mental and/or physical representation. Newmark (1999:152) further suggests another definition to the term saying that translating is " *to cause what was stated in one language to be stated in another, with the purpose of achieving the semantic and expressive equivalence of both statements*" (in Anderman and Rogers, 1999). This definition seems to be a narrow one as the author limits it to include only translation between two languages. In other words, Newmark excludes the other kinds of translation that occur within the same language and culture. He confines his definition to the notion of translation proper, with much emphasis on the idea of equivalence that is widely discussed in Zethsen (2004) and Snell-Hornby (1995).

Much criticism has been raised in this respect, for a number of scholars argue that translation is not always only an "interlingual process", but it is an operation that takes place even within the same language through paraphrasing, rewording, summarizing, etc. Schäffner (1999:98), in a reaction to Newmark's viewpoint, states that the meaning of the concept 'translation' implies not only interlingual translation, but puts forward a definition that goes beyond what was traditionally considered as translation proper.

In a different move, Bell (1991:xv) sees translation as “the *transformation of a text originally in one language into another equivalent text in a different language. The content of the message and the formal features and functional roles of the original text are retained*”. Bell’s definition relates translation closely to linguistics in the sense that it is one of its processes that involves re-creating the text from a formal and a functional point of view. In addition, Bell considers translation as the expression in another language of what has been expressed in another source language, preserving semantic and stylistic differences.

Catford (1965:40) also claims that translation is the replacement of a textual material in one language (SL) by an equivalent textual material in another language (TL). He adds that “*it is an operation performed on languages, a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another*” (ibid: 20). This idea, drawn from comparative linguistics, focuses on inter-lingual translation while it neglects other categories that concern the same language. This view is further elaborated by the Russian–American structuralist Roman Jakobson in his paper “On Linguistic Aspects of Translation”. Jakobson (1959:114) suggests three kinds of translation:

1. **Interlingual translation** or translation proper, that is the focal point of translation studies, occurs when we rephrase a text from the source language (SL) using another in the target language (TL).
2. **Intra-lingual translation**, or rewording as it is called, refers to the interpretation of verbal signs by other signs belonging to the source language. It is used mainly to explain or clarify what is written or said.
3. **Intersemiotic translation**, or transmutation, is the interpretation of verbal signs using non-verbal signs i.e. verbal signs/a text that is translated into a painting, a piece of music, a movie, etc.

Jakobson (1959) argues that translation can be considered as part of language transaction. The meaning of any linguistic sign, he explains, is its translation into some further alternative sign. Seeing that translation is inextricably related to communication, Hatim and Mason (1990:3) consider translation as “*a communicative process that takes place within a social context*”. This definition seems to be very broad as it doesn’t draw a clear line between translation and other communicative activities such as paraphrasing and gisting (see Colina 2015: 11). Translation theorists, overall, seem unable to provide a finite and satisfactory definition of translation, which led Toury (1995:32) to attempt a more precise explanation for the term. He hypothesizes that:

*“all utterances which are presented or regarded as such within the target culture, no matter what grounds under such observation, there is no pretense that the nature of translation is given, or fixed in any way. What is addressed even in the longest run is not even what translation is **in general** [his emphasis], but what it proves to be in **reality** [his emphasis], and hence what it may be expected to be under various specifiable conditions.”*

By specifiable conditions, Toury means some variables, such as time and culture, lead to translation to take on various meanings. He later suggests that for a text to be a translation, three conditions should be met:

1. **The source text postulate:** the existence of a source text in another culture or language
2. **The transfer postulate:** the translation is derived from the source text through a transfer process.
3. **The relationship postulate:** there is an inter-textual relationship between the source language text and the target language text.

As it has been briefly shown above, Toury's definition offers a different perspective in so far as it accords significant consideration to the cultural variables in which a translated text is produced as well as to the influence that the recipient culture may exercise on the translated text.

1.2. Models of Translation

Theorists of translation have come up with a broad array of translation models that serve as a framework for the understanding of the translation process. Following are some of the most seminal models that have marked the trajectory of translation.

1.2.1. Nida's Dynamic Equivalence

Nida's (1969) translation model consists of three stages of cognitive processes. It includes analysis, transfer and reconstructing. Relying on grammar, the learner decodes the source text, transfers it through the encoding of the message into the target text, and finally restructures and organizes the meaning accordingly into the target text. For Nida, this approach is a more efficient method for the mastery of translation techniques. The first stage in his model is analysis. Here, surface structures of the source language are analyzed in terms of their formal relationships. Then, transfer is the second stage that takes place at the level of the translator's brain as it is a mental process. Restructuring is the final stage where the transferred elements are restructured to form the final message in the target language.

Nida (1969), widely influenced by Chomsky's Generative Grammar, considers that the latter provides the translator with a frame for analyzing and describing the generation of the different expressions in the target language. Chomsky (1965) claims that the deep structure determines the meaning of the sentence as it contains all the information related to the

semantic meaning. What is commonly known is that the deep structure explains all that is implicit and ambiguous in the surface structure, but the latter is the source of the former. Ultimately, Nida's model denotes that the speaker encodes his message by putting meaning into linguistic forms and the hearer decodes it by extracting the meaning out of these forms.

1.2.2. The Interpretative Model

The Interpretative Model is what the French theorists translate as "la théorie interprétative" or "la théorie du sens". The originators of this theory claim that translation is a work on message. Developed by Danica Seleskovitch and Marianne Lederer (1989), the method gained the favourable interest of scholars and translation practitioners. Here, the whole process of translation is conveyed through what is known as Seleskovitch's triangle. A close observation of this triangle, one can understand how the process of translation functions when approaching a given passage. Three distinct stages are clearly identified in this process. In the initial stage, the translator understands the text in its source language then deverbalses what has been expressed. Re-expressing the message in the target language is the final stage in this process. In this context, the translator gives more weight to meaning over the linguistic aspects underpinning the text. Moreover, the translator produces an equivalent message in order to obtain the closest possible meaning as well as create, put crudely, an effect similar to that of the source text on the original audience. In a nutshell, two processes are at work in the interpretative model: understanding and reformulating.

1.2.3. Skopos Theory

Skopos theory is a functional method that has emerged in the 70's of the last century, with Katharina Reiss, Hans Vermeer and Christiane Nord being the pioneers representing this new trend in translation studies. They believe that translation is a purposeful action whereby

every act of translation is determined by a purpose without which it becomes valueless. Exposing the Skopos functional model, Vermeer (1989:20) states that “*to translate is to interpret / speak and write in a way that enables the text to function in the situation in which it is used and with the people who want to use it and precisely in the way they want it to function*”. (cited in Nord, 2001)

Translation here is seen as an intentional, interpersonal, partly verbal and intercultural interaction. Nord (2007:125) introduced the key variable of “loyalty” in Skopos theory; “*It is the translators’ commitment both to client and the text’s producers they work with and the culture in which they work*”. The idea of loyalty adds the intercultural aspect to Skopos theory in the sense that the translator is expected to act as a mediator between the source and the target culture, and he is accorded the responsibility to choose solutions according to the purpose of his intention and his intended receptors. In summary, Skopos theory is an integrated approach that foregrounds cultural and purpose-based variables. It is about “*communicating meaning rather than reproducing form*” (Strauss 2004: xx). In other words, it accords little or no attention to the linguistic structures. As it has been mentioned earlier, these linguistic models of translation, while they do not form the core of this research work, they do inform on the multi-faceted nature of translation.

It appears that translation scholars and theorists, each in his/ her own way, have, for methodological purposes, attempted to define translation and the translational operation in terms of varying factors that take into account notions such as fidelity, natural equivalence, loyalty, cultural variances and what not. This, however, does not mean that we have to draw finite conclusions, if ever, for the entire discipline of translation.

1.3. A Historical Perspective of Translation in Teaching Methodologies

In modern language teaching methodologies, the use of translation has oftentimes been relegated to a secondary position. Back in time, in the nineteenth century in particular, during the heydays of the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), translation enjoyed tremendous success on account of its adoption as a means to learn classical languages (C. Macau: 2003). This method was used in the late 19th century with an emphasis on teaching grammar through translation. The aim was to understand and learn the grammatical usage of the target language better by providing meaning from the mother tongue. GTM, therefore, was characterized by an emphasis on grammar rules and vocabulary with listening and speaking activities pushed to the margins of the teaching/ learning process. This approach imparts a false impression that fixed translation (e.g. word for word or phrase for phrase) is possible (A. Maley: 1989).

In a world where there has been an unavoidable need for communication, the Grammar-Translation Method showed significant limitations and led the way to the Direct Method to come to light as a viable counterpart to its principles and procedures by the end of the nineteenth century. The advocates of the new method criticized the overuse of the mother tongue in teaching the second/ foreign language as well as the efficiency of the study of formal grammar (Bowen, Madsen and Hilferly (1985:20 in Machida, 2008: 141). This method gave more importance to the language input (the information that the student receives in the classroom) rather than its output (the outcome of what the student has learned) and, more importantly, it disfavoured the use of the mother tongue in teaching the foreign language. A more detailed exposition of this method will be provided in the next chapter in relation to translation pedagogy.

The mid-twentieth century saw the emergence of yet another language teaching method. The Audio-lingual Method, first introduced in the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), developed during the Second World War when the USA became aware of the urgent need for people to learn foreign languages as part of its military operations. Its key principle was to prioritize the spoken rather than the written language. Because this method drew its principles heavily from behaviorism, Chomsky (1959), in his cognitive approach to language, strongly criticized the Audio-Lingual method for its claim that a child could not learn a language only if he is naturally exposed to the language input. According to Chomsky, a child must be born with a special language acquisition device (LAD) that helps him learn any foreign code.

After the Second World War, researchers in the field of language teaching came up with the Notional-Functional Syllabus, an approach that takes its basis also from Chomsky's theories. The proponents of this method state that learners should be exposed to a meaningful input in L2 that has to be related to real-life situations along with providing them with a natural setting (such as that of learning L1). Translation and explicitness of linguistic forms were totally disregarded in this respect. Swain (1985), Hinkel and Fotos (2002) are among others who have continuously criticized this way of learning another linguistic code and laid great emphasis on the communicative nature of language. Learners learn the foreign language after being provided with functional equations between the first and the second language usage.

Recently, researchers and language practitioners have highlighted the need for integrating explicit instruction into the communicative approach. Brown (1994), Larsen – Freeman (1991), have discussed the importance of teaching grammar along with communicative tasks. Doughty and Williams (1998:11) stated that “*the focus on the linguistic*

form should be accompanied with the context in which the language learners can be involved in the communicative activity” .Their view forms the basic and the pivotal point in this approach as it has a considerable importance in raising learners’ awareness of the cultural and the sociolinguistic context of language as argued by Neimeir (2004).

Constructivism is yet a fairly recent development in language teaching and learning. It assumes that learners construct knowledge for themselves incorporating their schemata as well as the contextual elements they perceive, which renders teaching a personal process as Duff (2004) argues. Here, the language input is provided through authentic materials, such as reading texts and videos from native speakers highlighting an authentic use of the language, and the learners’ use of their own experience outside the classroom is required in problem-solving. The learning community consists of the teacher and the peers who work together to promote effective learning. Therefore, a number of cognitive processes should be used in the learning activity whereby text comprehension involves surface code, text base and a situated model (See Kintsch, 1998).This is considered a process of making meaning of the text. Kintsch suggests that ideas as units of meaning are propositions of a text whose relations are directly derived from the text (text base) and from the learners’ knowledge and previous experience retrieved from their long-term memory. They are temporarily stored in the working memory and then undergo a constraint – satisfaction or integration process (Kintsch, 1988: 163). In this case, L1 use is seen as potentially beneficial rather than harmful.

1.4. Theoretical Work Supporting the Use of Translation in EFL Context

Researchers in the field of applied linguistics claim that there is a relationship between translation and foreign language teaching (House, 2009; Colina, 2015). Though there has been an increasing interest in these two fields over the last decades, controversies on whether

it can be valid and effective to include translation in the teaching- learning activity were and are still the researchers' focal point in the current research on the subject.

The emergence of translation as a practice dates back to the birth of languages. Humans, due to their cultural differences and social backgrounds, need to communicate with each other, and, at all times, translation was the only method used to facilitate this process of communication. Translation, whether as part of the field of translation studies or as a vocational activity, has been a frequent object of many empirical studies. However, research in this area has been confined to issues related to translation theories and translators' training programmes with a small amount of research work being devoted to translation as an aid or a pedagogical tool that facilitates the teaching –learning process in EFL classrooms.

Faced with different perspectives, and sometimes burdened with assumptions, teachers and practitioners specializing in the field of education have widely varied viewpoints concerning the integration of translation in the foreign language classroom. Both opponents and proponents of translation as a viable tool in EFL classrooms have valid reasons behind their positions. It seems now that the general attitude toward translation has begun to change significantly. Many studies have shown that translation can legitimately be used as a pedagogical means in EFL context (Widdowson, 1978:18; Harmer, 1991:62; Ellis, 1992:46; Brown, 1994:93; Ur 1996:40, in Mehrabi Boshrabadi, 2014). However, these theorists have not expanded their research to include the use of translation as an activity for pedagogical purposes. In other words, few studies have been devoted to translation as an aid to the field of teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

Clearly, translation as a methodology has always been present. In light of the different teaching methods mentioned above, there were times when translation enjoyed great popularity as well as times when it was faced with ignorance and even prohibition. As House (2011) claims, the research and the literature on translation deal mainly with translation theories, translator's training programmes and translator's professional career. Only a small number of works contain relevant methodological guidance on how to include translation in pedagogical practice. Atkinson (1987) notes that "*The lack of positive literature available on translation use in the classroom and the negative coverage it receives by "the experts "and the trainers has certainly made teachers wary of experimenting with it or doing research on it"*".

Advocates of using translation in EFL classroom such as, to name but a few, (Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2013; Duff, 1989; House, 2011; Edge, 1986; Kerr, 2014), recently triggered a debate of re-examining its role in the teaching field and contributed in the research work on translation and its role in EFL. Translation, some researchers claim, can enhance L2 learning. In this regard, Bell (2009:39) argues that "*translation activities which incorporate the use of L1 in the L2 classroom may form a communicative approach if implemented properly*". Moreover, Vermes (2010:91) claims that "*translation is not only structure manipulation; it is primarily a form of communication.*" Moreover, Machida (2011:743) states that "*the use of that activity in EFL classroom provides plentiful opportunities for the learners to pay attention to the relationships between form and meaning*". Along the same lines, translation, claims Duff (1989), develops the essential qualities of the language learning: accuracy (using appropriate words), flexibility (being flexible when searching for these words) and clarity (the product of this process has to convey the message). This activity helps learners to think comparatively and be aware of the differences in particular languages. In addition, Vygotsky (1978) argues that translation activities allow the learner to recognize

that the human mind is mediated. To put it differently, learners develop skills such as noticing and observing details of the linguistic system of both the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) as well as grasp how the two languages express reality and the world through translation. Overall, researchers have found out that translation can be considered a pedagogical aid in the teaching of writing in EFL classroom. It should be noted that writing is a complex activity which involves cognitive analysis and linguistic synthesis which makes it more demanding on the part of learners to write in the foreign language. Although research studies indicate that interference from the first language in the process of writing in English is the source of the majority of difficulties encountered by these learners, translation theorists have proposed different models or strategies used to achieve an appropriate linguistic transfer from the ST to the TT keeping the same effect of the original text. Thus, an effective writing process will be accomplished. A later part of this research will examine in more detail the role that translation plays in improving EFL learners writing skill.

1.5. The Roles of Translation

Translation has been considered as a complex, interlinguistic, intralinguistic, intersemiotic activity with linguistic, cultural, economic and ideological underpinnings. Moreover, it is a mental process that results in complex problem-solving and decision-making activities. The exercises involved in the translation process such as simplification and/ or summarizing, paraphrasing in both L1 and L2 may help promote the four skills in both the native as well as the target language. In this respect, Schäffner (2002:1) argues that:

“ Such conceptual developments are evidence of the increasing awareness of the complexity of translation as both a cognitive and a social activity, which cannot be fully explained by reference to concepts derived from linguistics only...Translation Studies by its very nature can be characterized as interdisciplinary”. (In Leonardi, 2011:22)

Researchers identify three major roles for translation tasks which are communicative, in the sense that it is considered as a vehicle employed to achieve communicative purposes. It is also cognitive in that it involves a series of mental processes such as text comprehension, interpretation, restructuring and rewording. In addition to these two roles, translation is believed to be a cultural experience as it is an activity through which cultural values are transmitted from one generation to another. Moreover, translation can foster and improve mutual understanding between different cultural groups .

1.5.1. Translation as a Communicative Activity

Translation is a communicative activity in the sense that it allows for the construction of meaning from and into L1. Zuhrevandi (1992) notes that translation tends to achieve communicative needs and purposes through stretches of written or oral discourse and this function requires what Hymes (1972) termed “communicative competence”.(see 1.5.1.1 below). Translation exercises, as a number of translation theorists advanced, help fulfil the goal of second / foreign language learning, that of transmitting the meaning of texts and ideas linguistically and pragmatically from and into the native language with an emphasis on the linguistic, semantic and pragmatic aspects. The translator or the language learner in this case is primarily a message conveyor. Schäffner (1995, in Priente- Beltrán (2013) believes that both translation and interpreting are considered communicative processes which generate texts.

Though translation, being primarily an act of communication, knows no boundaries of languages, cultures and societies, meaning, however, may not be achieved when words are translated literally. According to Canale and Swain (1980, 1983), communicative competence, which the language learner should possess to be able to use the language he learnt for communicative purposes, embodies four sub-competences: grammatical,

sociolinguistic, discursive and strategic competence. A detailed explanation of communicative competence will be presented later in this section .

Beeby (1996) notes that learners' translation competence is composed of a grammatical component (knowledge of grammatical rules of the native and the target language), a sociolinguistic component (situational context of utterances in the languages involved in the translation process), a discourse component (cohesion and coherence of the text in both languages) and finally, a transfer component (the sets of strategies that help compensate and enhance communicative skills to avoid breakdowns in communication) . From the above explanation, it can be said that L2 communicative competence and translation competence are interrelated and complement each other in the sense that the ability to translate a given discourse correctly depends on whether or not one is communicatively competent in the target language. Furthermore, translation, as it is discussed in the previous sections, is an aid to second or foreign language learning.

This interrelation results in what is termed "communicative translation" which Newmark (1988) views as "more or less equivalent to a cultural adaptation of the source text, so that the readers in the target culture find it easier to read". Thus, communicative translation aims at conveying the exact contextual meaning to the target readers through comprehensible content and correct language. Semantic translation, as Newmark (1981) puts it, is rendering the exact contextual meaning of the original version by considering the semantic and the syntactic structures in the source text .This distinction made by Newmark highlights the importance of the communicative aspect of translation that language learners should take into account to produce coherent stretches of language. Clearly, both language learning and translation share the same communicative objective as it is stated by Carbonell (1999:49)

“What is said about language can be said about translation (.....). Translation is precisely a situation of language in use in which there are at least the following stages: understand the original message, evaluate the communicative situation in the source context, anticipate the communicative situation of the target context and elaborate a new message in the target language ”. In Priente- Beltrán (2013)

Translation, both in its process and product, functions on texts, which makes it an act of communication par excellence. In fact, the translator is considered as the active link in the communication chain.

Researchers attested that translation is very useful in foreign language classroom in the sense that it improves learners’ skills and develops their communicative competence, which is the target that the advocates of communicative method in language teaching attempt to achieve by using authentic materials and the different teaching facilities .Before going further in discussing the communicative aspect of translation, the various definitions of the term “communicative competence “and its sub-competences are provided below.

The structuralist view sees that language has a grammatical system that governs the combination of different linguistic items such as the word order, passive, active rules and so on. Although grammar has a major role to play in the interpretation of discourse, be it spoken or written, it is not sufficient for the language to be used for communicative purposes. Consequently, language in use highlights the need for what is conceptualised as the functional aspect of language. Furthermore, the communicative function of the linguistic items depends on specific social and contextual factors under which they are uttered .

Many factors should be taken into consideration when speaking about communicative competence. First, the learner should possess a high degree of linguistic competence in the sense that he can use the language spontaneously and appropriately. Additionally, he has to develop strategies and techniques in order to employ the language for communication with different social groups in various circumstances. The question that comes to mind is: what is meant by communicative competence? And what are its components?

1.5.1.1. Communicative Competence

Much of the recent research work looks at how languages are learnt and taught. Researchers have tried to explain the nature of language learning to show that linguistic, psychological and sociocultural factors play a considerable role in this process. Since communication is the vehicle of cross-cultural awareness, approaches are developed to encourage learners to acquire what is known as communicative competence. This concept was first introduced by Hymes (1972) who defined it as the knowledge of both the rules of grammar and the appropriate language use in a given context. This conceptualization acts as a reaction against the structuralist view of language as a system in isolation, a claim widely known in the work of Noam Chomsky (1965). Hymes notes that language is not a sum of grammatical operations that govern the order and the placement of items only, but it is also the functions that each item serves in discourse. Many researchers have dealt with the notion of communicative competence being the aim and the subject matter of communicative language teaching.

1.5.1.2. Canale's and Swain's Model of Communicative Competence

Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Bachman (1990) and Van Ek (1986) are among those who attempted to define the construct of communicative competence. Canale's

and Swain's model (1980) is composed of three sub-competences: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. First, to be grammatically competent means to have enough knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology, i.e. the knowledge of the language code. Canale and Swain (1980:30) describe sociolinguistic competence to be the sets of sociocultural rules of use. It includes discourse and sociocultural regulations. The former is concerned with knowledge of achieving coherence and cohesion in both spoken and written texts. The latter mainly focuses on the extent of appropriateness of attitude, register and style conveyed through linguistic forms within a particular sociocultural context. The last component is strategic competence. It has to do with the knowledge of communication strategies that help the speaker overcome breakdowns in communication occurring as a result of the insufficient competence he or she demonstrates. This model can clearly show the interconnection between all its components.

1.5.1.3. Van Ek's Model of Communicative Competence

Another model of communicative competence was put forward by Van Ek (1986), who claimed that communicative competence was an umbrella term that consisted of six sub-competences. To begin with, linguistic competence is the ability to produce and understand meaningful utterances taking into account the rules of language, whereas sociolinguistic competence involves relating the linguistic items to their contextual meaning. In other words, it is the speaker's awareness of the social norms that determine the use of the linguistic items. Discourse competence is considered by Van Ek as the core of communicative competence. It includes not only knowledge of /and the ability to use linguistic forms to achieve coherence and cohesion in both oral and written texts, but also the ability to use conversational strategies for turn-taking, interrupting, feedback cues and so on, that help construct and interpret a given text. Strategic competence is mainly related to those techniques that are used to solve

problems in communication, such as reformulation, classification and paraphrasing. These are strategies used for overcoming the breakdowns occurring in conversations. Van EK (ibid) stressed the need for sociocultural competence. He argued that context plays a considerable role in conveying meaning. It is the frame in which the speaker places his message. Knowing how to use language appropriately in its sociocultural context means that the speaker is socio-culturally competent. The last element in EK's model is the social competence. It should be noted that the interaction people engage in is governed by rules and requires the ability to communicate with different social groups in different situations .

1.5.1.4. The Significance of the Concept Communicative Competence According to Widdowson

Many linguists have spoken about the significance of the concept “communicative competence” for language teaching. Widdowson (1989) claims that Hymes originally proposed the concept of communicative competence in opposition to the concept of grammatical competence. Following the implications of his proposal, one can arrive at recognizing the need to shift grammar from its prominence and to allow for the rightful claims of lexis. It should be noted that the study and teaching of language require more than teaching grammar. Rules of use are meaningless if they cannot be effectively acted upon and if conditions of their use are not understood. Widdowson asserts that in teaching language, knowledge of grammar is insufficient as learners need to be exposed to other aspects such as rules of use that should be respected and acted upon. So, communicative competence includes not only the knowledge of linguistic forms, but also the knowledge of the different skills, strategies and sociocultural considerations.

Both models consider the Native Speaker (NS) as a target. So, the learner has to be a native-like in the sense that he tries to get the knowledge and skills or even the life view of

the native speaker. The degree of perfection depends on authenticity and the learner's strategies employed to learn the foreign language. As it was discussed before, gaining communicative competence is the goal of every language learner. Achieving this competence requires a balance between accuracy and fluency. For this reason, language teaching methods shifted from the focus on grammar-based curricula to a more communication-oriented learning that fosters students' communicative abilities and enables them to use the language correctly and appropriately .

1.5.1.5. Translation Competence

Translation competence, on the other hand, is made up of different competences, one of which is communicative competence of the mother tongue as well as that of the target language. Translation competence, being the main target of translation training, has been studied by many schools from a variety of perspectives .

The first school of thought, based on Harries' (1977) early work, considers translation competence as a summation of linguistic competences. According to him, competence is what bilingual children develop as they carry out "natural translation". With the emergence of the second school of thought, a new concept of translation competence was developed. Shreve (1997) argues that language competence is "mapping abilities" which translators can use in their translation tasks. That is to mean that translation competence is, using Schaffner's and Adab's words (2000), "a cover term and summative concept" which involves many kinds of competences including communicative competence that is the focal point of communicative language teaching .

Research has not yet yielded a generally accepted definition of the term “translation competence” because it is viewed from different perspectives and involves various disciplines such as sociolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, and psycholinguistics. Another school of thought considers “translation competence” a combination of different skills, namely linguistic, cultural, professional and technological skills. Neubert (1994 in Pym, 2003), one of the advocates of this school’s views, suggests that “translation competence” consists of three components which are: language competence, subject (real world) competence and transfer competence. Along other lines, other theorists, particularly Melis and Albir (2001), view the notion of translation competence at an even deeper level. They see this competence as “the underlying system of knowledge, aptitudes and skills necessary to be able to translate”. For them, the following six sub-components form translation competence: communicative competence in both languages, extra-linguistic competence (composed of the general world knowledge and knowledge of the theory of translation), transfer competence (refers to the ability to understand the source text and transfer it into the target language), instrumental-professional competence (knowledge and skills related to translation as a profession), psycho-physiological competence (the ability to make use of all kinds of psychomotor, cognitive and attitudinal resources and skills in reading and writing such as logical reasoning, memory, and creativity), strategic competence (the conscious and subconscious, verbal and non-verbal individual procedures used to solve problems encountered during translation process (Melis and Albir (2001)).

The fourth school of thought views translation as the skill pertaining to what they conceptualize as supercompetence. Wilss (1982: 58) states that “*translation competence calls for an interlingual supercompetence [...] based on a comprehensive knowledge of the respective SL and TL, including the text-pragmatic dimension, and consists of the ability to*

integrate the two monolingual competences on a higher level". It should be pointed out that some of the components of translation competence are similar to those of bilinguals, whereas others are not. Wilss adds that supercompetence reflects the ability to communicatively transfer messages between two languages. Furthermore, he considers the supercompetence as intertextual and not interlinguistic. Thus, fluency in a foreign language can never be a measure of an effective translator .

Kiraly (1995:26) explains the relationship of language competence to translation competence when he states that *"language teaching can clarify the nature of L1 and L2 competences that a professional translator must possess and use when translating"*. Communicative competence, being part of second or foreign language competence, is one of the main components of translation competence that enables the translator to transfer the text communicatively from the source language into the target language. Additionally, after providing the different definitions of both competences, it is quite plain that they consist, to some extent, of the same small competences .

Foreign language learning necessitates the integration of translation into foreign language curriculum as both disciplines are complementary and have in common the same goal, that of achieving communicative purposes through the meaningful interaction with the input and the receptors. Therefore, learners would improve both communicative and translation competence if both disciplines are well integrated in the foreign language curriculum .

1.6. Translation as a Cognitive Process

Researchers attempted to pay more attention to the translation process in the light of cognitive linguistics. During this process, the translator has to re-experience the cognition, the mental and the physical experience of the source language and render it into the target language while considering the target language readers' cognition and experience .

Fauconnier claims that *“mental spaces are small conceptual packets constructed as we think and talk for purposes of local understanding and action”* (in Fauconnier & Turner, 1996:113). Mental spaces refer to the meaning that is immediately constructed when speaking or thinking. These spaces are interrelated and actively change while the communication goes on. This forms the core of Fauconnier's “blending theory”, which is a general cognitive operation that refers to human's thinking, particularly in the creative process of thinking and actions .

As a complicated cognitive process, translation includes three major steps: unpacking, projection, and blending. First, the translator should unpack the source text into several conceptual events and analyse the cognitive schema according to his understanding. It should be noted that the main purpose of translation is to analyse the meaning and the background of the source text so that the writer's style could be studied. Other source language-related points such as cultural background and the mental cognitive schema are necessary in the process of translation. Based on the translator's previous knowledge, social and cultural background, the pre-understanding which is a cognitive process is constructed. According to Fauconnier (1996), the source text is referred to as Input 1 space and the translator's mental space is referred to as Input 2 .

Generic space is described as “the abstract frame mapping” or some common, “usually more abstract structure and organization shared by the two inputs and defines the core cross-space mapping between them so that the cross-space mapping and projecting are realized smoothly” (Hong Ling, 2015:83). In this step, the translator should cognitively connect the two inputs together to recreate the author’s thought and even ideology and emotion. Consequently, the generic space can be formed by the translator’s thought and constructed meaning along with that of the writer .The last step deals with reconstructing the target text. After passing through different cognitive processes, the translator has to form the final structure of the target text through integrating the schematic structures of the source text with the target language structure, then reconstructing and reporting information faithfully .

Research shows that it is difficult for learners, especially at the early stages of language learning, not to process information introduced to them in L2 through cognitive processes in L1. Al-Kufaishi (2004:46) clearly summarises the cognitive aspect of translation in these terms:

“Translation is a cognitive activity in the sense that it engages the translator’s cognitive structures in an attempt to comprehend, deconstruct and reconstruct meaning. Schemata are involved in each of the four translation processes. In the deconstruction process, the translator utilizes his SL schemata especially his knowledge of the processes of discourse analysis, how communication takes place, how communicative functions are performed and how cultural values are encoded. In the conversion process, he appeals to his schemata of both SL and TL in an attempt to establish correspondence at the three levels of discourse analysis, communicative context and cultural reconstruction. In both reconstructing and editing processes, he exploits his schemata to properly encode the transferred meaning”

In his study of the traditional message model that people use when communicating, Akmajian (1995) claims that the model of linguistic communication consists of the speaker (the transmitter of the message), the hearer (the receiver of the message), and the vocal-auditory path (channel). Thus, a successful communication takes place when the hearer decodes exactly what the speaker encodes. Danks (1997: xi) argues that:

“Written or oral input is subjected to processes of comprehension, interpretation, transposition into the other language, and expression, none of which, save expression, are directly observable in the empirical sense”.

Clearly, communication is the meaningful exchange of information about a person's needs, perceptions, desires, knowledge and thoughts between two or more people whether in writing or orally. It requires a sender, a recipient and a message. People can be involved in a face-to-face, oral communication or across far distances in time and space. More complicated cognitive processes are involved for a message to be translated into the target language if a comparison is made between translation model as discussed and the communication model.

The three-stage model of cognitive processes that Eugene Nida (1969) proposed embodies analysis, transfer and restructuring. Put simply, this model relies heavily on grammar whereby the translator decodes the source text, and, then, through a process of encoding, transfers the message into the target text. The last stage has the translator restructure and organize the meaning into the target text taking into account the original message. Nida terms the first stage, that of analysis, back-transformation. Here, the translator proceeds with analyzing the surface structures of the source language on the basis of their formal relationships. Nida, then, purports that the second stage, being mental, as it takes place in the translator's brain, is that of transfer. In the end, the transferred elements are restructured

to shape the translated message in the target text. Nida's (1969) model has been, to a great extent, influenced by Chomsky's Generative Grammar. Nida believes that the latter is considered as the framework for the translator to analyse and describe the production of the various possible expressions in the target language. It is claimed that the deep structure determines the meaning of the sentence as it contains all the information about the semantic meaning. However, this idea has been rejected by many theorists. What is agreed upon is that the deep structure clarifies all that is implicit and ambiguous in the surface structure, but the latter remains the source of the former. In a nutshell, Nida's point of view explains that the speaker encodes his message by putting meaning into linguistic forms, and the hearer decodes it by extracting the meaning out of these forms. The role of context is clearly neglected in this theory.

What ensues from the discussion above is that it can be clearly shown that translation is a cognitive activity that involves the co-relation of different cognitive processes in the rendering of the source language text meaning faithfully into the target language .

1.7. Translation as a Cultural and Intercultural Experience

Translation is not just a mere linguistic activity that involves the replacement of the linguistic elements from the source language by others in the target language, it is rather a multidimensional activity that goes beyond the simple transfer of the original text message to the target readers as it is noted by Schäffner (1995:3) "*translation is not a matter of words only, but it is a matter of making intelligible a whole culture.*"

Translation seems the only way that transfers cultures through languages and unite them to create one shared cultural network. It acts as a bridge that relates all kinds of languages

taking into consideration their linguistic and cultural features. Culture is passed on by translation from one generation to another and from one part of the world to another, and it only stands to reason that learning a new language requires learning its culture. Translation, it should be pointed out, goes beyond the transfer of a given text from one language to another. It is also the adaptation of the source language culture and its values .

Lotman (cited in Hatim, 1990:105) attempts to define culture from a semiotic perspective as a system of meaningful signs that functions under a number of conditions. The importance of semiotics lies in its usefulness in filling cultural gaps appropriately so that communicative purposes can be achieved. Lotman notes that:

“Culture is the functional correlation of different sign systems. These different sign systems operate both within and between cultures, and semiotics deals with the processing and exchange of information both within and across cultural boundaries. Translation can now be envisaged as the process, which transforms one semiotic entity into another, under certain equivalence, conditions to do with semiotic codes, pragmatic action and general communicative requirements”(ibid: 105)

Nida (1969), as cited in Schäffner (1995:1), asserts that language is an inevitable part of culture. It is the bridge through which culture is transmitted, a fact that makes language and culture intimately bound even in language teaching. Language learners focus on the cultural features in the text and think of the appropriate strategies to transfer them correctly into the target culture. It is obvious that learners cannot interpret the target text if they fail in understanding its cultural features and the background knowledge context of the source and the target language. Thus, this paves the way for false stereotypes to be created as Schäffner (1995:2) affirmed, *“Translation can create stereotypes for foreign countries that reflect*

domestic, cultural and political values and they can be instrumental in shaping domestic attitudes towards foreign languages”.

The intercultural dimension to translation practice was the subject matter of many researchers who tried to view translation as an intercultural communicative activity. Carbonell (1999:49) states that *“Translation is a process of intercultural communication grounded on language. Therefore, approximation to translation will have to begin necessarily with a reflection about it as a linguistic activity (...)Through language we live and give life to culture, through translation we make two cultures and two worlds communicate”* (translated by Beatriz Pariente-Beltrán, 2013). Carbonell’s quote calls for answering the following question: What is meant by intercultural communication ?

The field of intercultural communication has widely been explored and studied by many researchers. There have been many studies conducted on the relationship between language learning and cross-cultural communication that is not a new phenomenon for it exists right from the beginning when people find it inevitable to communicate with others who do not speak their language and belong to different cultures.

The world has become a global village, a smaller planet in which communication is unavoidable. Besides, teachers and educators state that the primary aim of foreign language learning is to enable learners to communicate with people of different cultural backgrounds. Intercultural communication involves more than cross-cultural awareness. It needs the ability to identify and challenge one’s cultural assumptions and one’s values and beliefs. However, it requires the ability to see the world through another’s eyes or to recognize that others may perceive the world through different cultural views.

Intercultural communication reveals communicating and establishing relationship with people from different cultures regardless of their beliefs, norms and ethnic groups. Through interaction and cooperation, walls and barriers can be removed. Consequently, conflict and misunderstanding can be avoided .

Cross-cultural communication has many benefits on human relationships. When one communicates with foreigners, he can learn more about them, their way of life, their history and so forth, so that they start reaching a better mutual understanding. It should be stated that through intercultural communication, cultural diversity will be accepted. Hence, learners can achieve their goal of mediation between the native and the target culture. In the light of this, the aim of foreign language learning is not to speak the language in a native-like fashion, but to use it appropriately and intelligibly to communicate with people from different cultures .

According to Brandes (2001), translation is viewed as a kind of language mediation in which the content of the source text is transmitted into another language by creating a communicatively similar text in the target language. In the same line, Toury (1986) asserts that translation is an activity which involves at least two languages, thus, two cultures are involved. The cultural aspect of translation cannot be denied. It is of a considerable importance for understanding the text, an understanding that is conditioned by the information (background knowledge facts) expressed in the linguistic elements of the source text. Schweitzer (1988) highlights the basic role of translation as a means of communication between different social and ethnic groups. He considers translation as an “undirectional and two-phase process of interlingual and intercultural communication” that involves transferring a source text into the target text following the appropriate translational procedure .

From an intercultural communicative perspective, the translator plays a crucial role in transmitting the source language message across cultures, thereby crossing the linguistic and cross-cultural boundaries of the target language. He/she is not concerned only with translating words as Schäffner (1995) claims, but also with interpreting and transmitting cultural facts of the native language speakers. He is, thus, a mediator between the source and the target culture who can report people's traditions, norms and rules of behaviour in general. The translator should be skilled enough to be able to put himself in the shoes of the target language reader to know which of the many possible and expressive interpretations he must choose to see the world in the receiver's mind. Only if this could be reached by the translator, then a successful translation would be achieved .

If the translator is viewed as an intercultural mediator, he should be armed with a developed intercultural communicative competence, translational skills and strategies that allow him to generate an adequate translation. The question that needs to be answered in this respect is: what is meant by intercultural communicative competence ?

1.7.1. Intercultural Communicative Competence

The limitations of communicative competence and its emphasis on the native speaker as a model stress the need for adding the cultural element by introducing a new competence. To expand the notion of communicative competence, researchers suggest intercultural communicative competence by focusing on the cultural aspect in communication. It is believed that knowing about the target culture and using the appropriate conversational strategies help learners achieve cross-cultural communication successfully .

Introduced by Byram (1997) and his colleagues (Byram & Zarate, 1997; Byram & Fleming, 1998), intercultural communicative competence considers learners not as aspiring native speakers, but as intercultural communicators. Byram (1997:61) defines it as *“the knowledge, skills and abilities to participate in activities where the target culture is the primary communicative code and in situations where it is the common code for those with different preferred language”*.

Within the confines of competence, it should be noted that there is a difference between intercultural competence (IC) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC). The former is considered as a subfield of communicative competence (Deardoff, 2004). It is defined as the capacity to change one’s knowledge, behaviours, and attitudes and so on to be flexible and open to other cultures. Whereas being interculturally communicative competent implies that the learner manages to solve the different conflicts and complicated situations through language.

By adding the term “communication”, Chen and Starosta (1998:241) define intercultural communicative competence as *“the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviours that negotiate each other’s cultural identity or identities in a culturally diverse environment”*. This definition suggests that an intercultural speaker is the one who is able to understand and gain an inside view of the other person’s culture and identity by using different skills and strategies .

1.7.2. Byram’s Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence

Byram’s model (1997) consists of five components, “savoirs”, which make up intercultural communicative competence. First, the term “savoirs” refers to knowledge, skills,

and involves savoir comprendre, apprendre and faire. Additionally, attitudes and perceptions of other's cultures are also included. The last element, dispositions and orientations needed while acting, is referred to as savoir s'engager. It depends on the extent to which the learner is aware, open and flexible to other cultures. It is not surprising to say that these elements are interrelated as they are essentially meant to achieve successful cross-cultural communication. Consequently, each savoir should be discussed in isolation. Byram highlights the need for acquiring and developing the following savoirs :

- "Savoir-être" (attitudes, values) is related to readiness and openness and is almost concerned with attitudes towards the native and the target culture, curiosity and willingness to interact and deal with people from other cultures. This involves the ability to accept and adapt to new different cultural situations.

- Savoirs refer to the knowledge of self and social group's identities and rules governing their interactions.

- Savoir-comprendre is related to skills of interpreting, comparing and relating. In other words, it is the capacity to interpret and compare events from the target culture and relate them to the native culture.

- Savoir apprendre/faire is related to skills of discovering and interaction, i.e. it is the ability to acquire new knowledge that concerns cultural beliefs and practices of others through interactions.

- Savoir s'engager (critical cultural awareness) refers to the ability to evaluate critically on the basis of explicit criteria, one's own and other's perceptions as it is noted by (Byram 1995:57-66).

All these sub-definitions lead Bennett (2004:149) to conclude that "*Intercultural communicative competence is the ability to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts.*"

1.7.3. The Intercultural Speaker

Byram et al (2002:9) argue that “*Learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a simple identity*”. Based on Byram’s definition, learners need to gain insight into the target language culture, and then reflect on their own. As far as culture learning is concerned, learners should be encouraged to observe similarities and differences between cultures as well as to analyze them from the others’ point of view. Only at this stage, that the notion of intercultural speaker can be discussed.

Due to the ever-increasing prominence of intercultural communication as a field of study, the concept of intercultural speaker has been defined as someone who has the ability to interact with others, to mediate between different cultures and to accept other views of the world. According to Juliane House (2007:19), “*The intercultural speaker is a person who has managed to settle for the in-betweeness, who works and can perform in both his or her native culture and in other one acquired at some later date*”.

Many researchers such as Rogers (1999) consider the ability to see the world from different points of view to be fundamental to the process of becoming intercultural. This speaker is qualified to function intelligently in a situation where two or more languages with their cultures interplay. More precisely, if the learner can manage communication and interaction, then he can be referred to as cross-cultural mediator. Byram and Zarate (1997:11) state that “*An intercultural speaker is someone who crosses frontiers, and who is, to some extent, a specialist in the transmission of cultural property and symbolic values*”.

Clearly, considering translation as an example of intercultural communication, Juliane House (2009) views translators to be interculturally active and socially and politically committed communicators due to the responsibilities of exposing sociocultural and political differences they are given. She thinks that translation, if seen from a cultural perspective, functions as an intercultural intervention that aims at eliminating an unfair attitude or social, political injustices. In this case, translators may go beyond the text at hand and deviate from the source text or provide their personal commentaries according to their perceptions as intercultural mediators .

1.8. Types of Translation

Scholars in translation studies as well as translators have suggested a variety of terms to refer to the different types of translation the taxonomy of which is determined by the source text, the target text, the notion of equivalence, and the translator's visibility (Venuti, 1995). It should be pointed out that the number of terms that will be discussed in this section does not refer to conflicting theoretical views, it rather reflects slightly different perspectives of scholars whose aim is to dig into the nature of translation as a viable activity that is seen as an act of communication and mediation between cultures. The term communication here, does not involve only participants of two culturally different backgrounds, but it may also refer to the discussion and the rephrasing of one's own beliefs and thoughts. That is to say, the act of translating is always there. It is a natural process that necessitates establishing connections and correlations between cognition and language to find out an equivalent or a substitute for a given text. Replacing an expression or a unit of meaning may follow different processes. Thus, theoreticians suggest numerous kinds of translation activity as it is illustrated below.

According to Juliane House (2009), there are three types of translations so far as the replacement process is concerned.

- 1.8.1. Interlingual Translation** is rendering the source language text as a target text in another language. There seems to be little doubt that the main reference of the word translation is the interlingual process which involves replacing the form of the source language (SL) with another form in the target language (TL)
- 1.8.2. Intralingual Translation** involves rewording a text in one variety of the language into another. A text in a dialect, for instance, may be reworked into another.
- 1.8.3. Intersemiotic Translation** means replacing a text by a non-linguistic means of expression/communication. A poem can be translated into a picture or a play, a novel into a film.

While the three categories above remain broad classifications that encapsulate all kinds of translations imaginable, other theorists have gone so far as to come up with a much wider, yet more specific, spectrum.

- 1.8.4. Communicative Translation** focuses on the function of translation. It tries to render the same contextual meaning to that of the original and make the content accessible and intelligible to the readership. It is used for vocative and informative texts. Newmark (1981:39) states that, “*Communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structure of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original*” .It attempts to make the target text as similar as possible to the source text functionally and pragmatically.

1.8.5. Semantic Translation is generally used for expressive texts, this kind of translation focuses on the form of the source text. Its aim is meant for translating the exact contextual meaning of the source text focusing on the semantic and the syntactic structures of the target language text. It results in forming sentences that are grammatically as well as semantically correct, but they can't be used in the target language as they seem entirely different from the source text.

1.8.6. Dynamic Translation is similar to Newmark's notion of communicative translation in so far as it favours the communicative purpose in the act of translating, except that Nida's reliance on grammar gives his approach a marked exception.

1.8.7. Formal Translation involves preserving the form of the source text as it is argued by Newmark in his semantic translation.

1.8.8. Covert Translation is a one of the translation aspects introduced by House (2009). For a translation to be considered covert, the target text has to function in the target culture without referring to it as a translation.

1.8.9. Overt Translation means referring to the target text as a translation. So, readers know that the text does not belong to the source language, but it is translated to serve a communicative purpose.

1.8.10. Other Types of Translation

There are other translation-related activities that fall outside this range such as gist translation, paraphrase, and adaptation.

- a. **Gist Translation**, called also summary translation, is a process, be it interlingual or intralingual, used to express the main idea of the source text in the target language. Unnecessary details may be excluded from the translation.

- b. Sight Translation** has to do with translating a source language written text out orally into the target language. An interpreter, for instance, may be asked to sight-translate a president's speech to an audience.
- c. Paraphrase** is an alternative way used to preserve the content of the source language text as much as possible.
- d. Adaptation** is an activity in which the source text is modified through omissions or additions to serve a particular communicative purpose. It is mainly used for plays whereby the source culture is converted to the target culture and the text is rewritten.
- e. Word for Word Translation** is a process that involves translating the source language text out of context by preserving the meaning and the word order of the original. Even cultural words are translated literally. In other words, the translation activity in this case concerns individual words regardless of some variables such as word order and the context elements that surround the source language text. So, the translator gives more importance to the source text unlike the target text that should be a perfectly precise copy of the original.
- f. Literal Translation** is considered by some theorists such as Newmark (1988) as a pre-translation process in which lexical items are translated literally without taking into account their situational context whereas grammatical structures are replaced by their nearest, using Newmark's term, equivalents in the target language.
- g. Faithful Translation** aims at achieving a high degree of grammatical and lexical equivalence by trying to transfer the exact contextual meaning of the source text to create the same effect that a source text has on the original audience in the target culture.

h. Free Translation is a paraphrase that emphasizes the content and not the form of the original text. It is used to translate the message not the letter or the form of the text (See Newmark, 1988:45). In this translation method, the translator does not translate words in isolation nor does he or she strictly take context into consideration in the process of translation. He rather goes beyond both the type of text and the context to find the message behind the text. It is unbounded in the sense that equivalences shift up and down the rank scale. What matters is the message not the words themselves.

Conclusion

This chapter has summarized the literature related to translation, mainly its various definitions suggested by researchers each from his own perspective. It discusses different kinds of theoretical models that have been designed for the purpose of dealing with the multiple facets of the translation process such as Nida's Dynamic Equivalence, Seleskovitch's Interpretative model and Skopos theory. Historical overviews of translation in teaching methodologies, as well as the theoretical work supporting its integration in ELT, have been summarized. Part of the first chapter has been reserved to the different roles of translation and its types.

CHAPTER TWO: WRITING IN SECOND / FOREIGN LANGUAGE

SECTION ONE: WRITING SKILL

Introduction

Chapter two reviews the literature related to writing in second and foreign language. After introducing the various definitions of the term, the first section of this chapter summarizes the research conducted on second language writing considering its place in second language acquisition theories. A review of the approaches to teaching L2 writing, as well as its different models, is presented. In addition, the importance of the writing skill in ESL/ EFL has been highlighted. The first section concludes with a summary of the difficulties that EFL students encounter in the process of writing. The second section is devoted to error analysis, its procedure and its importance in detecting students' errors and in highlighting the areas that should be given prominence in the EFL classroom. A distinction is made between the terms 'error' and 'mistake'. Moreover, the classification of writing errors and their different sources are emphasized by the author of this thesis. The second section of chapter two ends with a summary of the criticism that a number of researchers directed at error analysis.

2.1.1. Definition of Writing

The notion of writing goes back to five thousand years ago. Humans used to communicate through realistic images, which was a conventional and a generally understandable form for a long span of time. This is what is known as primitive semasiography, using Gelb's (1952) conceptualization. Then, humans realized the complexity of such a tool for communication to take place. The development of civilizations brought changes to the way people transmit their ideas and thoughts. The urgent need for developing this means of communication was due to the shift from a primitive form of life to a more

developed life that requires an improved way to express oneself. Therefore, it appears accompanied writing and the various stages it went through accompanied and reflected the changes in human civilization .

Many researchers in the field of language teaching studied the concept of writing and attempted to define it according to their perspectives and purposes. Arapoff (1967:33) defines writing as *“a purposeful organization and selection of thoughts, facts, opinions, and ideas”*. It is a skill that requires the writer’ physical and mental effort as it is argued by Westwood (2004).

Broadly speaking, writing is described as a means used by the writer to transmit his ideas and thoughts and receive new ones. Sampson (1985) argues that writing is a system of human inter-communication through conventional visible marks .Rivers (1968) sees that writing is the act of putting what has been said to conventional graphic. In the same line, Vahid Dastjerdi Hayati (2011) defines writing as an act of communication and a purposeful means of addressing an audience. While Piovisan (2007) views writing as a continuing process of discovering the most effective language for communicating one’s thoughts and feelings, for Gelb (1952), writing, however, does not reflect exactly what is spoken. Such equivalence cannot be possible for a simple reason that one speech unit may be expressed by more than one linguistic sign. One can utter a cluster of words that the hearer may find ambiguous. Gelb (ibid.) terms “visual morphemes” as the sets of words that can be meaningful only if they are expressed through the written form such as the following: It was said / it was sad. I need two cheques / I need to check .

Writing is described as the most challenging language skill that is of considerable importance in second language teaching. It is not only drafting words but expressing ideas and perceptions. To write affectively, one should master the other language skills and develop writing skills. Students who fail to acquire the writing skills will not be able to communicate their ideas effectively. They may attempt to translate them or rather think in their mother tongue and write in the foreign language. Consequently, many transfer errors can be committed. As Williams (2007) attests, writing is a multidimensional communicative process where the writer has to generate ideas, analyze and make a synthesis of information to be transmitted by making good choices through the selection of appropriate vocabulary and grammatical structures. Coherence, cohesion and spelling should be taken into consideration in the act of writing.

Writing does not require only morphological, lexical, syntactic and idiomatic knowledge, as it is highlighted by Silva and Matsuda (2002), but other factors should be included in the writing process such as cohesion and coherence. For writing to be effective, two criteria should be met: clear purpose, relevant and well-organized facts (See Arapoff, 1967). The learner has to determine the purpose of writing, choose from the vast repertoire of information and facts the ones most relevant and adequate that serve the purpose in mind. The organization of these ideas is the last step whereby the learner focuses on coherence and cohesion to put his piece of writing in a meaningful and persuasive mould.

There is not enough literature on teaching writing as a skill in the classroom. The urgent need to develop the students' writing performance led theorists and researchers in the field of language teaching to conduct studies on this issue. The published textbooks that are concerned with teaching learners how to write efficiently and appropriately are not generally

convincing in terms of content. Put differently, there seems to be an unbridged gap between theory and practice when it comes to teach writing .It is worth noting that for many teachers, teaching writing is confined only to the teaching of grammar, reading comprehension and other related language activities. Though they are of a considerable importance, these areas, I believe, will not be conducive to teaching proper writing if they continue to be approached in the manner they are used in ELT classes today.

Writing as a language skill goes beyond the simple drafting of one's ideas and facts. It is a methodological activity that requires high cognitive skills that allow the learner to set his aim and make the appropriate selection that serves it. The ideas presented should be organized in a way that enables the reader to feel the writer's cognitive structure adapted while writing .

2.1.2. The Place of Writing in Second Language Acquisition Theories

In the field of second language acquisition, many researchers, namely Swain (1985, 1993), Swain & Lapkin (1995), have dealt with a considerable number of issues related to the output in SLA process. Swain (1985) has conducted a study whose subjects, English-speaking French immersion students, have been exposed to comprehensible input in the target language for seven years. The study has confirmed that students could not reach fluency in the use of grammar because they were not given the chance to do so. Swain used the expression “the lack of being pushed” to highlight the teachers' contribution, to some extent, to the students' failure to attain proficiency in grammatical performance .

Swain 's (1985) conclusion was a reaction to Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis, which claims that the only sufficient condition for second language acquisition is the exposure to comprehensible input. Swain argues that negotiating meaning is not simply

getting the message across as the latter can take place even if the grammatical structures used are not adequate. One can use grammatically incorrect sentences and can be still understood . By saying “being pushed”, Swain refers to the comprehensible output hypothesis that is the equivalent of Krashen’s comprehensible input. Learners can have the opportunity to practise the target language through the process of being pushed toward conveying the message .

Many researchers such as Holliday, Pica, Lewis and Morgenthaler (1989:63) assert that *“learners are active participants in the acquisition production as they test hypotheses about the target language, experiment with new structures and forms, and expand and exploit their interlanguage resources in creative ways.”*

According to Swain (1985), comprehensible output has three roles to play in the acquisition of second language. First, opportunities for meaningfully using the target language in the appropriate context can be provided, hypotheses about the target language are tested and shift from emphasizing the semantic analysis of language to the syntactic analysis .The idea of output has been widely criticized by behaviorists, innatists and interactionists. First, behaviorists believe that language learning takes place through repetition, imitation and reinforcement in the form of a stimulus- response process. Writing, according to some of the advocates of behaviorism, is a natural sequence of language that learners use to repeat and memorize language structures and grammatical patterns .

According to Chomskian theory of language, language learning is controlled by one part of the brain which all human beings are born with, named Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Chomsky claims that this innate ability enables learners to be competent users of the target language regardless of their learning environment. Clearly, the innatist-oriented

theories focus on the natural language as a source of the comprehensible input. They totally neglect the role of output in acquiring the second language thinking that it is the input that is the means of acquiring a language, not the output. Consequently, writing is considered as a natural result of language acquisition .

Interactionists have another view on second language acquisition that focuses on the role of communicative give-and-take of conversations in negotiating meaning, and by so doing, communicative purposes can be achieved. Interactionists think that that conversation is a means of providing the linguistic input, output and interaction .They do not give importance to reading and writing as a source for these three important conditions necessary to acquire a language. The interactionist perspective in second language acquisition lays more emphasis on speaking at the expense of writing. Many studies confirm the importance of writing in second language acquisition (Ellis, 1985; Harklau, 2002).

2.1.3. Research on Second Language Writing

With the rapid development of the field of second language acquisition over the last two decades, writing gained ground after being a neglected skill in second language theories. Matsuda & Silva (2005) state that writing is nowadays one of the most interesting fields of inquiry in second language as well as composition studies. Researchers have been interested in studying writing from both theoretical and practical perspectives. They moved from focusing on writing as a product in the seventies to writing as a process in the eighties. Researchers attempted to tackle different issues related to this area such as the difference between academic and non –academic writing uses and the way language and writing differ across cultures.

Research conducted to study both first and second language writing processes has demonstrated that though they are different, these processes share a number of characteristics. Silva (1993) argues that there is a difference between the composing process in the first language and that of the second language. Matsumoto (1995) notes that second language (L2) writing strategies are similar to first language (L1) writing strategies as writers transfer their writing strategies from their first to their second language on condition that they are grammatically proficient in second language (see Berman, 1994). In the same way, Cummins (1989) asserts that when the writer develops proficiency in the target language, he will be able to perform and produce more effective pieces of writing in his second language .

Being able to write effectively has never been a naturally acquired skill but a learnt or a transmitted skill in formal settings. Writing requires composing, which refers to one's ability to tell or retell information as narratives or description. The writer may transform the data into texts in the form of expository or argumentative pieces of writing. Furthermore, writing skills that involve many activities must be practised and developed through experience.

Recent research in the field of second language writing has confirmed that writing is a complicated and a more challenging task that involves different aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, syntax, proficiency in oral communication and, more importantly, the mastery of what Kaplan (1966) termed "the logical system". By this expression, Kaplan refers to the way through which people process information and make the best use of rhetorical devices to transmit their ideas in oral and written forms .

Montano-Harmon (1991) studied the discourse patterns of Mexican Spanish and its effects on writing in English. She claimed that students connected sentences by using the preposition “and” and “because” which made their paragraphs incoherent. In addition, they made many repetitions in an attempt to explain ideas. The researcher concluded that students’ style was not developed and the absence of the appropriate cohesive devices made their passages lacked logical connections .

2.1.4. Approaches to Teaching L2 Writing

Several researchers, namely (Raimes, 1983; Reid, 1993; Silva, 1990; Hyland, 2003) have introduced different approaches to teaching writing in second language context. These approaches have emphasized the main points in writing which are: the form, the writer, content and the reader .

The first approach, the product-oriented approach, which Hyland labelled as “text-oriented approach”, views the text as a product. A good piece of writing, according to the advocates of this approach, should primarily respect formal accuracy and absolute correctness of grammar of the second language. According to Hyland (2003), the product-oriented approach to writing involves four stages. First, the teacher should deal with language and focus on correcting the students’ grammatical errors when teaching writing. In other words, this approach encourages the learner to develop a useful, productive vocabulary and syntax and to make the best use of cohesive devices (Pincas, 1982). Writing was seen as a language practice in the form of drills and repetition that embodies four stages: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing .

The product-approach to writing, Mingli (2012) claims, helps the student learn how to organize his/her text. He adds that it is more beneficial for learners who have been taught English as a foreign language. In this teacher-centered approach, much importance is given to activities such as imitation, manipulation, substitution, transformation, expansion and completion of a provided model . Mingli' approach has received much criticism as it does not go beyond the surface level features of writing. Besides, Zamel (1982) notes that the teachers do not know what kind of problems the learners encounter and how they can overcome them given that this approach provides no idea about the processes of writing .

By the 1970's, there has been a shift from the traditional view of writing as a product to the view of writing as a process. This new writing paradigm had emerged as a reaction to the previous views that fail to foster creative thinking and the kind of effective writing that second learners attempted to achieve. In the process approach, writing is seen as "*a non-linear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning*" (Zamel, 1983:165). Advocates of this approach emphasized the aspects of planning and drafting with less attention paid to linguistic knowledge. Badger and White (2000) claim that in this approach, it is not necessary for the teacher to provide input or stimulus as his role is that of a facilitator in the learners' writing. Seow (2002) highlights the importance of teaching students systematically problem-solving skills that need to be involved in the writing process and help them achieve their goals at each of the stages of writing, such as planning, drafting, revising, editing and publishing .

Diaz (1985) was one of the first theorists who conducted field studies on the benefits of the process-oriented approach to writing for college ESL students. After observing her students in the process-oriented classroom, Diaz concluded that this approach is beneficial for

learners in the sense that it emphasizes student-centered learning and makes it possible for the learners, who are developing as writers, to use a variety of process strategies and techniques appropriately. In the same vein, Adipattaranun (1992), while studying the variables in the writing process of college ESL students, asserts that his nine college ESL students developed their writing skills after following the process approach to writing .

Other researchers namely Ora's (1995), Jouhari (1996), Tyson (1997, 1998, 1999, 2000 in Alhosani, & 2008) followed the same line of thought as Adipattaranun and Diaz in the field of process writing. Ora's (1995) conducted a practical study whose participants were thirty three students of freshman English class at a Philippines university to investigate the effect of the process-oriented approach to writing. The students were divided into two groups (a) and (b). Group (a) was exposed to the traditional approach to writing whereas group (b) was taught through a process- oriented approach. Ora's found out that the process approach taught to group (b) was more beneficial to the learners' writing than the traditional approach taught to group (a) .Jouhari (1996) also carried out a study to diagnose the effect of the process writing approach on Saudi college freshman students. He concluded that students looked at this approach from a positive angle as their skills were improved, especially in terms of generating new ideas, drafting, editing and revising.

Along the same line, an action research over four years was conducted by Tyson (1997-2000). The subjects were Korean college students in a writing class. The findings indicated that students were more motivated and confident towards writing. Besides, students were able to write long and better pieces of writing compared to their previous compositions because of the process writing techniques they used in the class. Furthermore, Coffin et al, (2003) summarize the benefits of process writing for students and teachers which are greater

quantity of writing performance, higher students' motivation and efficient use of grading time .

Another approach to teaching writing that shared some similarities with product-oriented approach to writing and that emerged as a reaction to process writing approach was the genre-based approach. Swales (1990: 58) claims that a genre is “*a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes*”. Ahn (2012) views that the genre-based approach has been introduced in response to the shortcomings of the process approach in which students were responsible for finding text structures by themselves through the process of experimentation and exploration. The genre-based approach sees writing from a linguistic perspective and so does the product approach. However, Badger and White (2000) note that the social and cultural context play a major role in the variation of writing according to this approach.

Genre theorists believe that language is a system of making meaning or as Halliday (1978) describes it, a social semiotic system. They confirm that language should be studied at the text level with much attention paid to the social and cultural context in which it is produced. There are three stages in the genre-based approach to writing. After a model of a given genre is introduced and discussed by the teacher, students are engaged in tasks in which they choose relevant forms. The production of a text is the final stage that Dudley-Evans (1997) has identified. Widodo (2006) notes that learners who are taught through the genre-based approach to writing, should determine the purpose of their writing, the audience and organization .

The genre-based approach to writing is beneficial for learners as it enhances students' motivation and willingness to learn English. Furthermore, it fosters a sense of responsibility and collaboration among learners and encourages teacher-supported learning (see Hyland, 2007).

Instruction-oriented writing approach, supported by a number of studies, came to light to work on several matters in writing. It emphasizes the importance of studying and analyzing the organization of writing. Sengupta (2000) carried out a study about the potential usefulness of giving instruction in revision strategies to secondary school students who wrote in English as a second language. He concluded that teaching these strategies explicitly in the classroom had a positive effect on the quality of the students' final product. Connor and Farmer (1990) believe that in order to have concise, coherent and a more focused text, the second language students should be taught the concept of topical structure analysis to be used as a revision strategy for the texts they produce. Furthermore, Cresswell (2000) confirms that teaching of the organization of writing and considering its process raise students' awareness, help them control their writing and improve their ability to consider the content of their writing. Tsang and Wong (2000) also conducted a study about the effect of teaching grammar explicitly on students' writing. They asserted that students were highly motivated to write and able to use syntax adequately.

This approach stresses the importance of peer revision on second language writing. Villamil and de Guerrero (1998) found that peer revision had a considerable effect on the quality of the students' final product. Similarly, Berg (1999) confirmed, after teaching her students on how to come up with an effective peer response to a writing composition, that

training students on peer response influenced positively the students' quality of their writing performance as well as their revision type choice .

Though there has been an increasing interest in writing, there is still a lack of literature on the models of learning how to write in second language. Researchers attest that instruction in writing has a positive effect on the students' final writing performance. It should be pointed out that the ability to write effectively does not only require receiving teachers' instructions and peer revision, but it also depends on the students' level of proficiency and their willingness to write .

2.1.5. Models of Teaching Writing

There has an increasing interest in how to teach second language writing over the last few decades. Researchers attempted to create useful models for teaching writing as they believe that an effective teaching of the writing process requires applying a good model. Learners should be provided with a framework that enables them to understand both the learning and the instruction of writing. They also should know the different cognitive processes involved as well as the goal of the writing process .

Writing, it should be noted, is a complex process of putting the knowledge of the subject matter in an organized and a well-structured framework which facilitates its presentation. For Murray (1980), writing consists of three processes: rehearsing, drafting and revising. Other studies show that writing is a language process that requires planning, translating and finally reviewing the written production. Murray suggests that in her effective model of writing, the writer should bridge his previous knowledge to the sets of idea he generated from his readings and transfer them in a written format .

Flower and Hayes' (1981) model stresses the cognitive processes the writer, while composing, uses such as planning, text generation and revision. First, the writer has to decide what to include in his piece of writing and how to say it. Then, he moves to turning the generated ideas into a coherent text. Finally, the writer has to improve his text by revising and correcting errors if there are any. Flower and Hayes (1981) add that mature writing is considered as a problem-solving activity that involves some operations to reach its target. Their model explains the interaction of some components such as the three writing processes, task environment, the writer's long-term memory and the writer's motivation .

This model has been as a starting point but it has been seriously criticized by researchers such as North (1987) who claims that this model is extremely vague as it does not provide sufficient understanding for uncontrolled experimentation. Thus, many attempts namely, Börner's, 1987; Grabe & Kaplan's, 1996; Kroll's, 1990; Silva's, 1993; Zimmermann's, 2000) have been made to propose additional components to Hayes and Flower's model. In addition, Cooper and Holzman (1989) assert that this model does not take into account the different activities in which the writer is involved in the process of writing . Börner (1987) has elaborated Hayes and Flower's model by suggesting some additional aspects such as the second language proficiency, the second language teaching goals, the learner's experience in both his first language and second language, and the language problems second language students encounter when translating from their own language. In the same vein, Zimmermann (2000) highlights the significance of the translating factor and views that both planning and reviewing are less important for second language writers than this aspect .

Breiter and Scardamalia (1987) took into consideration the factors that are responsible for the differences between the skilled and the less-skilled writer. They argued that the former uses what is called the knowledge-transforming model, which is a problem-solving activity that aims at achieving the goal of the composition, whereas the latter uses the knowledge-telling model, which involves generating ideas from the memory and translating them to a piece of writing .

Despite the ongoing research on the field of second language writing, there is still no complete model that covers all the aspects of writing, takes into account second language proficiency and contextual variables, and explains the unclear issues that surround teaching and learning of second language writing .

2.1.6. The Importance of Writing

Much research has been carried out to investigate the importance of writing in the language learning process. Writing is not just a mere process that occurs in the author's mind, but it is an act that is affected by complex social factors (see Atkinson, 2003; Sperling & Freedman, 2001) .

The famous American historian and orientalist, James H. Breasted, argued once that *“The invention of writing and of a convenient system of records on paper has had a greater influence in uplifting the human race than any other intellectual achievement in the career of man”* (In I.J. Gelb, 1952: 221). .According to Breasted and many others, namely Kant, Mirabeau and Renan (See *ibid*), the invention of writing is the beginning of the civilization. Furthermore, writing is a sign of development in the different fields in the human life and no civilization can function without writing .

Gelb (1952:222) noted that:

“The importance of writing can easily be realized if one tries to imagine our world without writing. Where would we be without books, newspapers, and letters? What would happen to our means of communication if we suddenly lost the ability to write and to our knowledge if we had no way of reading about the achievements of the past? Writing is so important in our daily life that I should be willing to say that our civilization could exist more easily without money, metals, radios, steam engines, or electricity than without writing”.

Writing, as an important language skill, has three major functions. First, like speech, writing is considered as a means of communication that goes beyond the limitations of time and space (see Morphy, 2012). Then, Boughey (1996) suggests that it gives permanence to the following speech. The third function has to do with writing’s application in art. Smith (1994) argues that writing reflects human creativity and dominates many fields as varied as business, education, religion, law, politics entertainment and art (see Smith, 1982), a fact that has made it a communicative and a learning skill .

Writing is a means learners use to promote their language proficiency (Boughey, 1996; Homstad & Thorson, 1996). Once more, students should learn how to write effective compositions in order to improve their performance in school as well as gain an important skill that will serve them in today’s competitive job market as it is noted by Boughey (1996). Good essay writing can also be the basic requirement of many job opportunities and careers, Miller (2001) suggests, such as authoring non-fiction books, getting into print journalism, rendering judicial opinions and persuasive advertising business text.

It is necessary to know that there are three inseparable and interrelated aspects involved in the teaching of writing. First, writing is described as the channel of a foreign language that requires a developed linguistic competence as well as the use of the other language skills, listening, speaking and reading in this respect. Writing is also one of the foreign language learning goals, which involves many operations such as note-taking, summarizing, narrating, and reporting. Ideas are connected by different cohesive devices while taking into consideration organization as well as continuity that are the essentials of a good piece of writing .

2.1.7. Students' Writing Difficulties in the EFL Classroom

Writing is considered a written discourse that is made of orthographic symbols of the alphabets considering coherence and organization of the final product. Finacchiaro (1967) states that composition consists of several paragraphs around one theme that are logically or chronologically organized or show cause and effect. Each paragraph in the written piece has one central idea and some supporting sentences that provide more clarification of the subject matter. The transition from one idea to another requires the use of some cohesive devices. Writing, therefore, is a complex and challenging language skill that is used as a means to communicate ideas, emotions and thoughts, and based on the collaboration of both cognitive and physical factors .

To investigate the problems related to writing, many studies have been carried out (Dong, 1998; You, 2003; Msunjila, 2005; Trang & Hoa, 2008; Alkhasawneh, 2010; Farooq, Uzair, & Vahid, 2012; Yu, 2012). Dong (1998), in his study of writing difficulties of graduate students, finds out that non-native students lack the sufficient knowledge about the audience

and genre of the composition. He highlights that these two important aspects, along with the social context of writing, should be taught in the very first stages of teaching writing .

You (2003) relates students' problems in writing to the teaching methods followed in the classrooms, which emphasize grammatical correctness and test-taking skills instead of teaching learners how to generate and organize their thoughts. Msunjila (2005) summarizes students' writing difficulties as grammatical errors, inexplicitness of fuzziness, spelling problems, punctuation problems, and poor organization. He believes that if students are taught writing by professional teachers, then many writing difficulties can be overcome .

In the same vein, Trang and Hoa (2008) conducted a case study and found out that students' main problem in writing was related to the introduction section in the sense that they found it difficult to choose the appropriate materials that should be included in this section. Besides, they failed in choosing the relevant and the correct vocabulary to enrich their production. Another problem cited by Tang and Hoa was the ungrammatical, meaningless sentences that the learner might write due to the linguistic transfer from his own language (Arapoff, 1967)

Along the same lines, Alkhasawneh (2010) carried out a study to investigate the Malaysian postgraduate students' writing problems. The researcher's interviews showed that the insufficient vocabulary was the students' main problem which deprived them from producing accurate composition in the target language. In addition, referencing and grammar were aspects which students found problematic .

Farooq, et al. (2012)'s study on students' writing problems supports Alkhasawneh's conclusion. The survey conducted with 245 students in the twelfth grade who have been studying English as a subject within the curriculum. The findings showed that those students had problems in spelling, grammar, L1 interference and poor vocabulary .

Similarly, from a textual organization and pragmatic point of view, Yu (2012) investigated students' writing problems in EFL context. He found out that that there was a correlation between college students' difficulties in the use of discourse patterns and cohesion and the impact of their cultural thought pattern. Furthermore, he added that students were not aware of some important aspects of writing such as purpose, audience, writing style. Thus, their pragmatic strategy was very poor. This, therefore, requires an aggressive approach to effectively address learners' writing difficulties .

SECTION TWO: ERROR ANALYSIS

2.2.1. Definition of Error Analysis

Error analysis is a very important branch of applied linguistics and second and foreign language learning. It emerged in the sixties as a reaction to contrastive analysis theory (CA) which viewed one own's language as a main source of errors in second language learning. Error analysis is a technique of identifying, describing and systematically explaining the learners' errors using any of the procedures provided by linguistics.

Before the 1960's, the behaviouristic viewpoint of language that was dominant in the field of language teaching emphasized what was termed "a perfect teaching method" where learners' errors were undesirable to a proper second or foreign language process. The advocates of this school of thought believed that learners' errors are the result of inadequate teaching methods.

As a reaction to the behaviourists' point of view, Chomsky (1957) maintains that human beings are born with the knowledge of what is described as "Universal Grammar". It is a theory that describes the most fundamental properties of all natural languages. He, then, thinks that human beings have an innate capacity in the brain that allows them to recognize that languages have their own inherent structure upon which they depend as well as guide them in the generation of a vast number of possible and correct sentences. This new language theory has an impact on language teaching methodology in so far as teachers have gradually learnt to shift their views from a behaviouristic to a cognitive approach to language learning in that more importance has been given to learners' errors.

Corder (1967) was one among many researchers who had a more favourable attitude towards error analysis. Being the first to consider the learners' errors as a necessary positive

factor and a highly significant tool in language learning, Corder claims that “the study of error is part of the investigation of the language learning process. In this respect, it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process.

Brown (1987) defines error analysis as the fact that learners make errors that can be noticed, analysed and classified according to their types to reflect a particular problem which takes place within the system functioning within these learners. Thus, a serious study, labelled error analysis, should be carried out in this respect. Brown also tolerates students’ errors and stresses that, like any other type of learning, language learning requires making mistakes. It should be pointed out that error analysis is a kind of linguistic analysis that is concerned with the examination of the learners’ errors in both spoken and written medium. It is “*through error analysis that we can determine the areas that need reinforcement in teaching*” (Corder, 1967:122). As Corder (1973) claims, error analysis is more beneficial to teachers in the sense that the analysed errors provide the teachers with feedback on whether their teaching materials were effective and what parts of the lesson were not been well explained, thus, they needed further practice. The reoccurrence of some errors means that the students have not grasped the teachers’ explanation, a fact that leads teachers to vary their teaching strategies to achieve better results in foreign language writing classes.

2.2.2. Errors vs. Mistakes

Corder (1967) and James (1998) suggest that the criterion that should be taken into account to distinguish between mistake and error is self-correctability. Being systematic,

errors cannot be self-corrected as they may possibly reoccur and attention may not be paid to them by learners. The teachers or researchers, Grass and Selinker (1994) state, could identify and locate them. On the other hand, mistakes can be self- corrected and recognized by students and there may be no need for the teachers to make the learners aware of their mistakes.

In the same line, Ellis, (1994) clarifies Corder's definition of the term "error" when he asserts that the latter occurs when the deviation arises due to a lack of knowledge whereas a mistake takes place when the learners fails in performing their competence in the target language. The teacher, in this case, should deal with the learners' errors by following a number of strategies after subjecting them to analysis. Vahdatinejad (2008), in his distinction between errors and mistakes, asserts that lapses, which refer to simple mistakes, are produced even by native speakers and can be immediately self-corrected unlike errors that need a more serious remedial practice.

Snow (cited in James, 1988) highlights the two steps of error development. The first is the errors that occur when learners do not know the rule and are unable to recognise them as errors, and the second step has to do with the presence of errors that learners recognise as errors which are difficult for them to correct. A mistake, according to Snow, is when learners can correct the wrong form by themselves. **This is a conception of a mistake that may be referred to as a third step.**

Corder (1987) distinguishes between systematic errors which occur in the second language and non-systematic errors that take place in one's own language and are labelled 'mistakes'. He explains the significance of learner' errors in three different ways: they, first, show to the teacher the learners' progress. Errors reflect how the new language is acquired

and what strategies the students use. In addition, the learner can learn through error making as it is considered as an essential part of learning. As far as the importance of learners' errors is concerned, Corder (1967:167) claims that:

“First, to the teacher in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and consequently what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, (and in a sense, this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn”.

According to James (1988), errors in writing such as those related to tenses, prepositions and weak vocabulary are the most frequent types of errors made by students.

2.2.3. The Importance of Error Analysis

Error analysis is proved to be a useful tool in second language learning that helps teachers, textbook writers and syllabus designers to identify the students' problems in learning the target language so that they can design remedial exercises to emphasize their weaknesses and promote language learning. According to Ancker (2000), making mistakes or errors is a part of cognition and a natural process of learning a language. Corder (1967), in turn, argues that errors are the visible proof indicating that learning is taking place. He also notes that they reflect how languages are learned if they are studied systematically. Weireesh (1991) believes that error analysis is of a considerable importance to identify and treat the difficulties that learners face during the learning process. Furthermore, making errors is a tool used by learners in order to learn a language.

The study of learner's errors, Sercombe (2000) notes, should be seen as beneficial for both teachers and learners for three aims that error analysis attempts to achieve. First, to identify the learner's level of proficiency in the sense that errors can offer the teacher a clear and reliable picture on how far the learner has progressed towards their learning objectives. So, learners' errors should be viewed as valuable feedback instead of obstacles that hinder the learning process. Second, error analysis is an effective tool to identify the common difficulties that are encountered by learners. Third, this effective tool serves as a report on how the target language is learnt in general.

According to Candling (2001), error analysis is the monitoring and the analysis of language learners' errors that serve as an important aid for teachers and practitioners in the field of language teaching to understand the processes of second language acquisition. Furthermore, Olasehinde (2002) points out that students' errors are unavoidable in second / foreign language learning, they are rather inevitable, normal and important features of the learning process. This view is espoused by Stark (2001) who argues that teachers should not consider learners' errors as a failure but a positive sign of a developing, dynamic learning process that is open to changes.

2.2.4. The Sources and Causes of Learners' Errors

In recent years, researchers in the fields of second and foreign language learning attempted to focus on learners' errors as the focal point that allow teachers to predict the difficulties encountered while learning a second or a foreign language, thus, devoting more emphasis on the areas that need to be clarified. In fact, most teachers, if not all, know less about error analysis even though this discipline has become one of the important teaching

processes over the last decades. They even have negative attitudes towards errors committed by their students in the classroom, which they believe, should not be tolerated and must be addressed forthrightly. The teacher's efforts would not be fruitful, though he thinks that he has spent a considerable time, energy and hard work dealing with error correction, if he were not armed with a strong theoretical foundation in error analysis. In fact, teachers have to identify and analyse the students' common errors and obtain information about their causes so that they can prepare appropriate teaching materials to correct them and enhance the effectiveness of the teaching – learning process.

Researchers, namely Richards (1971), James (1998), Ellis (1995) and Kazemian & Hashemi (2014) dealt with issues related to error analysis and their interrelation with language learning. And, in their analyses, they came up with a number of reasons that lie behind committing errors in an attempt to better understand the process of English language learning.

- 1. Language transfer** refers to the fact that one language (a) is learnt in the presence of another language (b). When similarities are approached, the existence of language (b) in language (a) learning can be positive for learners as it can facilitate the understanding of some linguistic structures that may be difficult to grasp if learnt in the new language only. On the other hand, differences in structures of the two languages cause what Wilkins (1972) calls “negative transfer”, which denotes the interference of the learners' own language in the foreign language learning. Language transfer, it should be pointed out, involves different aspects such as word order, pronunciation, grammar, semantic, pragmatic and cultural transfer. An Arab learner of English may produce the following sentence “a lady pretty” instead of the correct English structure “a pretty lady” because of the transfer of the Arabic pattern “جميلة” “سيدة”. Wilkins (1972:29) considers that:

“When learning a foreign language, an individual already knows his mother tongue, and it is this which he attempts to transfer. The transfer may prove to be justified because the structure of the two languages is similar – in that case we get “positive transfer” or “facilitation” – or it may prove unjustified because the structures of the two languages are different, in that case we get “negative transfer” – or interference”.

2. Overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material takes place when the learner inappropriately extends the use of or, using another term, overgeneralizes a given form or a grammatical rule over the other forms or grammatical rules of the target language. James (1998) considers the case of children during their first language learning as the best example of overgeneralization. Richards, in the Official Website of Educator and Arts Patron Jack C Richards (2016), answered a question related to the notion of overgeneralization which he clarified through the example of making irregular verbs fit regular patterns as with “brokek” as a past form of the verb “to break” and also the case “seened” as a past form of the verb “to see”.

3. Simplification refers to the fact that learners make use of very simple forms instead of more complex structures which result, sometimes, in committing serious errors. Ortega (1999) argues that this phenomenon is very common in the early stages of language learning. For instance, the learner of English may use the 1st person rule of verbs in the same way he makes use of the 3rd person “he / she” as in the following:

- He enjoy/ I enjoy listening to Hip-Hop music.
- She keep / I keep walking in the darkness.

4. Fossilization is a situation where the learner's linguistic or grammatical development in some aspects is stopped at a given level despite the progress occurring in other areas of the learning process. Consequently, errors in grammar and pronunciation, though they have a high frequency of occurrence, do not affect comprehension or cause any breakdown in communication. The omission of the 3rd person "s" in the following sentences is a clear example of fossilized errors.

- She *practise* tennis every day.
- He *claim* that he is innocent.
- She always *draw* a nice portrait in her leisure time.

5. Underuse is a situation where a learner underuses a form that has been studied and practised many times in the foreign language classroom. In a case of this nature, the learner will be over-dependent on some grammatical forms that are, in fact, correct and prefer to use them instead of using other available forms. According to Richards (1971), the learner may underuse some grammatical forms instead of using some structures of if-clause because some constructions, the learner believes, may be difficult to employ in the communicative act. The following sentence is an example of underuse. The learner may say:

"I didn't work hard so I didn't succeed" instead of using the structure *"I would have succeeded if I had worked hard"*.

6. Lack of knowledge of language rules is one of the main sources of learners' errors which is the result of failure to observe and understand the structures of the foreign language as well as to know how to apply them in real situations. Students' insufficient knowledge of language rules results in the reoccurrence of errors and mistakes which hinder the foreign language learning process.

2.2.5. Classification of Errors

The classification of learners' errors is one of the problematic points that occupy the most prominent interest of researchers in the field of Error Analysis and language teaching. A number of categories are suggested, one of which is what is introduced by Burt and Kiparsky (1974) who make a distinction between global and local errors. The former involves "*the overall structure of a sentence*", whereas the latter has to do with "*a particular constituent*" only. Harris and Silva (1993: 525) define global errors as the ones that interfere with the reader's intended understanding of the text. Thus, this type of errors should be given priority when it comes to correction over local errors because they affect the meaning of the text. One of the major reasons of the learner's global errors is related to the understanding of what the assignment asks him/her to do. If the learner misunderstands the kind of writing he/she is asked to write, then the error produced will be global. Other types of global errors have to do with content and organization. Staying focused on what the assignment asks for is the learner's most difficult task in the writing process. The occurrence of errors can block the writer's messages as it is proved by Bates, Lane and Lange (1993). In addition, contextual elements such as predispositions, educational background, cultural background, linguistic background along with English writing proficiency and students' motivation for writing can, in Ferris and Hedgcock's opinion (2005), affect the ability to understand the process of writing in the second or the foreign language.

According to Stanley (2004), local errors demonstrate the complex problems ESL writers encounter when writing. Research demonstrates that this kind of errors involves noun and verb inflections, the use of articles, prepositions and auxiliaries, whereas global errors, that are more serious, involve wrong word order in a sentence. Harris and Silva (1993) state

that grammatical issues can cause global as well as local errors, which Ferries and Hedgcock (2005) relate to the lack of acquisition of English graphemic and orthographic conventions, the use of L1 grammar in L2 writing and a little or no experience with English rhetoric. Researchers such as Richards (1971), categorize errors according to the source text, into interlingual and intralingual errors. The first type refers to the errors that are attributed to first language interference while the second type has to do with errors that are committed by learners of second or foreign language no matter what their first language is. However, intralingual errors include overgeneralization, simplification, communication-based and induced errors.

Taylor (1975) further expands the notion of overgeneralization discussed by Corder (1973). For him, overgeneralization can be explained as the inability to appropriately apply a rule of English in a given situation. Furthermore, transfer errors, in Taylor's classification, are defined as any errors that are committed by learners in the target language and can be attributed to the structure of their own language. It should be noted that translation errors, another type of errors in Taylor's taxonomy, are comparable to Chomsky's performance errors (1965) in that they can be attributed to simple lapses of attention or forgetting.

Selinker's (1972) taxonomy of language learners' errors differs from the one adapted by Taylor. For him, language learners commit simplification, communication-based errors as well as teaching-induced errors, which occurs due to "inappropriate training" and "the over-emphasizing of drilling technique on a certain linguistic item" (See Stenson, 1974) in their writing performance.

Corder (1973) classifies errors into four main categories which are (1) addition of an incorrect or irrelevant element, (2) omission of a necessary element, (3) selection of an incorrect element and (4) wrong ordering. To begin with, addition appears when the learner adds any grammatical item to a word that does not require it, for instance, adding “s” to the words *knowledge, advice, and information*. Second, omission refers to the absence of a linguistic item that is required in a well-formed sentence, e.g. omitting the auxiliary verb “is” in “*He reading an interesting book*” or the morpheme “es” in “*She do not like Rock music*”. Third, by selection, Corder refers to the misformation and the selection of a wrong form of a morpheme or a structure. e. g. selecting the wrong morpheme of the past from of the verb “to give” in “*I gived the book she asked for*” using the superlative form instead of the comparative form, which is the one required in the following sentence: “*Algeria is largest than Egypt*”. Finally, ordering refers to the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a word in a sentence. e.g the learner may write/ say the following:

- “*I do not know what is she doing*” instead of “*I do not know what she is doing*”.
- “*What I should do?*” instead of “*What should I do?*”

Language learners’ errors involve all language systems, be they phonological, morphological, lexical or syntactic. Some of the Arab ESL learners make a common phonological error that is the inability to distinguish between the phonemes /p/ and /b/. So, instead of saying *parking, prison, Poland*, they say *barking, brison, Boland*. Language learners can make morphological errors such as adding ‘s’ to nouns that do not have a plural form such as *mens, advices, sheeps, peoples*. Another type of errors that learners make extensively, especially in their written performance, is the one related to lexis. The following error has been identified by the writer of this thesis in one of his students’ writing composition in EFL classroom in an Algerian high school. The learner wrote: *My mother left*

*me when I was 6. I cried but finally, I said this is **the written**.* The student's choice of the word written in bold has been influenced by Arabic, his mother tongue. Thus, instead of using the word "destiny", he had recourse to the word "written", implying that whatever was 'divinely written' prior to one's birth is bound or destined to happen. Word order, subject-verb agreement, the use of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by Arab learners of English, are examples of syntactic errors. An example of subject-verb agreement error is illustrated in the following sentence: *Gold, a precious metal, **are** expensive for reasons. (is should be used instead of are).* Another example of syntactic error related to resumptive pronouns is exemplified in the following:

*The girl whom I love **her** is called Leila.* (instead of saying "The girl whom **I** love is called Leila").

2.2.6. Procedure of Error Analysis

Error analysis procedure has to do with how error analysis is carried out. First, researchers should make a difference between "mistakes" and "errors" as it is discussed above. Broadly speaking, Brown (2000) defines the term *mistake* as a performance error that occurs due to the misuse of a known system correctly, while *an error* is a clearly observable deviation from the grammar of the native speaker that reflects the interlingual competence of the language learner.

As far as error analysis procedure is concerned, Corder (1967) suggests a three- stage model to analyse learners' errors in a second or foreign language classroom. It is based on data collection, description, and explanation. Elaborated and clarified later by Ellis (1994), this model first requires the selection of a corpus language of which errors are detected, then

classified according to their type using one of the different classification methods suggested by researchers in the field of error analysis. After analysing the identified errors, an adequate explanation of the different types of errors should be provided by the analyst. Selinker (1992) was concerned too with identifying the different steps the error analyst should go through to end up with a rigorous analysis of learners' errors that may tell the teacher how far his students have progressed towards the goal and, therefore, what remains for them to learn. For him, to conduct an error analysis, the teacher should be ready to collect data, identify, classify, quantify, and analyze the source of errors and remediate for them.

According to James (1998), the first stage of error analysis consists of what is termed "broad trawl", which means that the initial analysis that helps the analyst acquire a first impression of the students' abilities and limitations to single out the areas of target language competence where they are likely to commit errors. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) believe that students' samples of productive English remain the best method of investigating second language acquisition. When collecting data, the error analyst should take into consideration the purpose of his study so that he can collect the relevant data that fit the research's aim and provide evidence of how much the learner really knows about the target language. Description is the second stage of error analysis suggested by James. According to him, there are three reasons for describing data:

- The need for labels so that intuitions can be compared with those of other people.
- The need to count errors
- The need to create categories of errors which can be compared intralingually and crosslingually (Hobson, 1999)

It is in the second stage of error analysis that the researcher compares learners' sentences with the correct sentences in the target language and, finally, identifies the errors. Corder (1967) notes that the teacher has to specify how the English learner's error differs from that of the native speaker if he wants to describe an error. For example, if the teacher wants to identify grammatical errors in his learners' written production, he should, as Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) suggest, compare them to what is known to be grammatically correct in authentic English grammar books. Nevertheless, if the study aims at analysing learners' errors in oral production, the variety of English that the learners are exposed to has to be taken into account in this respect. The researchers state that the categorization of errors by word class such as verb, subject, adjective, which can result in other subcategories of errors i.e. errors of tenses, error of aspect and so forth, can be a useful technique in identifying the learners' errors easily. Explanation of errors is the most important stage in error analysis in that it describes the factors that have induced the learner to commit each error. Researchers rely on different factors (mainly transfer that is the influence of L1 on writing in L2, and overgeneralization) to classify and explain the errors that they have already identified in the students' English production. Finally, evaluating and drawing conclusion on the collected results is the error analyst's last step that determines which errors need to be handled and which errors may be tolerated. Thus, an adequate remedial teaching should be done to treat the serious ones.

2.2.7. Criticism of Error Analysis

Error analysis has not escaped criticism from researchers and teachers alike, from both theoretical and methodological points of view. According to Hobson (1999), the norm from the perspective of error analysis is the target language, and, therefore, the slightest deviation

from it is considered as an error. Van Els et al., (1984:47, cited in Hobson, 1999) note that several factors such as the linguistic context, the medium (spoken or written), the social context (formal or informal) and the relation between the speaker and the hearer (symmetrical or asymmetrical) are important in determining the norm. Viewing any deviation from the norm as an error, some researchers, such as Hobson, ignore an important part in language learning which is the learner's creativity as well as his natural ability in building up a new language.

Error analysis has been seriously criticized on a number of methodological and theoretical grounds. To begin with, methodological reasons lie in the weaknesses in error evaluation, lack of precision in defining the point of view under which an utterance is considered erroneous, difficulty to find the interlingual or intralingual source of error, classification and interpretation of errors. The theoretical reasons are related to the comprehension of error analysis techniques as a means to infer the process of learning a second language. Consequently, error analysis does not provide a complete idea of the learners in terms of their competence and performance. For error analysis to be efficient, it needs to study both erroneous and non-erroneous forms, a fact that is not taken into account by error analysts.

Another criticism has been raised by researchers in the field of second language acquisition was that error analysis cannot explain the development of the learner during his/her process of acquiring a second language since analysis is done on a static text , a sort of language photo taken at a certain moment under certain circumstances. However, as Ellis (2003) states, no dispute between longitudinal studies and error analysis exists since the study of errors through different stages of the learning process can contribute to the understanding

of the strategies learners put when acquiring a second language, though he also asserts that error analysis has some shortcomings in terms of methodological procedures, theoretical problems and limitations in scope (in Ellis, 2008).

Error analysis, Schachter (1974) believes, deprives the learner from using avoidance strategies that he employs to avoid what is difficult by making the best use of some structures that he is convinced will help him get the idea. So, Error analysis does not allow for “avoidance phenomena”, using Schachter’s words, as its subject matter is to deal with and predict the difficulties the learner intends to avoid.

Error analysis, Alexander (1979) puts it, measures “*production, that may be fairly restricted, rather than perception which may be less restricted*” (cited in Hobson, 1999:10). In other words, Error analysis only gives importance to errors instead of investigating all of the students’ production. That is to mean, not all of the errors will be dealt with if the error analyst partially studies the student’s written performance. It should be noted that some errors, though they are grammatically correct, they can be pragmatically inadequate. Furthermore, the classification of these errors is not always proper due, most likely, to the analyst’s lack of sufficient knowledge of the two languages. Thus, Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) state that errors are often classified subjectively.

As far as the identification of errors is concerned, researchers claim that the mother tongue’s influence on the learners’ errors differs from one language to another, the fact that makes the error analysts’ task of identifying and measuring them more difficult. Hobson has strongly criticised error analysis for its inability to correctly identify the right source of the error in that it could be attributed to one source when it may be related to more than one

source. In another case, the learner's error could be related to multiple sources whereas there was only one source. (see Long and Sato, 1984: 257).

One of the major points that cons of error analysis such as Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) shed light on, is the quantification issue which takes place when a given error is repeated over a text. Quantifying could be a difficult task when a learner's error causes other errors in the text to be analysed. The procedure could be more complicated because of the way analysts study the committed errors. Some of them take into account every single error (token) even if it is repeated more than once in the same text (see Lennon, 1991), whereas others do not emphasize the re-occurrence of the same error and count rather errors types.

Conclusion

As it is shown above, chapter two has been particularly devoted to the writing skill within the field of error analysis. The discussion has shown the importance of both fields in ELT. First, writing, undoubtedly, occupies an important place in foreign language teaching as it is considered that aspect of the language that students find complex and challenging. This chapter has shed light on the approaches adopted as well as the models used to teach such a skill. A summary of the main deficiencies students overcome when writing in English have been presented. The second section has been reserved to the various error taxonomies suggested by researchers in the field of error analysis. Part of this section has dealt with the procedure of error analysis and the possible sources of learners' errors. Finally, the chapter ends with reviewing the main criticisms that error analysis has received by several researchers.

CHAPTER THREE: TRANSLATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

This chapter provides a diachronic view of translation in the EFL classroom. It summarizes the arguments for and against its integration in EFL daily practices. This chapter discusses the heated debate on the use of own-language in the history of ELT. It also examines the different types of texts and states their relevance to translation activity.

3.1. Early Views of Translation in the EFL Classroom

Before the 19th century, the scholastic method that was popular had been widely used by individuals who wanted to study the written form of a language independently and/ or to teach Latin and Greek in grammar schools. *“The scholar would study the grammar of a language, and read texts almost invariably religious or literary, with the help of a dictionary and the acquired grammar”* (Malmkjaer et al., 1998:2).

Translation was for a large measure very beneficial for individuals who wanted to study Latin and Greek before the ninetieth century or to learn to read, a process that was based on translating whole texts to exemplify grammatical points. Reformist in its concept, the Grammar-Translation Method emerged from attempts to deal with the weaknesses of the scholastic approach and make it effective for teaching modern languages for large groups of young learners who have different learning abilities in secondary schools in Prussia. The teacher used translation of individual, decontextualized sentences instead of passages from classical works, to explain grammatical features for his students.

GTM has received harsh criticism from the members of the early Reform Movement in the late nineteenth century and this criticism extended later, in 1960s and 1970s, by the advocates of the new methods, the Direct, the Natural and the Communicative Method of language teaching that came up with new principles. A prominent principle among these was that translation should be pushed aside from foreign language teaching. Speech and oral classroom methodology, rather than writing, were highly valued and a considerable importance was given to connected text in teaching and learning in order to avoid cross associations between one's own and foreign language (Howatt, 1984: 171-172, cited in Malmkjaer et al. 1998: 3).

The Natural Method was based on what Howatt describes as:

“learning how to speak a new language ...is not a rational process which can be organized in a step –by-step manner following graded syllabuses of new points to learn , exercises and explanations. It is an intuitive process for which human beings have a natural capacity that can be awakened provided only that the proper conditions exist. Put simply, there are three conditions: someone to talk to, something to talk about and a desire to understand and make yourself understood”. Howatt, 1994: 192, cited in Malmkjaer et al., 1998:4)

In fact, this method was first applied by Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921) who opened school for a huge number of immigrants who were arriving in the USA in order to urgently learn to write and understand speech. (see Malmkjaer,1998:4) .During this period, the manuals designed for teachers of the foreign language banned the use of translation by teachers and learners alike in all the stages of learning.

Gatenby (1967) was one of the critics of translation as a means to practise the foreign language who notes that this activity cannot even be a reliable testing procedure. He goes on to say that translation as a teaching technique, especially literal translation he emphasizes, is an inadequate pedagogical procedure that can never be viewed as a measure of comprehension. Gatenby adds that students should be well trained to dissociate the first language from the foreign language to avoid interference.

3.2. Revival and Current Views of Translation in the EFL Classroom

Translation started to regain its position in EFL classroom after a long period of marginalization and rejection due to vehement objections against it by most of language teachers and teaching professionals who have, over the last decades, recognized its importance because of the shift from the view that translation is a language testing tool to an effective aid, among many, that helps learners improve their foreign language proficiency. Subsequent research in the field of language teaching proves that, though it has been banned from the language classes for a while, it remains an effective activity in language courses across the world.

Atkinson (1987) suggests a limited and a purposeful L1 use in the foreign language class. In his article (ibid) "*The Mother Tongue in the Classroom: a neglected resource?*" considers that translation, as proven by solid practical evidence, is the learners' preferred language learning strategy. Furthermore, from Atkinson's perspective, prejudice is never a convincing reason to forbid learners from engaging in classroom activities "*in which they may well have more faith than other more communicative, effective or humanistic approaches*" (ibid: 242). In his opinion, teachers may allow their students to use their L1 to express their ideas and encourage them to report these ideas in the foreign language. It should be noted that

it is up to the teacher, as Macmillan and Rivers (2011) think, to control the use of translation in class participation due to the absence of sufficient literature and clear findings on how to use translation to boost the foreign language teaching and learning process in all its stages. Besides, Atkinson adds that there is no reason to consider translation, which might promote guessing strategies as he noted, a waste of time as long as it helps the teacher explain the difficult input that takes a long time to grasp.

Following the same path, Danchev (1982) claims that *“translation/ transfer is a natural phenomenon and inevitable part of second language acquisition even when no formal classroom learning occurs”* (cited in Harbord, 1992: 351). That is to mean, learners make use of translation unconsciously by thinking in their mother tongue when they are introduced to a given material in the foreign language classroom regardless of whether the teacher allows them or not.

Over the last two decades, there has been a considerable and unprecedented growth of interest in translation practice in the language classroom. A brief overview of the historical origins of translation in language teaching will outline its development over time and will also shed light on how translation eventually had been seen as a blot on the educational landscape in the language teaching and learning process. Translation, it will be explained, can be useful if it is used purposefully and adequately in EFL classroom. The literature on the subject will, undoubtedly, help us have a clear understanding of this pedagogical tool as well as provide teachers and learners with guidelines on how to make the best use of it in the EFL classroom.

3.3. Arguments for the Use of Translation in the EFL Classroom

The use of translation in EFL classroom has long played a controversial role in foreign language teaching. However, it has been strongly rejected as it was considered as a reminder of or a return to old teaching methodologies mainly to the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), which arose in the 19th century and was derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin. Back then, translation had been employed to understand and learn better the grammatical use of the second language by providing meaning using one own-language translation. Unnatural, artificially made-up sentences were used to illustrate grammatical points that were to be discussed in the classroom. Such sentences were translated in writing into or out of the target language.

The usefulness of translation in EFL context has widely been brought into question. The objections raised against the use of translation in foreign language classroom are associated with the shortcomings of GTM, the dominant method in the field of language teaching until the 20th century.

Many teachers and theorists specializing in the field of English language teaching (ELT) recognize the validity and the value of translation as both an effective tool in developing the learner's language skills and as a testing tool in language teaching and learning context. Several recent studies prove the effectiveness of translation in EFL classroom and support teachers to integrate it accurately and judiciously in their teaching process. This shift in teachers' and theorists' attitudes is based on arguments drawn from concrete evidence on the ground.

Duff (1989, 1996), Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002), Luke Prodramou (2000), Bowen and Atkinson (1987) and others agree that translation may enhance language learning by developing students' skills and competences in using the foreign language. Duff (1992) notes that translation is of a considerable importance in fostering three essential qualities in language learning process, accuracy, clarity and flexibility in the sense that students express the idea using the most appropriate words (accuracy) that they have to search for and be flexible when doing it. The product of the previous process has to convey meaning (clarity). The above qualities make translation a multi-skills activity that develops balanced foreign language teaching-learning process. Duff further, adds that translation enhances some cognitive skills such as reflection and analysis since there is no one single answer when the various interpretations of a given text are at stake.

The current cognitive view of language learning sees that the use of first language (L1) is viewed as a source on which learners rely and that they consider as a stepping stone to a new knowledge. The reassessment of own language use leads to a bilingual method of teaching the foreign language instead of the monolingual environment in which English is, being both the means and the end , the only language spoken during the class.

Bowen (1987) is one of the theorists who favour the use of translation in EFL context. He goes on to discuss the right and the wrong use of the mother tongue in monolingual classrooms and summarizes his research by stating that the mother tongue can be employed to provide a quick and appropriate translation of a particular English word that might take a long time for the teacher to clarify and this clarification might not be correctly understood. Bowen believes that translation does not only develop the students' linguistic competence but also the contextual and the cultural ones. Compensation and meta-cognitive strategies are among

the strategies that can be promoted through this pedagogical tool. When translating, students are given the chance to come up with the different possibilities with which an idea may be expressed through contrasting language patterns and code-switching. Students rather compensate for a missing piece of language by using another language just to avoid the breakdown in communication. Thus, the diversity of alternatives that translation may offer can raise learners' awareness that ideas may not be expressed in one way only. Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002) state that:

“Until recently the mother tongue was a skeleton in the cupboard. The metaphor is apt in so far as we have for a long time treated the mother tongue as a taboo subject, a source of embarrassment and on the part of non-native speaker teachers in particular, a symptom of their failure to “teach properly” . Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002:5)

Both Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002) consider translation as a skill among many that the language learner possesses though it has been widely and strongly marginalized, if not totally ignored, in the EFL context. In their book, the authors treat the ways the students' mother tongue can be effectively used to create a cooperative and an interactive learning environment. Besides, they suggest different classroom activities in which L1 is used to clarify how two languages work. Interestingly, they tackle translation not as an end in itself but as a means to promoting learners' autonomy and proving that it is one of the many strategies used in the EFL context likely to help students feel safe in the foreign language learning context. Many language teachers, in this respect, find that translation is one of the effective language activities that encourage a student-centered interaction and a cooperative constructive learning. Deller in another instance claims that

“The mother tongue taboo has been with us for a long time but fortunately now things seem to be changing. I believe that many teachers have continued to use the mother tongue

because it is both necessary and effective. However, teachers may well have been using it privately and secretly and certainly not in front of inspectors or colleagues. So, we just add to the guilt feelings that we as teachers are so good at having.” (Deller, 2002:3)

Deller's position summarizes the attitudes and the perceptions of thousands of teachers all over the world who, though they feel safe in using translation from and into the mother tongue within their classes, are not allowed to practice any translation even if that of an instruction of a given task, in front of inspectors. It can be clearly shown that the ideology of the Grammar-Translation Method still influences people's views regarding translation, though they know that it is an unavoidable cognitive activity that occurs at the level of the mind when students are exposed to the foreign language.

Scholars have found out that students' knowledge of L1 will be improved through the use of translation thanks to a contrastive analysis between the two languages involved in the translation activity. Lazaro (2005:56) does not consider interference between the L1 and the FL negative but even goes on to believe that it can be beneficial in fostering language learning. Like Lazaro (2004) and Duff (1989), Pegenaute (1996) asserts that this conscious learning may then reduce interference (in Marquéz-Aguado & Solis-Becerra, 2013:40-41). Vermes (2010), in the same fashion, states that interference may occur irrespective of translation and that any use of L1 would be considered negative (see in Marquéz-Aguado & Solis-Becerra, 2013:42). Atkinson (1987) summarizes the functions and the benefits of L1 use in EFL classroom. He goes a step further and explains how translation activities enhance learners' fluency in the foreign language. He relates the uneasiness of using L1 in the classroom to the special attention paid to it by both teachers and learners of EFL. According to Atkinson (1987: 242), the lack of sufficient literature on L1 use in the classroom may be

explained in the four following reasons a) the association with GTM, b) training teachers in a monolingual environment c) the influence of Krashen theories of acquisition and learning d) the belief that English can only be learnt through speaking English. The above factors push teachers and syllabus designers to ban the use of L1 in EFL classroom. Meanwhile, Atkinson (ibid) studies the benefits and the ways of using L1 adequately and purposefully to boost foreign language learning and make it more enjoyable.

Ferrer (2002) carried out a research work in order to question the use of L1 in the classroom by both teachers and learners who agree that L1 has an important role to play in L2 classroom. Cross-linguistic comparison, they claim, raises students' awareness of the similarities and the differences between both languages. As a result, the learners' common errors resulted from interference can be detected and treated. Thus, grammatical as well as communicative competence will be highly developed (See Marqu ez-Aguado & Solis-Becerra, 2013: 43).

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2002) suggests the notion of mediation that is very important in modern societies in EFL teaching and learning. The term is defined as the reformulation of an already existed text that the third party cannot understand or access. Thus, the target text is viewed as a mediator between speakers of different languages and culture. CEFR proposes the dichotomy of oral and written mediation that are divided into intralinguistic and interlinguistic mediation. Translation is an example of the last type (see the research work project conducted by the Council of Europe entitled 'Language Learning for European Citizenship' and results of which have been presented in 1997). CEFR gives importance to mediation and considers it as a communicative

skill and, thus, justifies the presence of translation in the language classroom as another pedagogical tool to be implemented.

Hall and Cook (2013) conducted a research work entitled *Own Language Use in ELT: exploring global practices and attitudes*. On the whole, his research sheds light on the extent to which, how and why teachers around the globe encourage or discourage own language use in ELT. The research findings show clear evidence of the widespread of own language use in EFL all over the world. When interviewed or when they filled out questionnaires, teachers proved that they found translation a useful tool to explain the meaning of unclear vocabulary and grammar when learners had difficulties to grasp the rules introduced by the teacher (see also Polio & Duff, 1994; V. Cook, 2001). As claimed by Kim and Elder (2008), Cook (2013) states that the use of own-language within the class develops rapport between the teacher and his learners as well as create a good learning environment. Learners make the best use of own language notably through using bilingual dictionaries as well as comparing their language to the target one. Moreover, they employ it to prepare for classroom tasks and interaction.

Cook (2013) reports that the participants have more positive attitudes towards own language use in the classroom. Thus, they did not feel a sense of guilt when other languages are utilized in EFL classes. The majority of teachers, Cook's findings on own-language use in ELT reveal, assert that they do not try to exclude completely the mother tongue use, but agree that it should be used purposefully and judiciously during the class. The study also highlights the fact that the teachers questioned claim that own language use is more appropriate with lower-level than higher-level English language learners. Factors such as age, students' number or background, it has been proven, do not affect how language is used in EFL classroom. Most teachers point out that they can decide about the amount of own language to

be used within their classes themselves though many institutions and even ministries of education expect that English is the only language to be spoken and used in EFL classroom. Own language use, Cook's work shows, is a more frequent practice in state schools than in private institutions and in classes that include more lower-level students. Experienced teachers have positive attitudes towards the mother tongue use due to their own classrooms realities and experiences.

For Cook, the survey shows that own language use is an established part of ELT classroom practice, and that teachers could see a range of useful functions for L1 in their teaching process while recognizing the importance of English within the classroom. He notes that there is a gap between mainstream literature and practice in the classroom, a gap that should be put under investigation within the field of ELT.

Clearly, many studies have been conducted to discuss the usefulness of translation in EFL classroom despite the fact that other studies (as will be shown below) associated it with the practices of Grammar-Translation Method. However, translation was always part of the teaching and learning process and could not be avoided by the believers in its potential advantages in fostering the teaching of English as a foreign language.

3.4. Traditional Reasons against the Use of the Learners' Own- language in the EFL Context.

There has been a controversy around the use of the mother tongue in foreign language teaching. After a long rejection, there have been some voices that called for the reassessment of own-language use in EFL classroom on the basis of a number of pedagogical arguments based on different studies that have been conducted in this respect. Before this reassessment

had any grip in reality, many language teaching institutions (schools, colleges, universities) banned the use of the mother tongue in language classes for decades (see Kerr, 2014) for a number of reasons that are summarized below.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Maximilian Delphinus Berlitz had criticized translation as a learning-teaching tool. He rather encouraged *“the direct association of thought with the foreign speech and sound in addition to the constant exclusive use of the foreign language”* (Kerr, 2014:2). Berlitz rejected translation for three major reasons. First, he thinks that own language use in English Language Teaching (EFL) is a time-consuming activity and no time is left for using the target language. Then, studying with translation, he claims, will never help learners get used to the *“spirit of a foreign language and the learner has a tendency to base all he says upon what he would in his mother tongue”* (Berlitz (1916:3-4).

He also notes that *“knowledge of a foreign tongue, acquired by means of translation, is necessarily defective and incomplete; for there is by no means for every word of one language, the exact equivalent in the other”* (Berlitz, 1916:4). Many people may not agree with Berlitz’s first view on own language use mainly those who have studied the foreign language in traditional settings in which own language was used in all exchanges, especially in explaining grammatical points to lower level students. The overuse of own language by some teachers does not justify its rejection in EFL classroom. There must be a careful practical guidance for using it judiciously, accurately and purposefully for effective language learning. As to the second point, Berlitz’s idea of “spirit of the foreign language” seems vague and difficult to be defined. Broadly speaking, Berlitz may have been referring to the fact that the learner should think in the foreign language as a *Lingua Franca*, the language of

global communication, the idea of “spirit of the foreign language” may be a no more valid notion as English is being taught for communication with other people with different cultural backgrounds if Berlitz associated the word “spirit” to the natural culture of the native speaker of a given language. The question that may be raised in this respect is: if the word spirit means a national culture of the speaker, how can learners have a spirit of the foreign language if they belong to a non-English speaking background?

Despite all the strong criticism against the use of translation in language teaching, there has been a shift in scholars’ views who believe that translation is a valuable didactic resource in EFL classroom after being considered, for a long time, as an inadequate and counter-productive tool that hinders the acquisition of a new language. Until the late 1970s, students were provided with texts that are incomplete to be translated. Students did not have an idea about the source of the texts, whether the material was authentic or not. They were not even aware of the kind of texts they were exposed to or why they were asked to translate. What is clearly shown is that translation was seen as a testing tool to check learners’ understanding as well as to train them to have an ability to translate later. This was the way the Grammar- Translation Method made use of translation, a method that proved, to a certain degree, inadequate. The emergence of the “new brave world” governed by two forces, technology and commerce, in the mid-ninetieth century, questioned the need for a language to communicate and mediate between the different parts of the world paved the way for a new view of translation to emerge.

Starting from the late 1970s, translation has widely come to be seen as a complex process that involves a variety of cognitive skills and abilities. This new idea paved the way for translation to regain the ground it had lost after decades of total rejection and

marginalization by researchers, educationalists and practitioners in the field of foreign language teaching. The advocates of the functionalists' viewpoint who start to consider the notion of "Skopos" or "function" (see chapter one) when they approach translation, claim that the translator takes time to translate from the source language to the target language, taking into account a particular spatiotemporal setting to find that he is deeply involved in a rigorous process in order to produce a text such as anticipation, resource exploitation, cooperation, revision then translation. These interrelated activities, as noted by Mackenzie (1994), form the basic argument based on which a status of translation started to be reassessed. First, the translator studies the context of both the source and the target text that will be the final product in a process known as *anticipation*. Then, he moves to the second step, *resource exploitation*, which entails analyzing the collected texts in the first activity. During the translation process, many problems that need to be solved can occur involving what is labeled *cooperation* between experts. Revision, it should be pointed out, is the last activity that a translated text passes through. As it is clearly discussed above, the skills that make up the translation process are linguistically and methodologically related to language teaching. So, translation has never been independent from the four skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Vienne (1998) supports the functionalists' point of view about the effectiveness of the above activities involved in the contextual analysis of texts and their exploitation by learners when he asserts that:

"they provide life-like focus for meaningful spoken and written language production and reception, requiring students to use both their languages for particular, easily identifiable purposes, both transactionally (to obtain and provide information) and interactively (to get along with others involved in the activity)".

(Vienne, 1998:116, cited in Malmkjaer et al., 1998). (see also Brown and Yule, 1983. ch.1)

In the same vein, he adds that even first language activities could be useful if they involve aspects related to foreign language or culture. Translation, in this case, Vienne views, cannot cause any harm if it is well planned and purposefully applied in English as a foreign language classroom. Though many teachers disagree with Vienne thinking that interference between languages prevents students from developing the linguistic competence, it similarly raises their awareness of the different linguistic systems they are exposed to as well as help them control both, especially if the learning environment is a bilingual classroom.

E.V. Gatenby, one of the advocates of the Direct Method, notes that our aim must be *“to get our pupils (...) to the stage where they can use English without having to think”* (Gatenby, 1967:70). By this, Gatenby meant that the learners should learn “how to dissociate the two languages”. Due to this belief, own language use had been excluded from EFL classroom for a long time. Separating the two languages seems impossible because of the structure of the human brain. Spivey and Hirsch (2003) have conducted a research work on word associations. They, based on scientific evidence, claim that the human brain processes, even to some extent, knowledge of two or more languages in parallel. Their argument proves that the brain is not divided into regions where one of each is responsible for the storage of one language while the second is concerned with storing another language.

The majority of learners, if not all of them, does not want or intend to achieve an advanced level of proficiency which allows them to think in the foreign language. So, the language of thought, according to them, remains their mother tongue (see Turnull and Dailey–Ocaín, 2009:5) except for learners who have achieved an advanced level such as (C1)

on the CEFR scale in the foreign language. It can be clearly shown that English-only policy (a monolingual teaching) may be inaccurate and unrealistic for many learners, claims Kerr (2014).

Berlitz's third argument against translation is that there is no equivalence at the level of words between languages. Therefore, to claim that translation does not promote linguistic competence is no more a valid view nowadays as learners want to acquire a level that enables them to understand and be understood. So, reaching an advanced level to enable them appreciate a literary prose or a piece of Shakespeare's poetry may not be so important for them. Berlitz was one among many researchers who rejected translation because of its association with the Grammar-Translation Method, what one writer has called "And-now-who-will-take-the-next-sentence approach" (Kerr, 2014:4). Philip Kerr (ibid), however, states that the only possibly strongest reason for avoiding learners' own language in the foreign language classroom is the commercial imperative.

The majority of private schools and university departments are proud of following the English-only policy while teaching the foreign language. They even compete to recruit native speaker teachers who have no knowledge of the learners' mother tongue for them to adopt this policy. Idealizing the native speaker remains the focal belief in many, if not most, parts of the world that encourage the market for the target language-only teaching. Kerr argues that:

"we would be unwise to underestimate the significance in the classroom of the student's beliefs about the most effective language teaching methodology for them, even if these beliefs are not informed by the insights of applied linguistics" Kerr (2014:4).

Kerr believes that banning the learner's own language from a foreign language learning process seems impossible. Learning, he asserts, is based on and draws from the

learners' previous knowledge or what is referred to as schemata. Cognitive psychologists, linguists and psychologists describe schemata as knowledge about concepts, objects and the relationships they have with other objects, events, situations and actions. If you are asked, for instance, about your schema about cats, you may have in mind that cats have four legs, strong teeth, hair and tails. They produce a sound called *meow*. If you are a cat's lover, you may know specific kinds of cats such as the Persian, the Maine Coon, the Exotic, the Siamese, the Ragdoll, the Birman and others. You may also associate cats to a larger context of animals and describe them as one type of mammal pets. Your conception of cats may also include your personal experience with these living creatures. All these ideas stored in your mind are parts of your schema that will be enriched by more daily life experiences. To put it differently, schemata, (the plural form of the word schema), refers to units of stored knowledge that one possesses in his mind.) Vygotsky (1978) asserts that learning works best when it is scaffolded onto existing knowledge which is the most beneficial resource in the learners' hands on which new learning experience is based on. Teachers are unable to banish totally their students' own language and oblige them to think in the target language. Atkinson (1987) points that translation techniques remain one of the most preferred learning strategies of most learners in most places. Kerr (2014) summarizes the strongest reasons why using the learners' own native language in EFL context should not only be allowed, but also seriously encouraged.

Studies in cognitive linguistics and neuroscience confirm the most important role of learners' own language in the foreign language classroom. Widdowson (2003) is one among many scholars who point out that the rejection of translation had little to do with scientific research or pedagogical principles. In fact, Vygotsky (1934) states that learning new language undoubtedly involves the use of one's mother tongue "*as a mediator between the world of*

objects and the new language”. (Vygotsky ed. Kozulin, 1986:161). Neuroscience attests that the initial acquisition of new words in a foreign language depends on the association of these items with corresponding own-language items in the learner’s memory (see Sousa, 2011:24).

The use of translation from and into one’s native language in foreign language classroom leads to what is known as “negative transfer”, a belief that items in the target language have their corresponding equivalences in the mother tongue. Transfer, the cross linguistic influence that plays a considerable role in learning a target language, may occur at the level of lexis, sentential and discourse. Odlin (2003:12) stresses that “*Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired*”. The teacher, in this case, should deal with this negative language transfer wisely by comparing the two languages explicitly with his students. This often proves very beneficial for the study of grammatical structures bearing in mind that cross linguistic transfer is undeniably a useful tool to highlight the students’ common errors. Therefore, effective writing in foreign language can be achieved if those errors are judiciously dealt with in the language classroom. In addition, learners, who should not be passive and be responsible for their own learning, have to take advantage of language transfer and of the cultural as well as the linguistic differences to improve their English writing.

Grammatical aspects, research confirms, differ from one language to another which makes some of them difficult to grasp (i.e. word order). Translation is a useful tool that helps learners of the foreign language be aware of this diversity. Thus, they can achieve better results as well as develop an awareness of the similarities and differences between the mother tongue and the foreign language. In fact, contrasting particular features of the foreign

language and the students' native language can help them foster their cognitive skills and will, consequently, enable them to better boost the foreign language acquisition process.

Robert Lado (1957) noted in 'Linguistics across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers' *"that features of a foreign language that are similar to a student's native language will be easy to learn, and those that are different will be harder"* (in Philip Kerr, 2004). He concluded that the teacher who contrasts both learner's own language and the foreign language to be learnt *"will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them"* (ibid :2)

Michael Halliday is one of the advocates of Lado's view on the use of students' native language in EFL context. Though he strongly disagrees with the fact that some tasks involve translating decontextualized, isolated stretches of language and memorizing word lists in one language along with their word-for-word equivalents in another, Halliday (2007:161) claims that *"one can make positive use of the students' mother tongue; and in such cases to neglect it may be to throw away one of the tools best adapted to the task in hand"*.

However, over the last several decades, a number of linguists such as Dulay et al. (1989) argued that the learners' mistakes are, indeed, due to first language interference or what is known as "negative transfer". The difference in researchers' viewpoints regarding the role of own language use in EFL context overtime encourages theorists to dig more into the topic so as to come up with satisfying answers to the various questions asked in this respect. In fact, Kramsch (2007) has positively reviewed Lado's work, confirmed later by Michael Swan (2008), that was based on his attribution of all or most of second language learners' problems to the direct influence of the first language and how the teacher should take the

advantage of contrasting and comparing both languages. This, for Lado, is a very effective technique in order to overcome the common errors the learners make in their daily learning process.

Along the same lines, Widdowson sheds light of the importance of learners' own language in creating bilingual skills when he notes that learners "*cannot be immunized against the influence of their own language, (...). There is bound to be contact and (...)* language learning is indeed of its nature, in the same degree, a compound bilingual experience" (Widdowson, 2003:151). In addition, Edstrom (2006) claims that current debates go beyond the simple use of translation (L1) in EFL classroom to a more serious discussion about the fact that the teacher has a kind of moral obligation to utilize the learners' own language appropriately and judiciously so as to create an effective learning environment based on a good relationship between the teacher and his students.

Widdowson (2003), who points out that learning is a compound bilingual experience, believes in the interrelation of both languages in the learners' mind. The learners keep their L1 and L2 in contact while learning the foreign language. Another study has touched upon the subject of translation and bilingualism is that of Harris (1978), who notes that the two languages are compounded and learners are incapable of avoiding native language interferences in the foreign language class. He also names switching from one code to another while learning, with no special training in translation from the teacher's behalf, as natural translation. Similarly, Ellis (1994) claims that L1 is a resource that contributes to the development of L2 learning because a cognitive framework of how language works can be offered, which makes it easier for learners to better understand their teachers' explanations. Cook (2013) considers the use of L1 as a spontaneous learning strategy from the learners'

part. The assumption that students actually prefer monolingual teaching and learning is not based on any actual research findings. Thus, if the role of L1 use is to be assessed, it should be said that it plays a functional role of facilitating the access to explanations enabling contrasts between languages, and most interestingly, it raises the students' awareness of the value of their own and others' identities, cultural diversity and linguistic knowledge.

Nation (1997) reports that translation from own language to the target language and vice versa is beneficial for vocabulary acquisition in the sense that bilingual word lists may significantly help learners learn new words and phrases, especially in the early stages of learning vocabulary. In the same respect, Laufer and Girsai (2008), in a recent study conducted with teenagers, conclude that the teaching of vocabulary which is based on translation and contrastive analysis can be more beneficial than approaches that exclude them from EFL classroom. Surprisingly, translation, it is proven, is the only teaching tool to deal with some aspects of vocabulary such as "false friends". Furthermore, at the level of grammar, there are some aspects that cannot be really taught without referring back to translation, i.e. grammatical structures that are influenced by interference between the learners' own language and the foreign language. Scheffler (2012) comes up with some findings that support contrastive analysis and translation as two useful tools in grammar teaching. The researcher asserts that those teachers, who continued using translation in their classrooms, thus neglecting researchers' results decades ago, followed the right way. It should be pointed out that contrastive analysis that was introduced by Fries (1945) and later elaborated by Lado (1957), formed an important part in teaching English as a foreign language in the 1960s. Some scholars, namely Briere (1968) and Rutherford (1982), indicate that such analysis enables the teacher to identify and explain his learners' errors, which makes it easier for him to suggest remedial tasks to correct them and improve students' deficient

language skills, whereas Eckman (1977) believes that contrastive analysis could contribute in predicting learners' errors before they are made. However, such a method paves the way for translation cons to criticize it, thus, its status started to diminish in English language teaching.

The rejection of own language use in EFL classroom goes as far back as the inception of the Communicative Approach to language teaching and even beyond. Native speakers of English have dominated the world of English language teaching (books, journals, reviews, etc.). There is no place for translation in ELT in non- English speaking countries as the majority of English classes are multilingual and multicultural. That is to say, learners speak more than two languages, which makes it harder or impossible for the teacher to make any practical and useful tool to promote language learning in his classroom. In such a situation, the instructor has to use English only to deliver input. However, in a monolingual classroom, the teacher can judiciously use the students' own language from time to time for learning purposes. It should be noted that this does not necessarily mean that there is a total absence of learners' own language in multicultural classrooms. Nevertheless, the teaching approach followed in these classes is considerably different from the approach to teaching in monolingual settings.

Kerr (2014) outlines different possible own language configurations over the world from which he identifies three basic types of class.

Type A Class

A teacher is unable to use another language except English in his classroom. The learners do not share any language but they make use of their native language during the English classes. They will almost use translation purposefully to promote their own learning.

In this case, learners would better be encouraged to think and raise their awareness of the similarities and the differences between Their L1 and English. This kind of classes is found in English -speaking countries.

Type B Class

As to type B class, the teacher cannot also use any language other than English in the classroom, whereas students have one or more languages in common, but they all share the language of their schooling that is referred to as “a community language”, which enables them to pair and group work. It is needless to stress how the latter is a very rich activity that should not be missed in EFL classroom as there can be a comparison of own language with two or more other languages.

Type C Class

In this type of classes, the teacher can use the learners’ native language or a shared community language that can be referred to as the language of their schooling.

Valeria Petrocchi (2006) believes in the usefulness of translation in acquiring more competence and developing language systems such as grammar, syntax and lexis in both the source language and the target language. In the same vein, Shiyab and Abdullattef (2001:1-9) state that “*grammar is the basis of learning a language. A word -for -word back translation enables the student to highlight the relationship between the two languages that have different structures*”. Based on three steps; analysis, transfer and reconstructing, translation helps students not only discover and learn new vocabulary but also new styles that enable them to be active participants in the learning process when they are exposed to such purposeful translation activities. Besides, semantic translation, particularly, helps learners be

more aware of the different semantic relations such as polysemy, antonymy, synonymy, homonymy that connect systematically between sentences in one language and make them meaningful as the equivalent sentences in the other language. Moreover, several researchers consider translation as a cultural mediation in the sense that learners will be familiarized with the linguistic elements that are connected to their cultures by comparing the native and the target culture. Research has shown that learners face some difficulties in translating tenses correctly. They learn also that every word assumes a different meaning according to the context of its occurrence. Furthermore, a mental process takes place in the student's mind unconsciously when he/she translates from and into their first language. Another positive argument in favour of the use of translation is introduced by Barhoudarov (1983), who argues that translation into the learners' native language is after all one of the effective means that develop skills of understanding and perception of both foreign speech and writing.

Translation can manifest itself effectively through a number of learning strategies used by students and teachers alike in an EFL context. These include code switching, foreignizing, transliteration and interlingual transfer.

1. **Code-switching**, according to Bolinger and Sears (1981), is a linguistic behavior in which speakers may switch between one language and another such as a standard form of a language and its regional one.
2. **Foreignizing** involves the creation of a word or a phrase that does not exist in the learners' second language, especially when we apply native language morphology of second language lexical items.
3. **Transliteration** is defined as the process of transferring the sounds of words of one language into another. That is to say, pronouncing a name or a word the same way as it is spoken in the original language using the letters of the second

language to produce the same sound as the original. The proper name "John" cannot be translated (to substitute its meaning with another meaning in any other language) into Arabic but can be transliterated by phonetically choosing other sounds and characters in Arabic with which the English proper name can be spelled out. Briefly, transliteration as viewed as a literal rendition of native language word or phrase.

4. **Interlingual transfer**, be it transfer from the mother tongue or any other previously learned language in foreign language learning, is one of the main cognitive strategies that learners have recourse to so as to compensate for their weaknesses when their linguistic competence fails in achieving its communicative purposes.

In yet another study conducted by Skowronski (1983) at Poznan University, Poland, it was noted that students who were taught and practiced translation techniques at the English department, achieved better results in developing both speaking and writing skills than students who have not been trained in them.

According to Newmark, translation is "*an exercise in accuracy, economy and elegance in manipulating a variety of L2 registers in a first degree*" (1991:62). In one of his studies, Newmark sheds light on the type of translation suitable for each learner as summarized below:

- A brief time-saver activity in initial stages of learning the foreign language.
- A tool of control, consolidation of basic grammatical aspects as well as vocabulary in elementary stages.

- A very useful means to deal with learners' errors and to enrich vocabulary in intermediate stages.
- A fifth skill and the essential skill to foster communication in advanced stages. (see Newmark 1991:61-62)

As an intended purposeful technique, translation allows learners to overcome the linguistic barriers in which their own language confines them. More interestingly, it can foster communicative and intercultural communicative competence through engaging learners in interactions between different social and ethnic groups that have different cultures, even skills, and as such, negotiation and expression of meaning and interpretations can be improved. Other scholars consider translation as a real-life activity that prepare students for real-life situations and encourage them to take risks in communication and learn through their own mistakes. Vienne (1998) also argues that translation activities will raise awareness not only of the mother tongue and the foreign language, but also of the two cultures. Learning new vocabulary through translation enables the learner to use figurative language correctly and develop the ability to interpret and produce good pieces of writing.

Duff is one of the advocates of translation as a useful pedagogical tool that helps teachers and practitioners in the field of foreign language teaching to understand better the influence of one language on the other and, more importantly, to correct learners' errors of habits . Reality on the ground shows that when a teacher translates a word or an expression from English to the native language during the foreign language class, students will understand quickly and will be active participants, even the less engaging students, and contribute positively in achieving the learning outcomes the teacher works on. Slow understanding, as all teachers concur, will hinder the learning process.

Schäffner (1998) supports Vienne's argument and claims that translation as an effective pedagogical tool is intended to:

- a. improve verbal agility (e.g. through both re-verbalization or reformulation of the source text, which would often be the text in the foreign language/ (L2).
- b. expand the students' vocabulary in L2.
- c. develop their style.
- d. improve their understanding of how languages work.
- e. consolidate L2 structures for active use.
- f. monitor and improve the comprehension of L2.

In addition to the reasons listed by Schäffner, translation may be beneficial for language learners outside the language classroom as many language specialists and pedagogues state may "*enter professions in which a basic understanding of the processes involved in professional translation may be involved*" (Malmkjaer, 1998:9). Malmkjaer believes that not all of the language teaching process can be done through the use of translation in EFL classroom. He seriously encourages teachers to vary their teaching methods and activities along with translation to achieve successful language teaching and learning. He states that "*translation might profitably be used as one among several methods of actually teaching language, rather than as a mere preparation for an examination*" (Malmkjaer, 1998b:9)

Titford (1983) supports Atkinson's point of view by stating that back translation as well as word-for-word translation help students activate their previous knowledge to find the appropriate substitutes when they translate by themselves. He further adds that translation can be widely useful for advanced learners if it is purposefully and adequately integrated in

foreign language classes. Titford (ibid) considers translation as a problem-solving activity, a cognitive activity, and a bridge that enables learners to relate form to function in their own language to form and function in the foreign language. Emphasizing the communicative role of translation as a worthy pedagogical tool, Stibbard (1994:9) explains its crucial importance, “*I point to the fact*”, he stated, and “*that translation is a natural, useful and essentially communicative activity*”. He believes that translation is an activity that is performed by all learners of language whether they are trained on it or not, formally or informally, in speaking or in writing.

3.5. Arguments against the Use of Translation in the EFL Classroom

Most of the researchers’ arguments against the use of translation in language teaching are, in fact, rooted in the classical method of the “Grammar-Translation Method” (GTM) as previously indicated. This teaching method emerged at the end of the nineteenth century and was, basically, used to teach classical languages such as Latin, Greek and was utilized later to teach modern languages. It was popular in Europe and China until the late twentieth century (Adamson, 2004, in Cook, 2013). It seemed appropriate in those earlier learning contexts that adopted a traditional view of both the teacher’s and the learners’ role in the classroom (See Cook, 2013). GTM emphasized grammar rules that have been taught through translation into the learners’ own language rather than communication skills and fluency. In addition, the advocates of this method considered translation as a testing tool to evaluate the comprehension of the grammatical points introduced in the classroom.

GTM instilled in people’s minds the belief that translation is just a mere transfer of words from one language to another. In fact, artificial, decontextualized sentences that have

to be translated are intended to illustrate grammar rules rather than to improve learners' communicative skills in the foreign language.

In a nutshell, translation, it is claimed, has long been rejected in EFL context because it was seen as an inadequate reminder of some old teaching methodologies associated with GTM. On the other hand, proponents of the audiovisual and communicative methods assert that the use of translation was counter-productive in learning a new language as it could be more harmful than beneficial in the classroom. Moreover, some researchers argue against the integration of translation in ELT by considering it an unrealistic exercise that should be banned from languages curricula in secondary school as well as in special language schools. Translation, in their eyes, is not an effective tool in the acquisition of the foreign language because it provides simplistic, one-to-one relationships between the native and the target language. Furthermore, the majority of teachers who use translation are either unexperienced or less experienced in their courses and do not feel confident in using only the foreign language when delivering their lessons.

Though Atkinson (1987) presents some arguments that favour the use of translation in EFL classroom, he, at the same time, warns teachers and learners against the disadvantages of its misuse because of the following reasons:

- a. Learners will think that no single item in the foreign language can be easy to understand unless it is translated by the teacher.
- b. Learners would not be able to realize that classroom activities should be done only in English. Therefore, they will use their own language even when they are able to express their ideas using the foreign language.

- c. When overusing translation, the teacher and/ or the learners can pay a careful attention to the distinctions between semantic equivalence and pragmatic equivalence. Consequently, the teacher finds himself using inappropriate translation when he wants to simplify the input to his students. (See Atkinson, 1987:246)

Kirsten Malmkjaer (1998:6) summarizes the arguments provided by the opponents of translation in foreign language teaching as follows:

- a. Translation is totally different and dependent from the four skills. Thus, it cannot be described as a fifth skill.
- b. Unnatural and a time-consuming activity.
- c. It leads learners to think in L1. Thus, many interference errors may occur.
- d. Unsuitable testing device of the four language skills.
- e. It is meant for translators' training only.

Whether convincing or not, these arguments have been seriously upheld for a long time by teachers and practitioners in the field of education. Malmkjaer, in this respect, states that the validity of these arguments is conditioned by when and how translation is being practised in the classroom. In addition, some current approaches that favour a monolingual approach in foreign language teaching have taken into account a number of factors such as: foreign language classes in which learners speak different mother tongues, the native teachers of English who may not know their learners' mother tongue, and the monolingual course books published and marketed all over the world. Moreover, there has been a shift from focusing on the academic aim of enhancing the learners' abilities to appreciate literature in its

original language as well as to translate written texts to the aim of developing learners' communicative competence in monolingual contexts and speaking in a native-like manner.

Bowen (1987) argues that translation sparked a negative attitude in the seventies because foreign language teaching focused on exposing the learners to the foreign language all the time to enhance their linguistic as well as their communicative and strategic competences. Additionally, some authors think that translation is a time-consuming activity that lacks the appropriate materials to be practised.

Due to language interference, translation can produce a compound bilingual (an individual who learns two languages in the same environment, thus acquiring one notion with two verbal expressions) rather than a coordinate bilingual (a learner who acquires two languages in different contexts, such as home and school, in which words of the two languages form part of different independent systems). This can cause or contribute in developing lasting habits. It makes learners think that there is a one-to-one correspondence of meaning between native and foreign language. It also draws the learners' attention to the formal properties of language rather than their communicative functions.

According to Stibbard (1994), the use of own language, that is translating from the foreign language into one's own language, in the classroom reduces the amount of exposure to English or the use of it. Confirming this thought, Atkinson proposes a ratio of 95% English to 5% mother tongue for teachers to take into account in the foreign language classroom as a possibly judicious and adequate use of languages. This is an answer to those who think that the time spent using learners' L1, as Wilkins (1972) highlights, is time not spent using the FL

and the use of one's native language deprives students of opportunities to receive sufficient foreign language input.

Some authors, who largely called for the rejection of translation in foreign language teaching, believed that the former is a time-consuming activity that lacks the appropriate materials to be practiced. In this respect, Duff claims that "*translation was traditionally accused of being uncommunicative, boring, pointless, difficult and irrelevant*" (Duff, 1989: 3).

Translation has been strongly criticized for not making a balance in the development of the four skills because it is concerned with reading and writing only and does not count for oral skills. According to Cummingham (2000), the lack of positive literature on the use of translation in the foreign language classroom and the negative reputation it receives from the experts in the field of language teaching has undoubtedly deprived teachers of employing it or making research on it, though certain types of learners respond positively to it in order to feel self-confident when partially using their native language to understand the foreign language course.

Despite the varying attitudes towards translation across history, due essentially to the emergence of several EFL teaching methods, some of which forbade the use of translation in EFL environment, there are still numerous voices that believe in the effectiveness of translation as a didactic tool, as long as L1 and L2 are used for pedagogical purposes. Despite the fact that arguments against the use of translation may carry some sensible resonance for a number of scholars, teachers and language practitioners, no convincing reason could be found to consider translation harmful to foreign language learning if it is interactive, communicative in nature, and properly applied.

3.6. Text Typology and its Relevance to Translation

Writing, being a purposeful activity, is geared towards expressing a writer's intention. The latter, however, can only be conveyed through the choice of a conventional text typology. In other words, the recurrence of messages (texts) has led to clustering them into a number of types with common specific characteristics serving specific communicative situations. Any written message refers to a text type to which it belongs and denotes a particular mode of expression appropriate to a given context. While we usually establish a direct relationship between a text type and the content it reflects, the same content may point to more than a text type and, therefore, may serve more than one communicative purpose.

Translation adds an additional dimension to text typology in so far as the translational activity should take into account the communicative situation that the writer/ translator serves through the use of a particular text type. Neubert (1985: 125) refers to text types as *“socially effective, efficient, and appropriate molds into which the linguistic material available in the system of the language is recast.”* Furthermore, Wilss (1977: 135) ascribes an increasing role to text types in translation theory as they help us determine translation methods or degrees of translatability.

Text types refer to a set of texts that share the same characteristics in terms of grammar, lexis, structure and function. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:186) defined text types as: *“A set of heuristics for producing, predicting, and processing textual occurrences and hence acts as a prominent determiner of efficiency, and effectiveness and appropriateness.”*

Katharina Reiss (1976, 1981) has classified texts according to the functions they are ascribed. She considers the text as “*the level at which communication is achieved and at which equivalence must be sought*” (Reiss, 1977: 113-14). She stresses the need for text type identification and text variety in translation. In her taxonomy of text types, Reiss was highly influenced by Karl Bühler’s categorization of the functions of language which she has linked to text types. She identifies four types of texts:

1- Informative: refers to the text that communicates content such as news report, scientific report, or opinions without evaluating or provoking arguments. In this respect, language dimension is logical or referential. Therefore, the translation of an informative text should convey the full referential or conceptual content of the source text. By implication, the use of explicitation and avoidance of redundancy is required.

2- Expressive: refers to a text the writer of which focuses on the aesthetic aspect of language in the sense that he gives more importance to the organization of the content. Hence, the form of the message is foregrounded such as the case of poetry. Here, the translation should use the identifying method with the translator adopting the source text author’s standpoint.

3- Operative/ Appellative: refers to a text that aims at persuading the reader or the receiver to act in a certain way such as in advertisement and political speech. Here, the form of the language is dialogic so as to produce the desired response in the translated text’s receiver. The translation should use the adaptive method, thus creating an equivalent effect among the translated text’s recipients.

4- Audiomedial: is the fourth type of texts in Reiss's classification, which should be supplemented by music and visual images. Reiss (2004:44) states that :
“Audio-medial texts ...are distinctive in their dependence on non-linguistic (technical) media and on graphic, acoustic, and visual kinds of expression. It is only in combination with them that the whole complex literary form realizes its full potential”.

According to Reiss, texts are classified according to their communicative functions which determine the strategies of the target text production. De Beaugrande (1978, 1980) and De Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) have suggested another classification of text types in accordance with their contribution to human interaction. They propose three types of texts: the descriptive, the argumentative and the narrative. In the same vein, Werlich (1976 in Trosbor, 1997:3-23) suggests a more comprehensive classification of text type by identifying five types of texts:

1. **Descriptive:** refers to a text in which the writer presents factual phenomena about people or things in space.
2. **Narrative:** refers to a text in which textual communication has to do with real world events and time (e.g. fictional, non-fictional texts).
3. **Expository:** is a text which identifies and characterizes phenomena (e.g. explications, summaries).
4. **Argumentative:** is a type of text that is based on the assumption that the reader's belief must be changed. Advertisement is an example of argumentative texts that tends to persuade the reader to purchase a given product.
5. **Instructive:** is a textual communication in which the writer tells himself or the others what to do (giving instructions).

Hatim (1984) was one among many theorists who were influenced by Werlich's (1976) classification in that he suggests a similar text typology with an emphasis on exposition as an umbrella term that consists of descriptive, narrative and conceptual types of texts. Hatim identifies three types of texts:

1. **Expository texts:** these can be divided into three sub-categories.
 - a. **Descriptive:** is a text that deals with the location of persons or things in space.
 - b. **Narrative:** is the type of text used to narrate events.
 - c. **Conceptual:** a type of text that has to do with the analysis and the synthesis of concepts.
2. **Argumentative texts:** is a kind of texts that attempts to persuade or influence the reader through the evaluation of events or concepts so as to justify a point of view (opposition or claim) to induce a behavior or a reaction.
3. **Instructional texts:** refer to texts that attempt to direct future behaviour of the receiver such as in cookery recipes and advertising texts.

There has been a long debate within the field of translation studies about whether it is possible to find a satisfying and a useful classification of texts. Different scholars suggest several typologies on the basis of given criteria. Hatim and Munday (2004) assert that the major problem that can be faced in the classification of texts is that of the definition of what text type means. In fact, they conclude that this notion is broad in the sense that one type of texts can include many forms. Zydatiss (1983) states that various texts such as technical instructions, political speeches and advertisements can be categorized as instructional texts.

The correct identification of a text type is very important for the translator to produce a successful translation in that it helps him to specify the text's function, the author's intentions and the receiver's expectations. On the basis of text type recognition, the translator can determine the translation techniques and strategies in order to generate a successful and adequate translation of the source text.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the author has reviewed the early views that discouraged the use of translation in the language classroom due to its association to old methodologies, particularly the Grammar-Translation Method. Then, the author has discussed how translation has regained some lost ground by virtue of its being a valid teaching tool that could contribute to developing the language learning process. A summary of the conflicting arguments on the integration of translation in daily teaching practices has been provided. The chapter concludes with a discussion of text typology and its relevance to translation.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODS AND MATERIALS

Introduction

Chapter four explains the research methodology followed in this study. It starts by highlighting the aims of the current thesis and provides a brief overview on the participants who contributed to this study. This chapter describes the methods used to collect data in the form of a questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers working in different cities in Algeria as well as texts for translation introduced to third year foreign languages students studying in Belauinet Mohamed secondary school in Sig, Mascara. The criteria that have been taken into account when selecting the texts for translation are also explained. This chapter describes the error analysis model used to identify and categorize students' errors that occurred in their translated texts. Besides, a brief summary of the main characteristics of the Arabic language suggested by Sofer and Raimes (2002) has been provided.

4.1. Aims of the Study

This study was carried out to, first, investigate the secondary school teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards the use of translation as a pedagogical aid to improve their students' writing skills in EFL classroom. Undoubtedly, teachers do not hold the same beliefs towards translation use in this respect. This diversity in viewpoints denotes the different educational backgrounds as well as the association of translation with the conventional practice of GTM. The second aim was to identify the third year foreign languages students' most frequent types of errors made in their writing performance and establish the causes of their error production in order to suggest some useful activities to overcome them.

Third year secondary school students, by the end of the school year, are expected to be able to produce a written message in different types of discourse that meet the writing conventions . In fact, third year secondary school students fail in producing an accurate written message in different types of discourse as they are not given explicit ideas about the type of text, the register used, its structure, linguistic features and more importantly, the purpose of the written production, one of writing conventions to which most of the students do not pay attention. There is a huge gap between EFL teachers' expectations and students' abilities to produce an accurate piece of writing that meets the writing conventions stated earlier. Students who lack the basic knowledge of writing requirements are introduced to writing lessons that involve critical thinking and inference. This work aims at raising teachers' awareness about the necessity of using translation as an effective pedagogical aid to improve writing so as to help students not only overcome the difficulties they face when they write but also regain their self-confidence that enables them to write effectively. The study provides a number of purposeful activities found to be effective and helpful, that can be implemented in EFL classroom based on research conducted in the field of translation and language teaching. Such objectives can be reached if teachers re-consider their teaching practices, make some adjustment to the way they teach writing and provide more appropriate pedagogical tools to facilitate the learning of writing. Additionally, this study, as an attempt to investigate the usefulness of translation in developing students' performance, will stimulate discussion and raise awareness about the necessity of taking action and serious decisions to improve EFL writing.

4.2. Participants

Thirty third year Foreign Languages (FL) students from Belaouinet Mohamed secondary school, Mascara, Algeria, with fairly similar socio-cultural and educational backgrounds, aged between 17 to 19 years, were chosen to be the participants of this study. Approximately, 60% of the participants were females, and 40% were males. Those students have been studying English as a foreign language for seven years starting from the first year in the middle school. They have been exposed to English four times a week on the basis of one hour per class. An additional two-hour class a week has been integrated in third year students' timetable in which remedial work has been done to overcome their weaknesses in the four skills and to prepare them for their compulsory end of year final examination that they have to sit for to gain access to university . The students' native language was Arabic except for a few of them whose mother tongue was Kabyle, one of the three varieties of Berber (Tamazight) spoken in different regions of North Africa. As a matter of fact, the Algerian government redeclared Berber an official and national language along with standard Arabic on January, 2016. It should be pointed out that the participants were informed about the nature of their participation. Moreover, sixty five (65) secondary school teachers working in different high schools in Mascara, Mostaganem, Relizane and Naama have participated in a questionnaire which aims at exploring the secondary schools teachers' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, the use of translation in EFL classroom in order to improve their students' writing skill and, by extension, develop their level of English proficiency. The dominant teaching method is the Competency-based Approach that has been dealt with in the previous chapters of the current work.

The reason behind the choice of FL students as participants in this study is that these participants have long been an important population in the secondary school educational system as they were required to sit for their final examination (Baccalaureate exam). In fact, they generally scored lower in the section of writing due to their lower linguistic proficiency and the lack of basic knowledge of writing conventions.

Little research work dealing with writing has been done with this population so far, a fact which makes them worthy for conducting research to explore one area in the field of writing which occupies an important part in EFL curriculum. Besides, being a secondary school teacher, the author of this thesis has been already familiar with 3FL students and the secondary school where this study has been conducted. This made it easier to collect the relevant data to complete this research work. The following tables show the teaching experience and the position of the teachers who participated in the completion of the questionnaire.

4.3. Data Collection

4.3.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

Using a mixed-method research, the data to be used in this study takes on two distinct aspects: responses to the questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers on their perceptions and attitudes towards using translation in EFL classroom to enhance the students' writing performance, and the students' translations of selected Arabic texts.

The questionnaire was intended to explore the secondary school teachers' perceptions of the use of translation activities as a pedagogical aid to enhance 3FL

students' writing performance. In addition to the information about the teachers' backgrounds (gender, position, teaching experience and location), the questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part was designed to explore the teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the use of translation in EFL classroom in general. In the second part, teachers were asked to indicate whether translation activities were beneficial in developing the students' writing by ticking the appropriate box on a provided list. (see Appendix A). It consists of twenty-one closed items ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree except for the first item (question) that requires a 'yes' or 'no' answer. Besides, one open-ended question was suggested in the end of the questionnaire to seek the teachers' comment on the provision of one weekly class to introduce translation activities in order to consolidate what has been taught. This open-ended question attempted to provide English teachers with the opportunity to add a free written qualitative comment to the data obtained from the questionnaire. The teachers' contribution was great in so far as all the questionnaire sheets were filled out and returned. The results of the survey are discussed in the following chapter.

4.3.2. Texts for Translation and Text Selection Criteria

In order to obtain a broad appraisal of the usefulness of translation in improving the students' writing performance, the only criterion considered reliable was to add a practical dimension in the form of translation activities given to 3FL students to the questionnaire addressed to teachers in order to validate or invalidate their perceptions with regard to the use of translation to enhance writing skill. In this respect, 3FL students were provided with eight texts of different types and themes originally written in Arabic. They have been instructed to carefully read the text and translate it each time a translation

activity was conducted. Careful selection of the material has been done taking into account a number of criteria, the most important of which is that the chosen texts are in line with the themes introduced in the different units of the third year foreign languages English syllabus. Moreover, the researcher attempted to suggest interesting, clear and easy to translate material that suits the students' level of proficiency. Contrary to the popular saying "familiarity breeds contempt", giving learners texts for translation with which they are familiar breeds anything but contempt. Besides, the researcher has chosen the texts that covered a considerable range of aspects of language (grammar, register, stylistic variety). The texts introduced for translation that were not too long or too linguistically complex were within the students' expected proficiency level in English (see Appendices C,D,E,F)

Translation techniques were not prescribed and learners were free to choose the technique they found relevant to translate the texts given to them and avail themselves of dictionaries. These translation activities were introduced to learners over a ten-week period, with one hour a week fully devoted to such tasks. The researcher ensured that the time to complete each translation activity was ample enough to avoid any possibility for learners to make errors under pressure. It should be noted that the aim of the translation activity was not to test the students' linguistic proficiency but to identify their common errors in writing. The author of the current thesis, who was the teacher of the participants involved in this study, was present to make sure students translated the texts individually so as to have a variety of possible errors committed by all of them.

4.4. Corder's Model (1974) for Error Analysis

The corpus on which the current study is based includes eight texts of different themes and types (see appendices C, D, E, F) that have been translated from Arabic into English by 30 third year foreign languages students in Belaouinet Mohamed secondary school in Sig, Mascara. The purpose of collecting the samples was to identify and analyze the common errors made by these students and classify them according to their possible sources.

The students' samples were analyzed following Corder's (1974) procedure of error analysis, which was later elaborated by Ellis (1994), to analyse learners' errors in second or foreign language classroom. This model is based on data collection, description of errors, classification of errors and explanation of the possible causes of errors. It should be noted that errors were classified according to their types using Na Pham's (2005) classification. In this classification, errors are divided into three major types: comprehension errors, linguistic errors and translation (also called transfer) errors.

To begin with, comprehension errors are the set of errors that take place when the learner fails in understanding the syntax of a particular sentence or a word in the source text and translates accordingly. Secondly, linguistic errors occur due to the lack of linguistic competence in the target language and include: morphological errors (a failure in getting the right morpheme in the right place according to the norms upon which words are structured), grammatical errors (an unconventional or wrong usage such as incorrect verb tense or form, misplaced modifier, misused adjective, lack of agreement between subject and verb, etc.), syntactic errors (failure in building a phrase, a clause or a sentence), collocational errors

(failure in handling the idiomatic usage of the target language) and inappropriate word form (the incorrect choice of a word form such as using a noun instead of an adjective). The final type in Na Pham's classification of errors is translation errors. These errors occur when the learner is unable to express the meaning of the source text in the target language, or to render its meaning accurately by distorting it. The main errors in this category are pragmatic errors (producing a grammatically and semantically correct sentence/ phrase but communicatively inappropriate in a particular situation), omission (omitting an essential element(s) from the meaning of the source text), addition (adding a redundant element (s) which is not expressed or mentioned in the source text), inaccurate renditions of individual lexical items in the source text, the distortion of the meaning of the source text, too literal translation, too free translation, wrong lexical choice and wrong focus of attention. Interestingly, the three categories of errors are considered translational errors in this study because they all might happen in the process of translation the students have been through. However, these errors are classified according to their type and source. The taxonomy of errors discussed above is used in this thesis.

4.5. Characteristics of the Arabic Language according to Sofer and Raimes (2002)

Before identifying and classifying the errors the students made in their translations, a brief overview on the characteristics of Arabic language is undoubtedly crucial in that it helps to know the existing correspondence between these errors and the students' first language. Arabic, as Sofer and Raimes (2012) report, is spoken in Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen. Arabic, in its written form is characterized by the following:

- It is written from right to left.
- Its Spelling is phonemic.
- No distinction exists between upper and lower case.

Sentence structure and word order

- Influenced by the Quran, writers concentrate on rhythmical balance and coordination, with a split between subject and predicate occurring midway in a sentence.
- Coordination is favored over subordination in that sentences often start with “*and*” or “*so*”.
- Word order in classical Arabic is mainly: verb+ subject+ object. However, the subject precedes the verb in colloquial Arabic.
- While English uses the infinitive (*She wants you to study*), Arabic makes use of a “that” clause (*She wants that you study*).

Nouns and pronouns

- Personal pronouns are generally added to verbs e.g. *His mother she teaches English.*
- The singular noun is used after a numeral above ten e.g. *I have twelve book.*
- A relative pronoun is used for both human and non-human without distinction.
- A pronoun object is mentioned in restrictive relative clauses e.g. *Here is the man whom you talked to him yesterday.*

Verbs and verbals

- There are no equivalents of: auxiliary do (e.g. *you have a book of French?*), modal verbs, gerund, infinitive forms, verb “*to be*” in the present tense (e.g. *I going to school.*)

- Time and tense are different from English.
- The simple present tense covers the meaning of simple and progressive in English. e.g. *He playing football twice a week.*
- Past perfect is formed with “be” .e. g. She was sing.
- The tense of the original is kept in reported speech. e.g. *They said they are travelling.*

Adjectives, adverbs and articles

- Nouns precede adjectives. e.g. *A lady pretty, a student smart.*
- The definite article is used for some place names, some months, days of the week and many idiomatic expressions. e.g. *He goes to the sea.*

Conclusion

Chapter four has summarized the research methodology of this study. After describing the participants who contributed in this study and discussing its aims, the methods of generating data to investigate the relevance of translation in improving students’ writing skill have been discussed. The questionnaire that was addressed to secondary school teachers has been described. The texts that were prepared for translation have been selected according to the students’ level of proficiency and their needs in that all the texts themes were part of their English syllabus. In addition, the error analysis model that has been used to analyse and explain the students’ errors has been explained.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

Chapter five is devoted to the analysis of the questionnaire' findings that have been collected from 65 secondary school teachers. An analysis of all examples of all the types of errors made by students in their translations is presented. Errors were identified, explained and categorized according to their types. A tentative explanation of the possible sources of errors is provided.

5.1. Analysis of the Questionnaire's Findings

Twenty six of the teachers who volunteered to complete the questionnaire were males, and thirty nine were females. Table 1.1 and 1.2 show the frequencies and percentages of the gender of the participants who were involved in this study as 3FL students and the teachers to whom the questionnaire has been administrated.

Table 1.1: Gender of 3FL participants

Participants	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	20	66.66 %
Male	10	33, 33 %
Total	30	100 %

Table 2.1.: Gender of secondary school teachers

Participants	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	39	60 %
Male	26	40 %
Total	65	100 %

As far as secondary school teachers' general profile is concerned, the questionnaire showed that 60% of them were females and 40% were males (see table 2 mentioned earlier).

About 17 % of the respondents were part-time secondary school teachers and 83 % of them were full-time secondary school practicing teachers whose teaching experience ranged from 3 to 29 years. The teachers' place of work has not been taken into account as they have all been working under CBA approach, teaching the same syllabus and have been exposed to approximately the same teachers' training. The teachers worked in different secondary schools in Naama, Relizane, Mascara and Mostaganem.

Table 3.1: Respondents' position in the secondary schools

Participants	Part-time teacher	Full-time teacher
Males	2 (7.69 %)	24 (92.30 %)
Females	3 (7.69 %)	36 (92.30 %)

Table 4.1: Respondents' experience as secondary school teachers

Experience	Less than 5	Less than 10	Less than 20	Less than 30
Participants	19	19	17	10
Percentage	29.23%	29.23 %	26.15 %	15.38 %

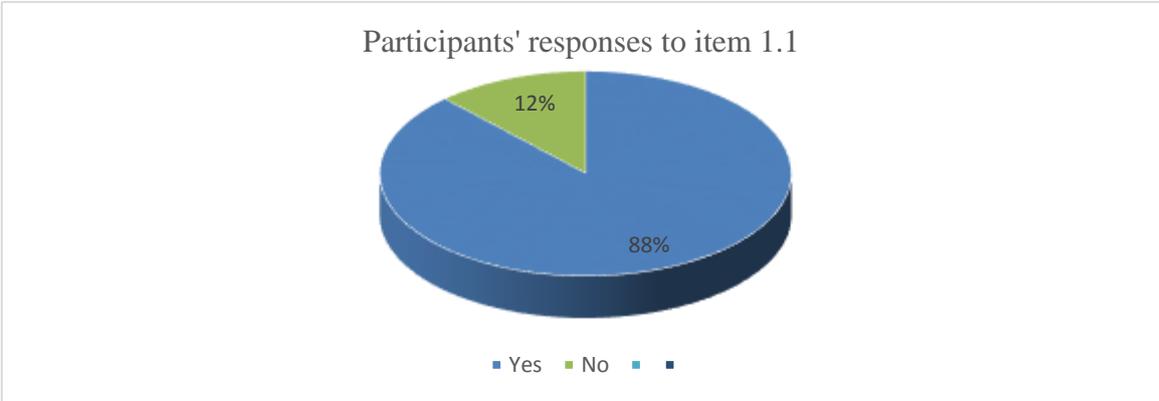
Part One: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Use of Translation in English Classes

As it is stated earlier, the first part was designed to gather data on the teachers' attitudes towards, and perception on, the use of translation as a pedagogical aid in EFL classroom. Every question is analyzed below.

Q 1.1. Are you making use of translation in your EFL classroom?

Table 5.1: Teachers' responses to the use of translation in EFL classroom

Options	Yes	No
Percentage	88 %	12 %



As the table above shows, the respondents were asked whether they made use of translation in EFL classroom. The findings show that 88% of them reported using translation and 12 % did not use it in their classes. The majority of teachers, as the results confirm, were convinced of using translation to teach English as a second foreign language. Their highest rated option as it is presented in the above table and graph reflects their conviction of the usefulness of translation as a pedagogical aid in teaching English. As practising teachers, 70.76 % of them have been teaching English for more than 5 years, and their answers reflect the need for translation as an activity that helped them in teaching though, as noted by many teachers in the discussion that the writer of the thesis has had with them, English language inspectors did not encourage it in EFL classroom.

The inspectors' reservation about the use of translation was due to the fact that some teachers, especially those with little teaching experience, overuse translation in their classrooms. However, the ministry of education has issued a decree in July, 2010, allowing and encouraging the use of what is called pedagogical translation by virtue of its

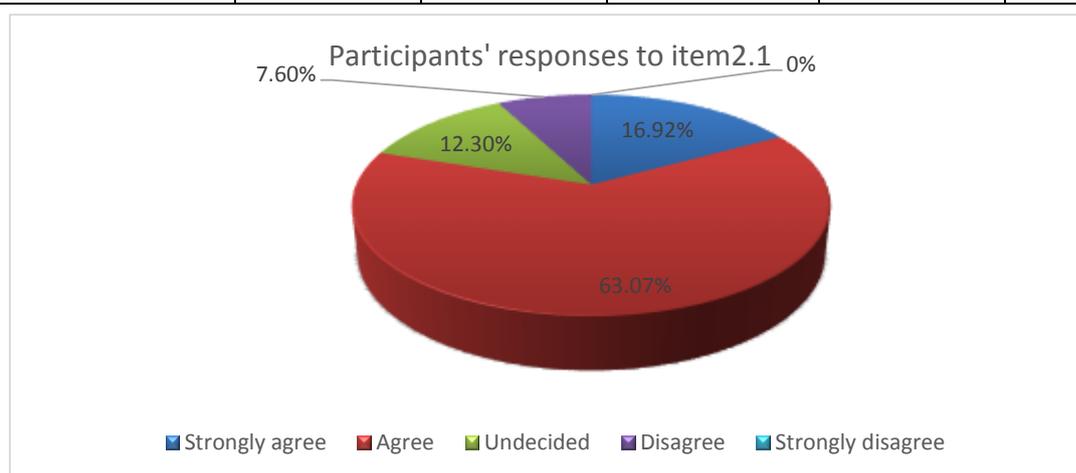
importance in fostering EFL learning. (see Appendix B). The teachers' positive responses can be supported by Burtzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) who note that, *"Using the native language in the classroom is the greatest pedagogical resource and can enhance learners' confidence and focus on meaning"*. (In Fernández Guerra, 2014:156)

Item 2.1. Translation is a useful aid in teaching English as a foreign language

The second item is intended to see the teachers' perceptions on the usefulness of translation as a teaching aid for EFL improvement. The table below illustrates the results obtained in this respect.

Table 6.1: Respondents' perceptions on the usefulness of translation in EFL classroom

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	11	41	8	5	0
Percentage (%)	16.92	63.07	12.30	7.69	0



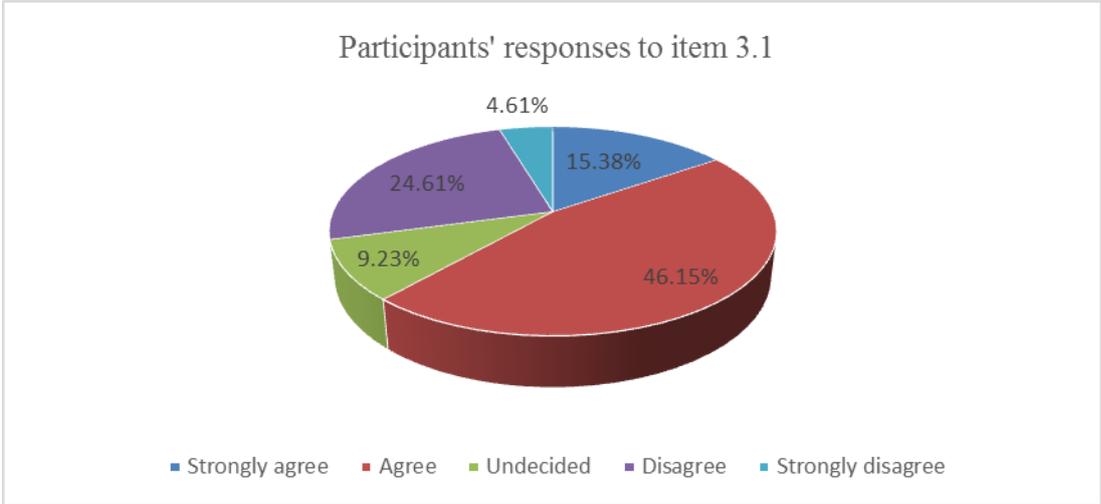
Viewing the results of the teachers' attitudes towards the usefulness of translation as a teaching aid in EFL, 16.92 % of them strongly agreed that translation was a useful teaching tool. The majority of the informants (63.07 %) agreed that translation was beneficial in teaching English as a foreign language. 12.30 % chose the option

“undecided” which reflects their lack of opinion about whether translation was useful in teaching English at the secondary school or not. The last 7.69 % expressed their disagreement about the usefulness of translation activities in EFL context. The findings show that the vast majority of secondary school teachers were quite positive about translation being beneficial as a pedagogical teaching aid in English classes, which could be an indicator of their awareness of the importance of varying and including new activities to facilitate the learning of English as well as to create an appropriate learning environment in which the foreign language can be effectively taught.

Item 3.1. Translation is an unavoidable activity in EFL classroom

Table 7.1: Teachers’ responses about the unavoidability of translation in EFL classroom

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	10	30	6	16	3
Percentage (%)	15. 38	46. 15	9.23	24. 61	4.61

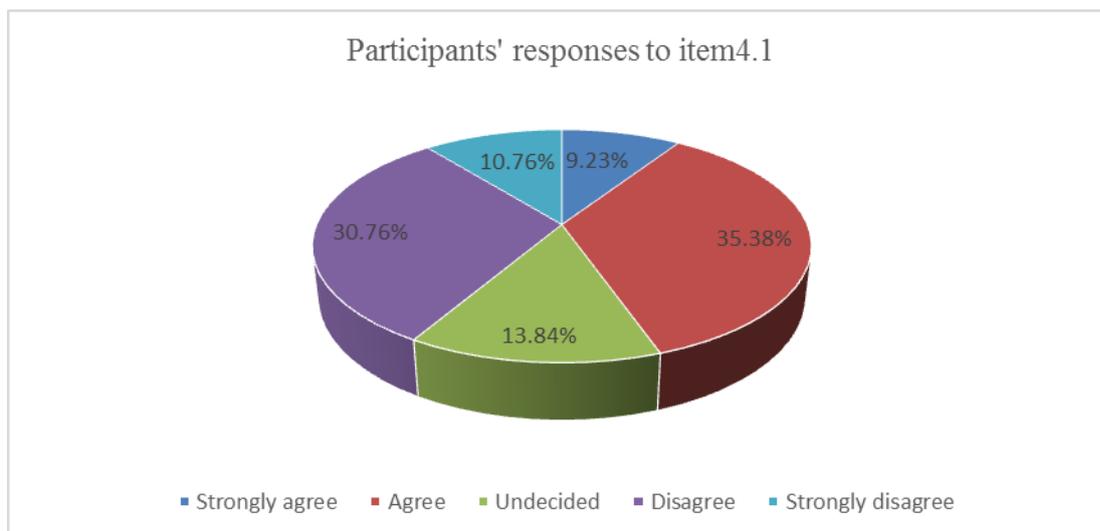


As to question 3 of the questionnaire, the teachers were given a list of options to choose from according to whether they thought translation was an unavoidable activity in EFL classroom. The table above shows that most of the teachers believed that it was an unavoidable activity in teaching English as a foreign language. Their attitudes ranged from 15.35 % who strongly agreed to 46.15 % who agreed with this statement. Approximately 24.61 % thought that they could avoid translation in their English classes. Only 4.61 % of the informants strongly disagreed with translation being avoidable. Their responses indicated that they could teach without having recourse to translation as an aid in their daily teaching practices. Interestingly, the majority of the respondents believed that translation could not be avoided in EFL classroom. A higher number of teachers appeared to support Danchev's (1982) view that: *"translation is a natural phenomenon and inevitable part of second language acquisition even where no formal classroom learning occurs"* (in Harbord, 1992:351). In the same vein, Leonardi (2011:21) reports that: *"translation is a complex activity which involves linguistic, cultural, communicative and cognitive factors. These factors are all closely intertwined with FL learning, thus making translation a necessary, unavoidable and naturally-occurring phenomenon when learning foreign languages.*

Item4.1. Teachers feel confident when using translation in EFL classroom

Table 8.1: Teachers' responses about their confidence using translation in EFL classroom

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	6	23	9	20	7
Percentage (%)	9.23 %	35.38 %	13.84 %	30.76 %	10.76 %



In the questionnaire, participants were asked to tick the appropriate box to indicate whether they felt confident when they used translation in their English classes. As table 6 shows, about 44.61% of the survey participants believed that they felt confident using translation when teaching English, with 35.38% agreeing and 9.23% strongly agreeing with this view. In contrast, 30.76% reported that they did not feel confident when using this activity in teaching. There was even a group of teachers of about 10.76% who were strongly against this view believing that there was no ground for confidence when using another language even if it was the students' own language.

13.87% of the respondents did not have an opinion regarding this idea. Clearly, half of the teachers' attitudes were positive in that they viewed translation as a valuable tool in teaching English to secondary school learners in certain aspects of the lesson, a fact that made them feel comfortable and confident when they used it. However, there are a notable number of teachers who answered negatively due, one may think, to the professional context in which they operated and that did not encourage the use of translation, particularly when this attitude was not favourably welcomed by a number of inspectors themselves. Besides, some of the teachers may think that the use of the

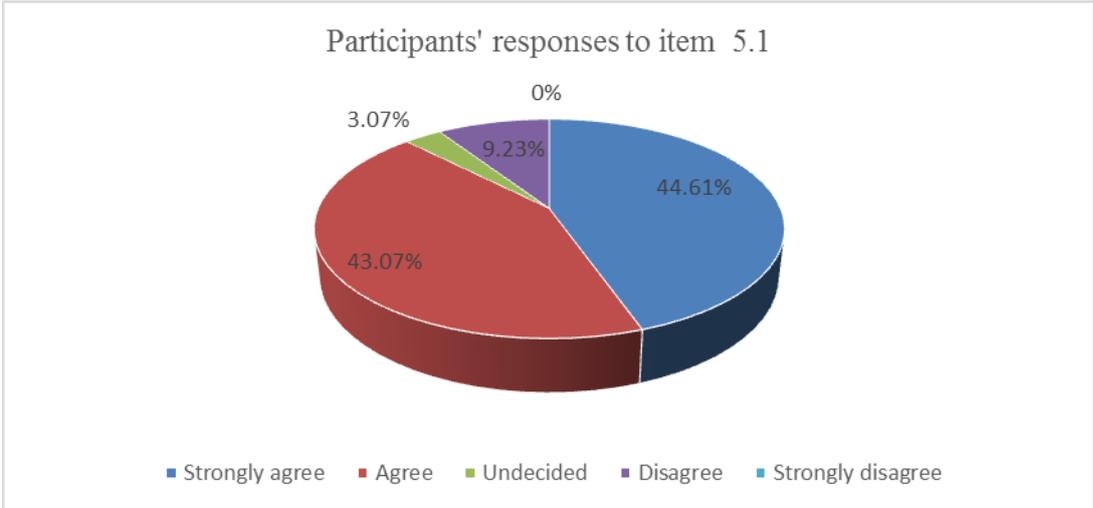
students' first language, irrespective of which objective is being fulfilled, reflects the teachers' lack of proficiency in English.

Item 5.1: Translation is an enjoyable activity for students in EFL classroom

Table 9.1: Teachers' responses about translation as an enjoyable activity in the EFL classroom

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	29	28	2	6	0
Percentage (%)	44.61 %	43.07 %	3.07 %	9.23 %	0 %

The survey responses focusing on whether the learners enjoyed the lesson when the teacher integrated translation in his classes clearly illustrate that the vast majority of teachers strongly agreed (over 44. 61 %) and agreed (43. 07 %) with this statement. Only 3.07 % of the respondents did not have an opinion and 9 .23 % expressed disagreement about the teacher's use of translation in the classroom being enjoyable.



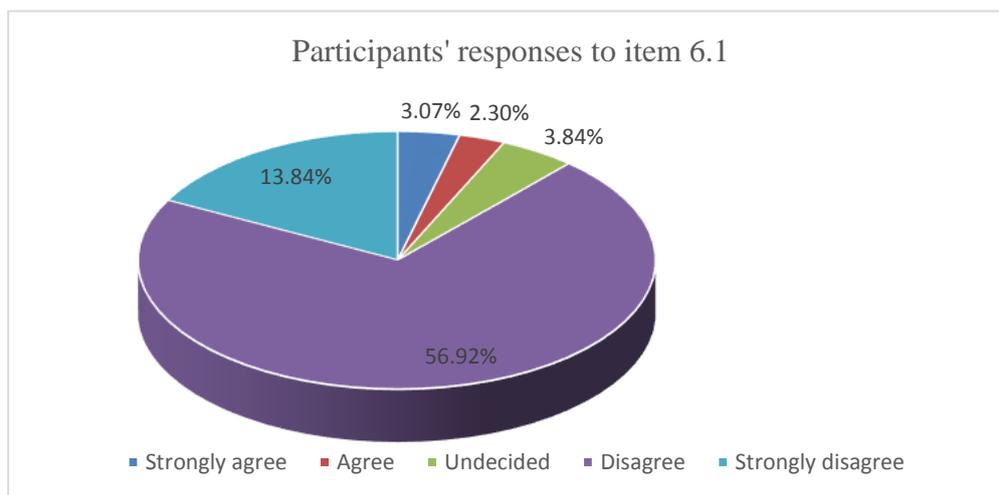
Students found translation in the classroom enjoyable because of many reasons one of which is related to the lack of proficiency in the foreign language. They believed

that translation could be very useful for understanding the input and enhancing the participation in classroom practices. Furthermore, translation may create an appropriate social environment where learners and their teacher maintain a good relationship in the classroom due to the familiarity the learners will feel if a shared native language is employed at some stage of the class. Low level learners may participate in the classroom interaction if the teacher uses translation purposefully and judiciously during his English classes. Besides, pair and team work are one of the successful practices in an EFL context where translation, as an effective activity that tends to develop such a pedagogical practice between the teacher and the students and between students themselves, is a natural and an unavoidable phenomenon that they enjoy. In this respect, Carreres' (2006:7) states that, *“translation, by its very nature, is an activity that invites discussion and, in my experience, students are only too happy to contribute to it, often defending their version with remarkable passion and persuasiveness”*.

Item 6.1: The teacher always uses translation when teaching.

Table 10.1: Teachers' responses to always using translation in teaching

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	2	8	9	37	9
Percentage (%)	3.07 %	12.30 %	13.84 %	56.92 %	13.84 %



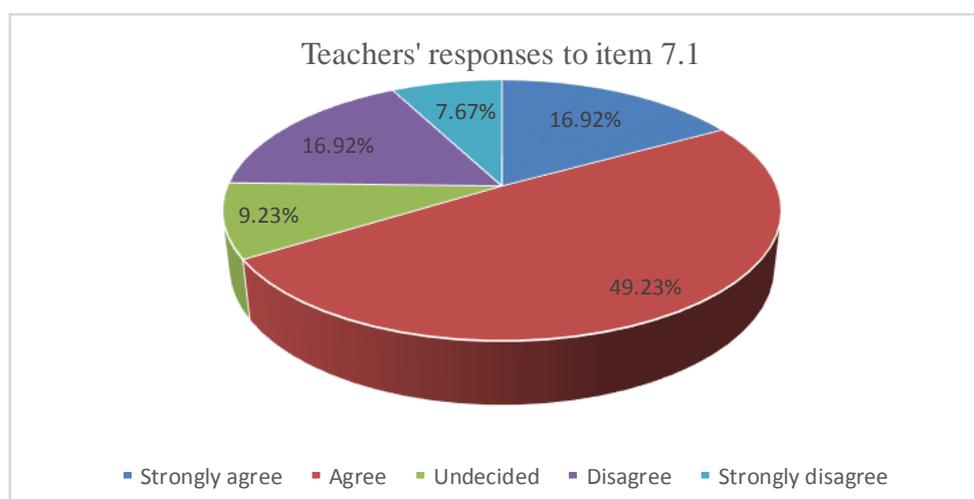
As to the item 7, the majority of the informants who participated in the questionnaire reported that they disagreed with the idea that the teacher always uses translation in his teaching with 56.92 % disagreed and 13.84 % strongly disagreed. In fact, 12.30 % of the respondents agreed and 3.07 %, which is a very low frequency, strongly agreed with this statement. It is worth noting that the more than 69 % of the survey respondents had a negative attitude towards using translation in everyday teaching. Examining the data reveals that teachers may be afraid of overusing translation at the expense of English. They may think that students would get used of using too much their own language in EFL classes which would deprive them from developing a high proficiency in English (especially in speaking and listening skills) and be highly motivated to express their ideas in their native language instead. The students' negative attitudes were due mainly to the lack of updated knowledge about the usefulness of translation in relating new acquired knowledge in the foreign language to an already existed one in the native knowledge (see Cook, 2013) on the one hand, and its effectiveness of reducing stress and anxiety which hinder the learning process on the other hand. Besides, the teachers' lack of training to use translation as a purposeful and pedagogical tool to teach English in secondary schools, though it was explicitly considered useful by the ministry of education (see Appendix B), resulted in judging

translation negatively if it is always used in EFL classroom. From the data presented above, teachers implicitly reported that the main language that should be used in EFL classroom was English and not the students' own language. The teachers may possibly call for a judicious, planned and purposeful use of translation rather than its overuse. In this respect, Turnbull (2001) argues that, *“Too much own-language use may deprive learners of the opportunity to use the target language, and using the new language is often motivating for learners who can quickly see its usefulness and achieve immediate success”*.(In Hall and Cook, 2013:9)

Item 7.1: Translation can foster foreign language learning.

Table 11.1: Teachers' responses to the role of translation in fostering the foreign language learning process

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	11	32	6	11	5
Percentage (%)	16.92%	49.23%	9.23%	16.92%	7.69%



As the table above indicates, 49.23% of the participants reported that they agreed with the idea that translation could foster the foreign language learning process. 16.92 % strongly believed in the usefulness of translation in enhancing learning English as a foreign language. Additionally, 9.23 % were undecided as to the importance of translation in this respect, whereas over 24, 61% of the respondents (16.92 % disagreed and 7.69 % strongly disagreed) had answered negatively to this statement.

As the findings show, more than 66 % of the participants were supportive of translation as an activity that fosters foreign language learning. This being said, secondary school teachers found the unplanned and the unprincipled amount of translation they made in classroom useful in developing language skills as argued by Duff (1989:7), *“translation, if designed properly can be used to enhance the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking , and develop accuracy , clarity and flexibility”*. Besides, Leonardi (2010:29) states that, *“translation can be used as a means to improve students’ analytical skills and problem-solving strategies, and as a means to interact and practice language skills (as any FL class) when commenting or discussing the problems encountered in translations”*.

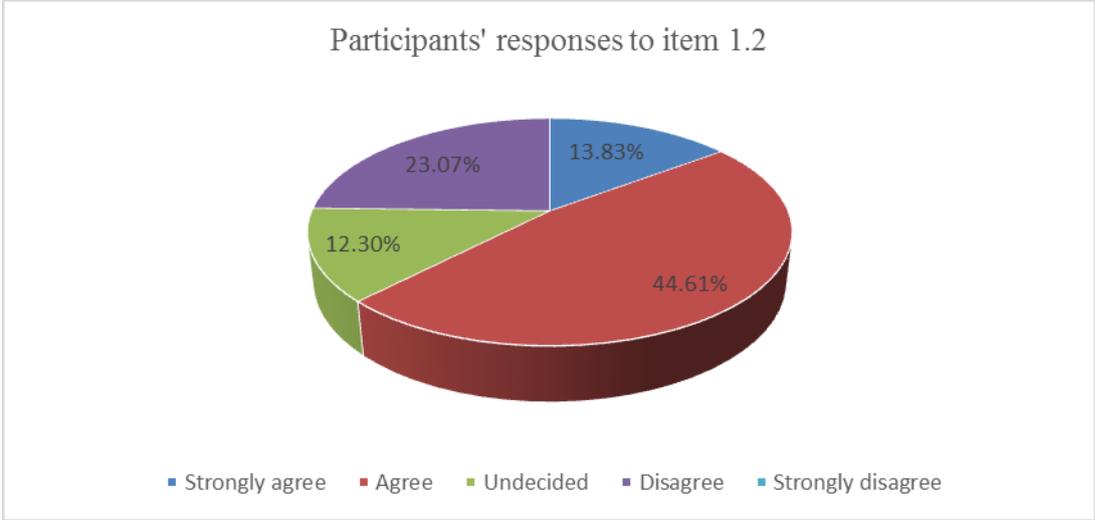
Part Two: On the Usefulness of Translation in Developing the Writing Skill

The second part of the questionnaire was designed to investigate the usefulness of translation in developing the secondary school students’ writing skill. It consisted of ten items and one open item that required a comment exploring the teachers’ perception on devoting one hour a week to practise purposeful translation activities so as to consolidate some language points and develop writing skills. Descriptive statistics were calculated for all items and the findings were discussed as follows:

Item 1.2. Translation is useful in explaining instructions.

Table 1.2: Teachers’ responses to the use of translation in explaining instructions

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	9	29	8	15	4
Percentage (%)	13.83 %	44.61 %	12.30 %	23.07 %	6.15 %



Survey responses focusing on the use of translation in explaining instructions illustrate that 13.83 % of the informants strongly agreed with this idea. About 44.61 % of them agreed that translation was useful in this respect. However, some of them gave a negative answer to this item, with 23.07 % disagreeing and 6.15 % strongly disagreeing. Besides, 12.30% of the respondents were undecided as to this particular use of translation. The findings revealed quite different responses about item 1.2.in that half of the teachers who participated in the questionnaire believed that translating instructions was beneficial for students as understanding the teacher’s instruction represents half of the answer. The student could write an off-topic composition if the instruction of the writing task was not well explained. These teachers made use of translation to guarantee the students’ understanding as well as to save more time that may be wasted explaining

an outline or a plan to be followed when the students could not even understand what the writing passage would be about and what purpose it may have served. Furthermore, students would feel confident if they understood everything introduced to them, and it is up to the teacher to use the right pedagogical tool to reach the students' aim.

Those who disagreed with this idea thought that English should be the predominant language in the classroom and translating instructions was considered a violation of this principle. In this respect, Hall and Cook (2012:272) note that:

“the assumption that the only language that can be used during a FL class should be the FL being taught, and that students should be discouraged from using their native language is now being increasingly challenged, due to the ‘reassessment of the merits of relating the language being taught to student’s own languages’”.

Furthermore, teachers may have thought that students would get used to translation to the extent of becoming dependent on it for understanding the teacher's discourse. Thus, there would be fewer opportunities to practise and limited exposure to the foreign language. Most importantly, teachers related the use of the students' first language as the form of instruction in EFL classroom to the GTM which, as stated in previous chapters, was not perceived under a positive light by teachers due to its failure to achieve the students' communicative needs. Lucas and Katz (1994:558) state that *“the use of native language is so compelling that it emerges even when policies and assumptions mitigate against it”*. (in Hall & Cook, 2013:8). The question of whether to use translation in giving instructions or not depends on a number of circumstances in which the teacher has to gauge situations that require the use of the students' own language such as the complexity of the task at hand for example. Students' own language,

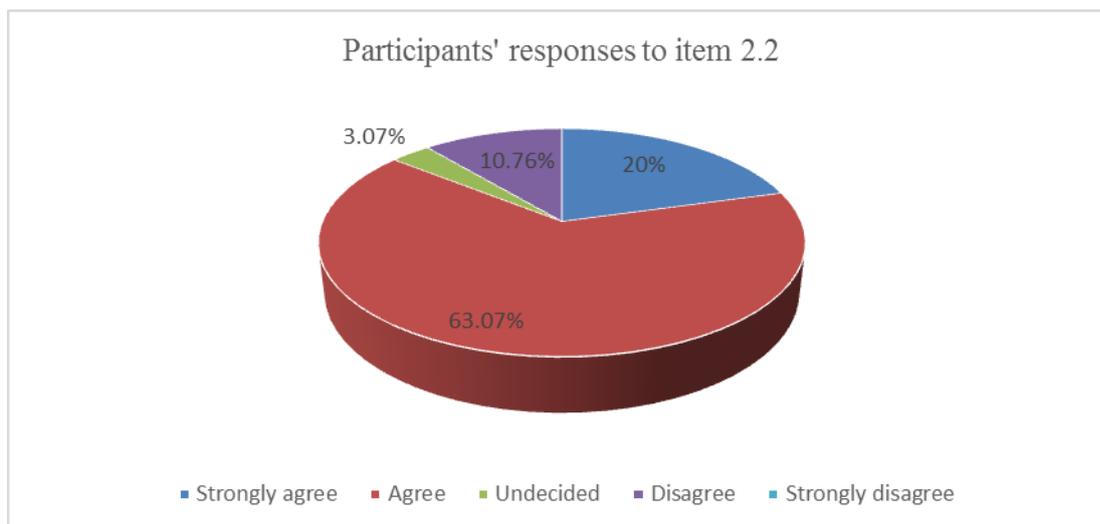
if integrated by the teacher, should be used where and when appropriate to ensure the students' understanding and avoid delays in learning the input.

Item 2.2. Teachers use translation in explaining / teaching the new vocabulary related to the unit they are teaching.

Table 2.2: Teachers' responses to the role of translation in explaining/ teaching the new vocabulary

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	13	41	2	7	2
Percentage (%)	20 %	63.07 %	3.07 %	10.76 %	3.07 %

As to the second item, the vast majority of the questionnaire respondents reported positive attitudes towards using translation in teaching the new vocabulary related to the unit they were teaching with 20% of them strongly agreeing with this view and 41% agreeing. In contrast, some participants did not think that translation was appropriate for teaching or explaining vocabulary in that 10.76% of them disagreed with this idea and 3.07 % strongly disagreed. About 3.07% of respondents did not have an opinion about the suggested item above.

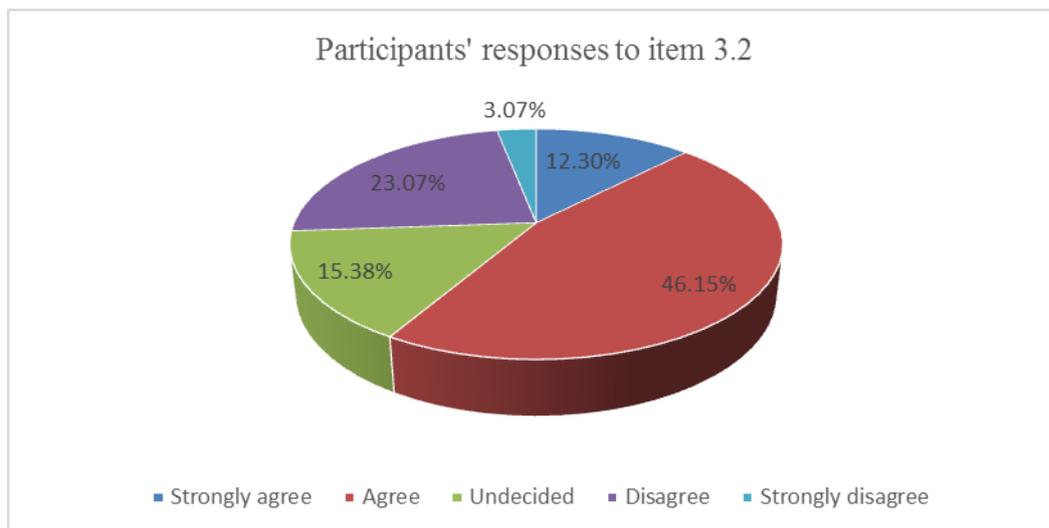


As the results showed, it seems likely that the majority of teachers who perceived translation to be useful in teaching vocabulary knew the importance of understanding new words that would be used at the end of each sequence to produce a good piece of writing. Besides, in the writing section of the Baccalaureate exam, students are asked to choose one topic out of the two suggested. One of the criteria for choosing the writing section is that the two topics should be covered in the third year syllabus. Thus, any vocabulary sequence should be well explained and practised. In an empirical study conducted at the University of Cambridge, Carreres (2006) states that translation into the foreign language is a very useful language learning device, especially when learning vocabulary. In the same vein, Cook (2013), Celik (2003), Nation (2003), Laufer & Girsai (2008) note that own-language use (translation) has been identified as the most effective way of learning vocabulary via the learners' use of bilingual dictionaries and also as a teaching strategy". (in Cook, 2013:9).

Item3.2. Students can spot their weaknesses and develop their cognitive skills in analyzing and in understanding when the teacher uses translation.

Table 3.2: Teacher's' responses to the role of translation in developing students' cognitive skills

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	8	30	10	15	2
Percentage (%)	12.30 %	46.15 %	15.38 %	23.07 %	3.07 %



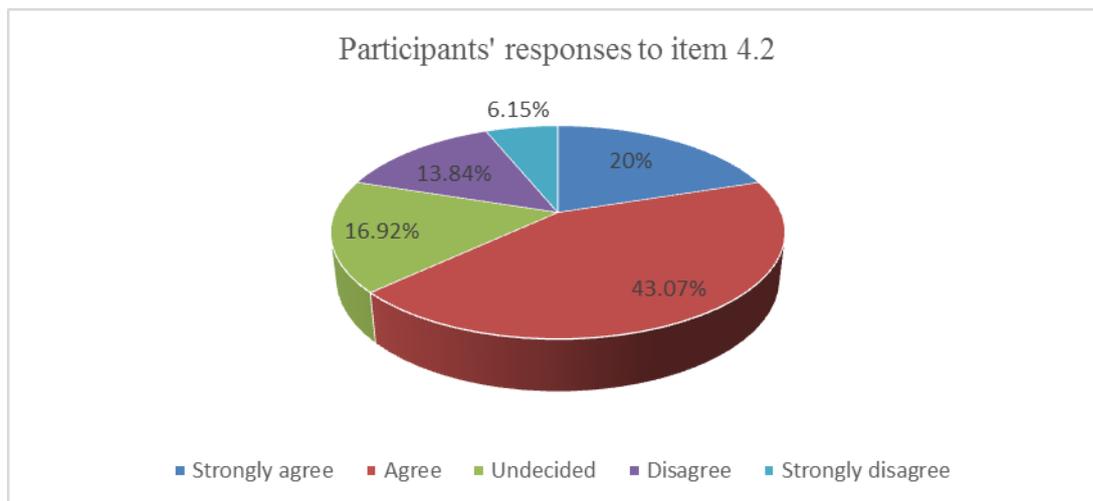
Viewing the results of the survey where teachers were asked to tick the right box according to whether or not they thought translation would help students improve their cognitive skills that enabled them analyze and understand the learning input, more than half of them thought that translation was beneficial as far as this kind of skills were concerned (with 12.30 % strongly agreed and 46.15 % agreed with this view). 23.07% of the participants subscribed to the view that translation could not help students develop their cognitive skills. In fact, 3.07% of them even strongly disagreed with this view. About 15.38% were undecided about this statement. The teachers who were favourable to this view believed that translation was a mental process and *“a means to improve students’ analytical skills and problem-solving strategies, and a means to interact and practice language skills (as in any FL class)”* Leonardi (2010:29). Translation, Stibbard (1994) believes, can be used to extend and develop thoughtful and critical reading of texts which enable learners to reflect on and contrast between their native language and

the foreign language. At this stage, they will be aware of the similarities and the differences between the two languages which will certainly help them avoid some common errors caused by language transfer. Many authors, namely Cook (2013), Fernández- Guerra (2014), Duff (1989), voice the opinion that translation is a means to improve learners' analytical and problem-solving skills. It, therefore, encourages creative thinking and flexibility of expression. Participants who were negative to the above statement may have thought that translation use in the EFL classroom would keep students thinking about English in their own-language and would prevent them from acquiring learning strategies in and within their new language. Besides, their view seemed to presuppose that translation was a mere activity that could push students to go back and forth between two languages making them emphasize the differences between these two languages, which would not necessarily help them improve their cognitive skills.

Item 4.2. Translation activities give the learners the opportunity to plan, reflect, discuss, review and edit their written work.

Table 13: Teachers' responses to the role of translation activities in helping students plan, reflect, review and edit their written work

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	13	28	11	9	4
Percentage (%)	20 %	43.07 %	16.92 %	13.84 %	6.15 %



The table above summarizes the teachers' responses about whether or not translation activities give the learners the opportunity to plan, reflect, discuss, review and edit their written works. 43.07% of the informants agreed and 20 % of them strongly agreed with this idea. However, 13.84 % answered negatively and about 6.15 % strongly disagreed with the view that considers translation activities so useful to learners in that it enables them to plan and organise their written production. Some of them (16.92%) did not have an opinion concerning this statement. The teachers who were positive to this idea believed that translation from and into students' native language helped them plan and reflect on their written productions in the sense that they drew the writing task's outline in their minds and generated ideas by thinking in their mother tongue and writing in English, a process that explains the reason behind the occurrence of interference errors. Furthermore, Carreres (2006:7) supports the view that sees translation as a task that involves discussion by indicating that *"translation, by its very nature, is an activity that invites discussion and, in my experience, students are only too happy to contribute to it"*. Besides, Fernández Guerra (2014:155) asserts that *"translation tasks require students to reflect on how to achieve equivalence semantically, functionally and pragmatically, so*

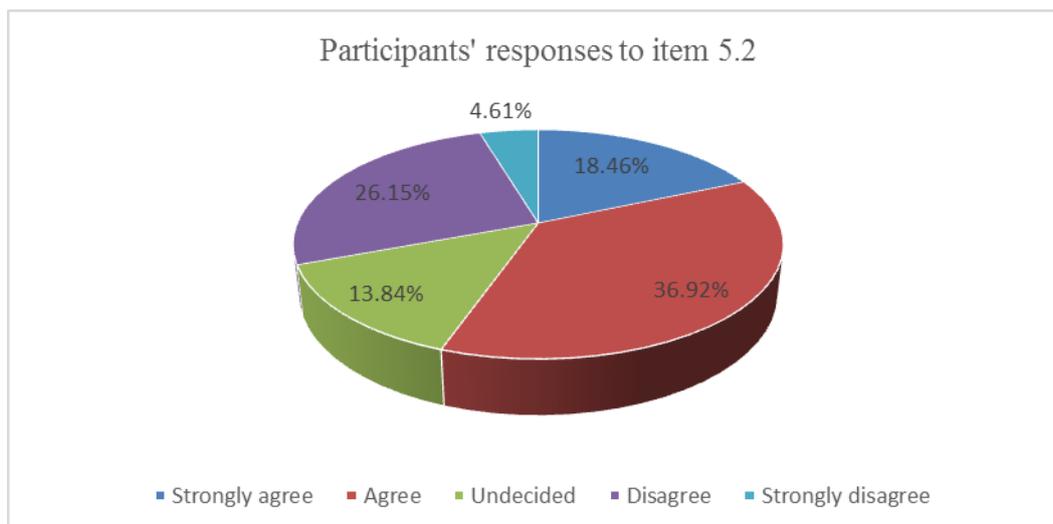
they can put their efforts in trying to look for adequacy and appropriateness for the communicative purpose defined in a specific translation assignment". In addition, these participants agreed that students used translation to review and edit their writing compositions because reviewing is a cognitive process which involves in this case the use of the students' own- language. Other informants tended to report negative beliefs about the above statement as they seemed to encourage the use of English only in completing the writing task in order to avoid any possible errors that might occur when integrating the mother tongue in this respect.

Item5.2. Translation is used to extend students' background knowledge and enrich their linguistic competence that enables them to develop their writing in English.

Table14: Teachers' responses to the role of translation is extending students' background knowledge and enriching their linguistic competence.

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	12	24	9	17	3
Percentage (%)	18.46 %	36.92 %	13.84 %	26.15 %	4.61 %

When asked about the role of translation in extending students' background knowledge and enriching their linguistic competence, 18, 46% of the informants strongly agreed with this view and 36.92% of them chose to agree only. On the other hand, about 26.15 % disagreed and only 4.61% strongly disagreed with this idea. As the results show, 13.84% of the respondents were undecided about this statement.

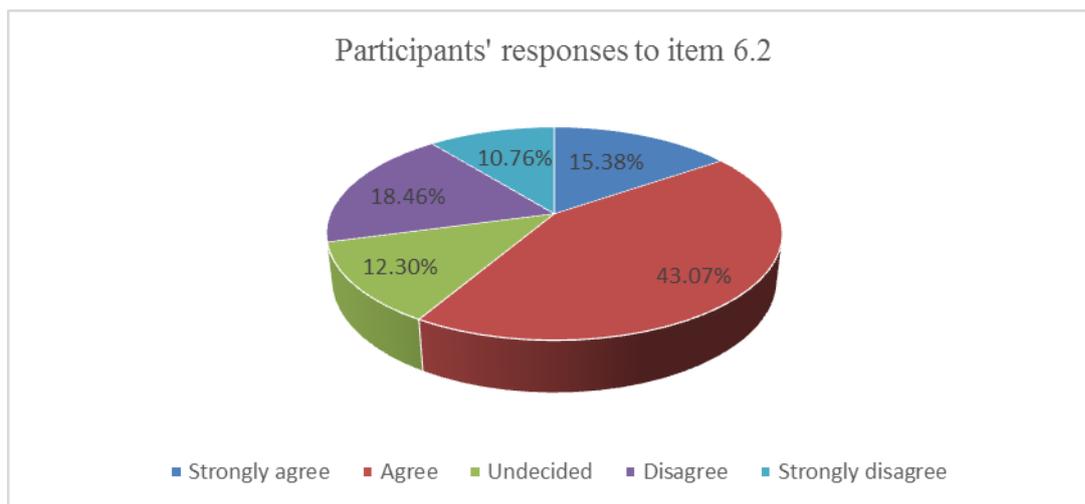


The participants who expressed a positive response to this view believed that translation was an act of communication across cultures because it is a natural activity that takes place in the real world (see Fernandez- Guerra, 2014) where learners can learn new ideas and experiences. Duff (1989) asserts that translation, if properly used, can be used to improve the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, and it enhances accuracy, clarity and flexibility. Besides, learners are exposed to different text types, registers, styles and contexts which help them develop their linguistic and communicative competence.

Item 6.2. Students translate their thoughts using their first language. This particular process helps them transpose these ideas into English when asked to produce a piece of writing.

Table 6.2: Teachers' responses to the usefulness of translation in transposing students' ideas from L1 into English when writing

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	10	28	8	12	7
Percentage (%)	15.38 %	43.07 %	12.30 %	18.46 %	10.76 %



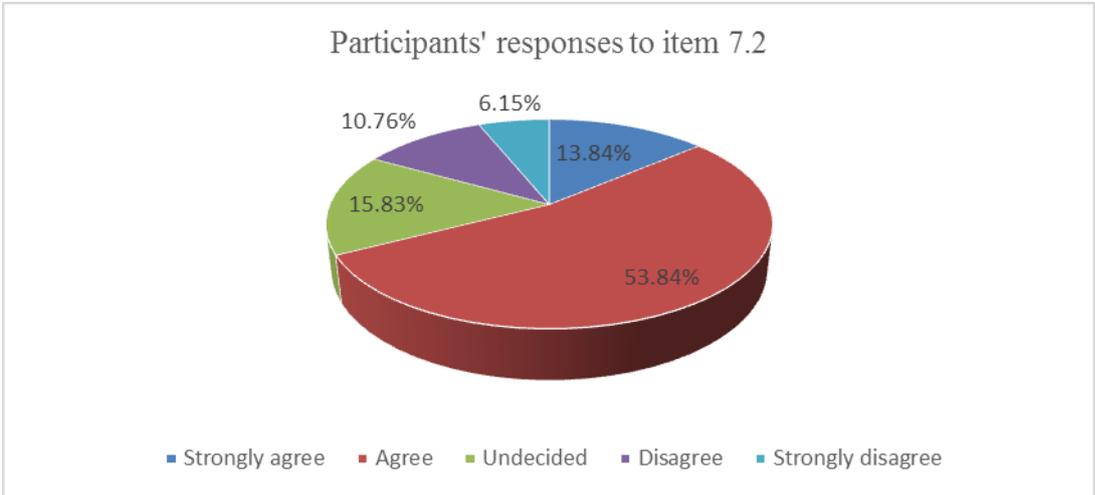
The table above summarizes the results of the item 6.2. in the questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers. It shows that 15.38 % of them strongly agreed with the view that purports that students translated their thought using their first language when writing in English, a process that helps them transpose these ideas into the foreign language when they are asked to produce a piece of writing. 43.07 % agreed with this idea. In contrast, 18.46% of the participants disagreed with this view whereas others (10.76%) expressed their strong disagreement about it.12.30% of them were undecided as far as the statement is concerned. The teachers who agreed that students translated their thoughts using their first language when writing in English were aware that thinking in the mother tongue was a natural and an unavoidable activity in EFL classroom whether the teacher allowed it or not, which would confirm the results presented by a number of the authors such as Duff (1989), Cook (2013) Kerr (2014). Teachers can control which language their students speak in the classroom, but they can never force them to think in the foreign language. In addition, students consider translation in this respect one of the most effective and preferred language learning strategies that facilitate their writing process as they can transpose ideas into English when they are asked to produce a piece of writing (see Atkinson, 1987) . In fact, students use their native language to guide and direct their thinking about the new language and during language tasks as it is noted by

Cook (2013). Furthermore, the student’s mother tongue, as it is asserted by Kerr, is the most important resource that students rely on to learn new knowledge. In this respect, Vygotsky points out that “*learning a new language necessarily involves the use of one’s own language as a ‘mediator’ between the world of objects and the new language*”. (Vygotsky ed. Kozulin, 1986: 161 in Kerr, 2014:5).

Item7.2. When translation is used purposefully, students learn comparatively. Thus, typical errors caused by negative first language transfer can be avoided.

Table7.2: Teachers’ responses to the usefulness of translation in helping students learn comparatively resulting in the avoidance of negative L1 transfer errors.

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	9	35	10	7	4
Percentage (%)	13.84 %	53.84 %	15.83 %	10.76 %	6.15 %



As the table above indicates, 53.84% of the participants reported that they agreed with the idea that if translation were used purposefully, students would learn comparatively. Thus, typical mistakes caused by negative first language transfer could be avoided. 13.84 % of the respondents strongly believed in the usefulness of translation in

avoiding interference errors. Additionally, 15.83% were undecided as to the importance of translation in this respect, whereas over 16.91% of the respondents (16.92 % disagreed and 7.69 % strongly disagreed) answered negatively to this statement.

The results obtained showed that 67.68% of teachers subscribed to the view that translation helped students learn comparatively. Therefore, many errors occurred due to negative transfer would be avoided. This idea confirms Widdowson's view (2003:23) that *"the activity of comparing and contrasting the L1 with the target language is a manner of promoting language awareness"*. In the same vein, Ali (2012) in Fernández -Guerra (2014:156), notes that learners always view the foreign language through their own-language, thus they always naturally tend to use translation. Similarly, these participants subscribed to the same view as Kavaliauskienė and Kaminskienė (2007) who claim that *"learners will automatically compare both languages involved, either consciously or unconsciously, so it is pointless to try to avoid their internal thinking in L1 and code-switching between L1 and L2, since it is regarded as naturally developmental* (in Fernández -Guerra , 2014:156). In fact, translation raises students' awareness of the similarities and the differences between their mother tongue and English which enables them to acquire the difficult structures in the new language. In addition, Kerr (2014:5) suggests that the best and the most effective way to deal with "negative transfer" is to compare the two languages directly. Along the same lines, Sousa (2011:24) states that neuroscience proves that *"the initial acquisition of new words in a foreign language depends on the association of these items with corresponding own- language items in the learners' memory"* (in Kerr, 2014:5).

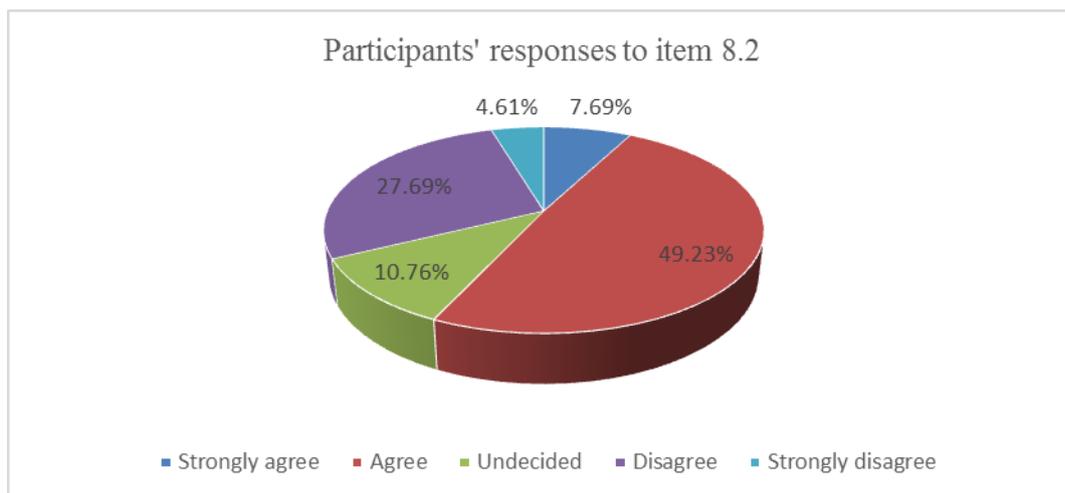
Other teachers who supported the monolingual approach to teaching English were against this idea as they thought that learning English through translation would never help students get used to the “spirit”, borrowing Berlitz’s (1916:4 in Kerr, 2014) words, of the foreign language and they would rather base all their learning on their mother tongue. Besides, they believed that the use of translation certainly led to negative transfer where the students would wrongly think that there was a perfect correspondence between the two languages which, in fact, is a wrong belief. Teachers who disagreed with this idea believed that students’ errors in writing have been unquestionably made because of such negative transfer. Other teachers did not have any opinion about this statement.

Item 8.2. Translation makes students aware of language elements and their functions.

Table 8.2: Teachers’ responses to the role translation in raising students’ awareness of language elements and their functions

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	5	32	7	18	3
Percentage (%)	7.69 %	49.23 %	10.76 %	27.69 %	4.61 %

The table above shows that more than half of the survey respondents believed that translation made students aware of both language elements and their communicative functions, with 49.23% of the participants agreeing with this view and 7.69% strongly agreeing. In contrast, the second half of them had differing views as to the importance of translation in this respect, with 10, 76% undecided, 27.69% of them disagreeing and only 4.61% strongly disagreeing.



The findings illustrate that more than half of the teachers who took part in the questionnaire thought that through translation students would be aware of both language elements and functions. In a translation task, learners have to take into account meaning. In fact, much attention should be given to the choice of the appropriate words and their functions when translating. These two principles are relevant to all kinds of translation in the sense that the translated text should be reflective of the meaning of the original text appropriately and clearly. Additionally, the ordering of words and the sequencing of ideas is another principle in translation that should be emphasized to ensure that the source text and the target text are as close as possible.

It seems from the above discussion that translation raises the students' awareness of both language elements and their functions. Thus, they can produce coherent pieces of writing with an appropriate choice of words and expressions that serve the intended communicative purposes. So, working from and into the students' native language can naturally draw explicit attention to the form and the meaning of the text. In support of this view, Duff (1989:7) points out that:

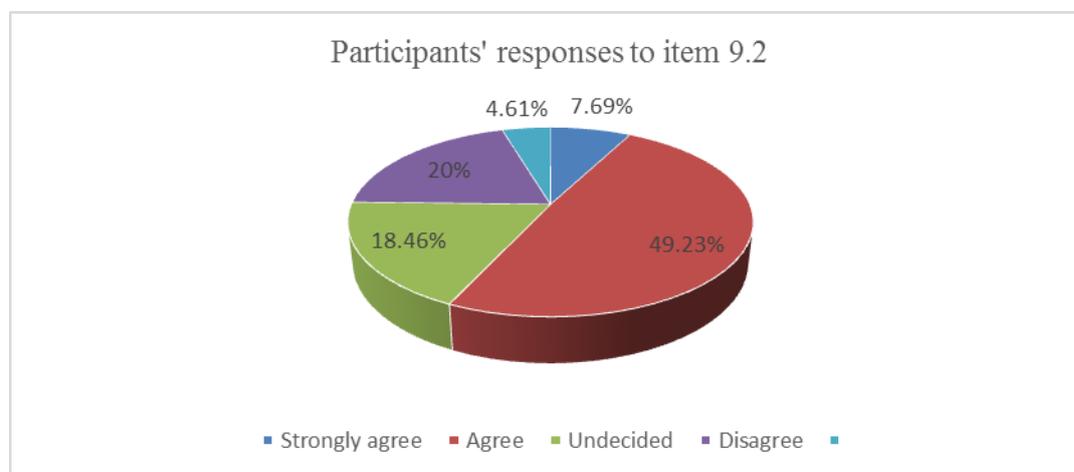
“depending on the students' needs, and on the syllabus, the teacher can select the material to illustrate particular aspects of language and structure with which the students

have difficulty in English: for instance, prepositions, articles, if-clauses, and the passive). By working through these difficulties in their mother tongue, the students come to see the link between language (grammar) and usage”

Item 9.2. Students will be aware of the different types of styles and registers when translation is utilized appropriately in the classroom.

Table 9.2: Teachers’ responses to the role of translation in raising students’ awareness of the different types of styles and registers

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	5	32	12	13	3
Percentage (%)	7.69 %	49.23 %	18.46 %	20 %	4.61%



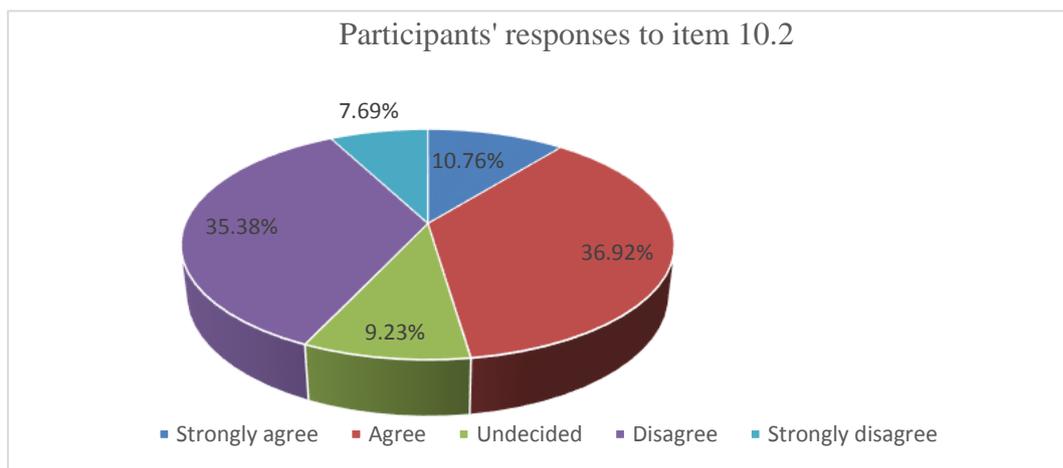
When they were asked whether students would be aware of the different types of styles and registers if translation were utilized appropriately in EFL classroom, about half of the survey respondents were receptive to this idea (with 7.69% strongly agreeing and 49.23% agreeing). However, 18.46% did not give any opinion. 20% of the teachers did not agree with this view. Some of them (4.61%) even strongly disagreed with this statement.

Clearly, half of the teachers who contributed to this study thought that students would be aware of the different types of styles and registers if translation were used appropriately in the EFL classroom because they believed that the teaching material would be varied and selected according to the students' needs. Translation texts would be of different types (argumentative, narrative, expository, descriptive, and instructive) with different styles (formal, informal). In addition, translation, the teachers thought, could expose students to varieties of text types and registers according to variations in the field, tenor and mode, which, in fact, reflect how languages are used in real-life situations for communicative purposes. Thus, students' lexical knowledge would be improved when integrating translation purposefully in the EFL classroom. Teachers who showed a negative perception towards this view believed that translation could not improve students' knowledge of language registers and styles as it seemed that they related translation only to code-switching and never thought that it could be a systematic and a purposeful pedagogical aid through which they could consolidate students' knowledge and skills of the foreign language.

Item 10.2. Students will be aware of both cohesion, coherence and the sequencing of ideas in both languages when they are exposed to translation activities

Table 10.2: Teachers' responses to role of translation in foregrounding cohesion and coherence in the source and the target language

Options	S. agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. disagree
Participants	7	24	6	23	5
Percentage (%)	10.76 %	36.92 %	9.23 %	35.38 %	7.69 %



Survey responses focusing on whether or not students would be aware of cohesion, coherence and the sequencing of ideas in both languages when they were exposed to translation activities illustrate that 10.76 % of the informants strongly agreed with this idea. About 36.92 % of them agreed that translation activities were useful in this respect. However, some of them gave a negative answer to this item, (with 35.38 % disagreed and 7.69 % strongly disagreed). Besides, 9.23% of the respondents were undecided as to this particular use of translation.

Teachers who agreed that translation activities made students aware of cohesion, coherence and the sequencing of ideas in both languages believed that translation encouraged noticing which enabled learners to be aware of cohesive devices that made the text coherent and organized. It should be noted that even at the level of sentences, translation draws students' attention to particular stylistic aspects and allows them to emphasize cohesion and coherence in their written production as they are aware of the importance of both elements in producing an effective piece of writing.

Translation activities involve making decisions at both the reading and the reviewing stage in order to guarantee successful textual connectivity. Moreover, textual organization entails that the structure of the text is an important feature in translation.

This particular element is needed in writing in a foreign language. Clearly, while some teachers disagreed with the view that translation raises students' awareness of cohesion, coherence and the sequencing of ideas in both languages, others subscribed to the view that translation can fulfill this function as cohesion and coherence are two basic features that bind the translated text together and any mishandling of these elements affects the meaning of the text.

Item 11: What do you think of devoting one hour to practise translation activities so as to consolidate some language points and skills?

The last item in the questionnaire that was addressed to secondary school teachers working, as mentioned before, in different cities in Algeria, was an open question exploring teachers' overall attitudes as to the implementation of one hour a week to practise purposeful translation activities in order to consolidate some language aspects that have been covered in the classroom and develop language skills that enable students to achieve progress in their writing performance. Such a question required an additional comment that teachers added, which aimed at investigating their beliefs about the real practice and the integration of translation in the classroom after having explored their views towards translation use in an EFL context from a theoretical perspective.

The findings shows that the majority of teachers (73.84%) explicitly advocated the use of translation activities in the EFL classroom to improve language skills. They agreed with the idea of devoting one hour a week to practise some purposeful and well-planned activities in the hope of consolidating language components that students found difficult to understand in previous lessons. The attitudinal data suggest that teachers had various and complex attitudes towards devoting that weekly additional hour. The vast

majority of them clearly believed that, if used purposefully, translation activities could facilitate the learning process especially in introducing new vocabulary, grammar rules, and promoting communication skills. Besides, participants agreed that students would be more motivated and excited when they were introduced to translation activities. In addition, the teachers surveyed thought that the importance of translation lied in determining the students' weaknesses in the foreign language, a technique that could give them the opportunity to both identify the common errors and suggest remedial exercises to overcome their students' deficiencies particularly in writing. Some of the survey respondents suggested that translation activities could be given to learners as home work while others believed that translation could be assigned during the English class without the need for one hour to practise these activities. On the other hand, some respondents judged translation negatively; thus, they disagreed with the idea of devoting one hour a week to practice translation activities. Examining the data in more detail reveals that some teachers perceived the role of translation in an EFL classroom less significant, if not unhelpful at all, as an aid to promote the teaching-learning process. According to these participants, translation is a time-consuming activity that deprives the students of opportunities to use English. Besides, they viewed that teachers would better rely on other tools such as visual aids and dictionaries to convey the input rather than using translation in which students would not be assessed in their Baccalaureate exam.

The attitudinal data also seem to indicate that these teachers were against the use of translation activities in an EFL classroom, which explains their disagreement with the view of integrating translation activities in the form of one hour a week to promote the learning of the foreign language. And yet, as the survey findings surprisingly show, the teachers, in varying degrees, made use of translation in their English classes. This

paradoxical answer seemed to reflect, on the one hand, the guilt these teachers felt when using their students' native language. On the other hand, the responses may indicate their conviction that translation was not always useful, but in some aspects of the lesson such as the teaching of vocabulary in particular, as they reported.

The data also reveal that these teachers had a very restricted and superficial view of translation due to their ignorance of the current views of translation in the field of language teaching as well as of its positive implications in this particular area as many theorists have evidenced. Evidently, their answers reported that they saw translation as a form of code-switching only. Consequently, teachers thought that using translation (native language use) would encourage students not to speak the language they are learning as the time spent to use it was supposedly the time to use the foreign language.

5.2. Students' Error Identification and Categorization

The researcher has detected many intralingual and interlingual errors in the students' translations. These errors have been taken from different translated texts randomly and classified according to their types and possible sources based on data analysis and the researcher's experience with the students who participated in this study. Each category of errors is discussed and illustrated.

First, samples of the linguistic errors that are identified in the students' translated texts are examined and discussed. The types of linguistic errors that are detected in this study include: grammatical, morphological, syntactic, inappropriate word form. Then, translation errors are identified after reexamining the third year students' texts. This category includes both the errors that reflect the learners' inability to understand the source text (comprehension errors) and those that occurred due to the student's inability to replace the meaning of the source text into the target text (translation errors). It is impossible to have a clear cut between linguistic and translation errors in that the same error may be categorized under both types. The discussion of the detected errors will be accompanied by examples in an attempt to summarize all the possible and the common systemic errors made by third year FL students. This can help the teacher suggest remedial tasks and strategies in order for these students to avoid these errors in their writing.

5.2.1. Linguistic Errors

5.2.1.1. Morphological Errors

The morphological errors identified in this study are divided into two types: errors related to nouns and errors related to verbs. Each subcategory is divided into subtypes which

are discussed with examples from the students' translations of the different texts with which they have been provided.

a. Nouns

Addition of a plural marker

This type of morphological error occurs when students add the plural marker "s" to singular nouns or irregular plurals that do not take "s", such as the words *advice*, and *sheep*. Here are some examples of this type of morphological errors that students made substantially in their translations:

1. The **brains** retrieve the previous experience.

يسترجع الدماغ التجربة السابقة.

2. It is related to the way our brain treat **informations**.

فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات.

3. The brain didn't treat it in the same **moments**.

الدماغ لم يعالجه في ذات اللحظة.

In the first and the third example, the words *brains* and *moments* are singular in the original text and no plural marker precedes both of them. However, some students translated them as plural nouns. The word "*informations*" in the second example is an irregular plural that does not end with the plural marker "s". Due to lack of knowledge of plurality, students made such kind of errors in their texts.

Omission of a plural marker

This kind of errors occurs when the plural marker "s" is omitted at the end of the plural nouns such as in the following examples:

1. When we see that thing for the second time after few **second**....

لكن عندما نرى ذلك الشيء للمرة الثانية بعد ثوان قليلة...

2. Among these **factor**, we can mention the white color on the walls.

من هذه العوامل يمكننا ذكر اللون الأبيض.

Though the quantifier ‘few’ and the demonstrative pronoun ‘these’ are considered as markers that precede both words ‘second’ and ‘factor’ and that have been correctly translated in these examples, students omitted the plural marker “s” in both words. This type is a common error that students made due to fossilization though they knew the rules of plurality.

The incorrect use of possessive case

The incorrect use of the possessive case is one of the morphological errors that students make when they fail in applying the correct rule as they confuse between the possessive case of a singular word and that of a plural word. In addition, students do not know that the possessive cannot be created in the first part of a compound word of an open form type. Below is an example of this type of errors:

- The observer of the exam can see all the computers’s screens.

يمكن لمراقب الامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر.

In the sentence above, though the student succeeded in making the right choice to translate the sentence, he failed in expressing the possessive case correctly as he/she added the “s” to the first word of the compound noun (highlighted above), which is morphologically incorrect in that the compound noun does not need the form of the possessive case such as the apostrophe and the ‘s’ , and can simply be translated as ‘the computer screens’ with the addition of the plural marker’s’ in the end of its last part.

b. Verbs

Inappropriate verb construction

This type of error refers to the inability to correctly form a verb according to its function in the sentence where it is mentioned.

1. Will **happened**

سيحدث....

2. The exam's room will be **organize**.

ستكون غرفة الإمتحان منظمة.

In both cases the students failed in using the correct form of the verbs in bold. This inappropriate construction of the verbs 'to happen' and 'to organize' in the future reflects that the students confused the future simple tense with the perfect tense in which two parts are used to form one verb (to be + past participle). In this case, the student used the past participle with the modal "will" instead of the stem *happen* and used the infinitive form of the verb "to organize" in the future passive where he/she should use the past participle 'ed' based on the rule (will+ be+ past participle). This reflects the students' lack of knowledge of verb construction. Though it is a morphological error that has to do with *-ed* (a suffix added at the end of regular verbs in the past simple tense or the past participle), it can be considered as a grammatical error because of its relation to the verb tense. This error, it should be noted, could possibly affect the sentence structure and meaning, especially if the student uses a tense that he/she thinks was the right one used by the original writer.

Omission of the third person "s"

The Students made errors related to the omission of the third person "s" as illustrated in the examples below:

1. The brain **expect** them.

يتوقعها الدماغ.

2. It **take** us to a result of what we are going to see.

يوصلنا إلى نتيجته قبل أن نرى فعليا ما سيحصل.

Though the two verbs “*expect*” and “*take*” are singular forms for singular subjects “*the brain*”, “*it*”, some students used the plural form of the verbs instead. This is a systemic error that is made not only in students’ translations but also in their writing assignments. It can be clearly observed that the second example includes another type of errors (literal translation) that will be discussed according to its category.

5.2.1.2. Grammatical Errors

Grammar is undoubtedly an essential language system that many students find difficult and challenging due to the language (s) to which they have been exposed before studying the foreign language. If language grammar is controlled through having a considerable basic knowledge, good pieces of writing will be produced. Though grammar usage is one of the most important aspects on which both curriculum designers and secondary school teachers of English have at all times focused, most errors committed by students in their translations were related to this aspect. This category of errors occurs in different word classes such as adjectives, adverbs, articles, tenses and so on. The following are examples of grammatical errors that have been detected in the students’ translated texts and classified according to their types and discussed below.

a. Adjectives

Misuse / Misplacement of adjectives

1. The pharaohs built a **strong central** government and **stable**.

قام الفرعنة بإنشاء حكومة مركزية قوية و مستقرة.

1. These buildings **huge** still in front of our eyes.

هذه المباني الضخمة لازالت أمام أعيننا.

2. In the brain, there is a device **complete** that always tells us about our location.

في الدماغ يوجد جهاز ملاحاة متكامل يقوم بإعلامنا دائما بمكان وجودنا.

These examples illustrate the misuse of adjectives in the students' translations in that they lacked the ability to order the adjectives that come before a noun. They relied on literal translation to render the original sentences into the target language. Thus, errors in the sequencing of adjectives occurred. In English, adjectives precede nouns unlike Arabic, in which adjectives follow nouns and agree with them in number and gender. The Arabic sentences above illustrate that students were influenced by the rules of Arabic when translating into English, especially when they failed to order and join the adjectives where the second adjective should be connected with the last adjective by *and*. So, students' native language was the reason why many of them committed this error in their written production. It should be noted that the focus here is on the misplacement of adjectives. The other types of errors will be discussed according to their type later.

b. Adverb

Misuse/ Misplacement of adverbs

1. There is a complete device that tells us **always** about our location.

في الدماغ يوجد جهاز ملاحاة متكامل يقوم بإعلامنا دائما بمكان وجودنا.

2. We feel **immediately** that we have seen it **already**.

فنشعر على الفور أنه سبق لنا رؤيته.

3. We have done experiments with a number of students **in earlier**.

لقد قمنا بتجارب مع عدد من المتقدمين للإمتحانات في وقت سابق.

The misplacement of the adverb in the first and the second example is again an evidence of transfer in that adverbs in Arabic come after verbs. What the students did was to literally translate the sentences. Thus, they used the Arabic word order in their English translations. This error, the researcher observed, is of a high frequency of occurrence in students' writing in general though they have been introduced to word order at an early stage of foreign language learning. The third example illustrates a misuse of the adverb "earlier" which, once again, was translated literally from the original text "في وقت سابق".

c.Article

Misuse of article

Definite and indefinite articles are one of the most difficult grammatical aspects for EFL students. Celce- Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999:87) note that:

"Articles are believed to be a source of difficulty for both learners and teachers of English as a second/foreign language, especially for those whose native languages do not have articles or article-like morphemes which are used in ways that differ from English articles"

Article misuse is another common error that students made in their translations. This can be clearly shown in the following examples:

1. The processing of information occurs with the intervention of memory which relates the visual and the hearing effects with **an** other events we have seen in the past.

معالجة المعلومات تحدث بتدخل الذاكرة التي تعمل على ربط المؤثرات المرئية أو المسموعة مع أحداث أخرى رايناها في الماضي.

The above sentence reveals a misuse of the article 'an' with the plural noun "events" in the sense that the student added the indefinite article 'an' where it was not necessary, in addition to the fact that 'an' can be added only to singular nouns. A re-examination of the

error above indicates that the student used the indefinite article with a definite noun “*events*”. This error is due to the first language interference as they were giving the equivalent native language structure (مع احداث اخرى). In fact, the article system in Arabic is similar to that of English in terms of meaning. However, these two systems are highly different in from. This type of errors may also be the result of the students’ inadequate knowledge of the article system of the target language.

Omission of article (indicated by the **X** symbol)

1. The observer of the exam can watch all **X** computer screens that the examiners are using.

يمكن لمراقب اللامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للامتحان.

2. The first use of **the** technology in an official exam is **X** very important event in Scotland.

أول استخدام للتكنولوجيا في إمتحان رسمي هو حدث في غاية الأهمية في اسكتلندا.

The student in these examples omitted the definite article “*the*” and the indefinite article “*a*” before the words “*computer*” and the adverb “*very*”, which modifies the adjective “*important*”. This means that he/she may not know when and when not to use articles. This error may occur due to the students’ poor knowledge of the English article system, which is different from that of their native language as well as the negative transfer of their native language itself.

Addition of articles

The first use of **the** technology in an official exam is **X** very important event in Scotland.

أول استخدام للتكنولوجيا في إمتحان رسمي هو حدث في غاية الأهمية في اسكتلندا.

The student added the definite article “*the*” to the word “*technology*”, which is a representative of a class of tools, materials and systems. This student made an analogy of the

Arabic word and its equivalent in English (*technology*), which was written with the definite article “*الـ*”. The student’s failure to understand the use of article may be related to the effect of their native language, whose system of articles is different from that of the foreign language.

d. Conjunctions

Addition of conjunctions

1. The exam observer can watch all the computer screens that students use for the exam **and** *this* to ensure the fairness of the exam results and to avoid any cases of cheating.

يمكن لمراقب اللامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للامتحان و ذلك لضمان عدالة النتائج و لمنع أية حالات غش.

2. 120 Scottish students will pass the exam of Biotechnology in different schools with questions of multiple answers **and that** on computers connected to the internet.

سيقوم 120 تلميذا من اسكتلندا بالتقدم للامتحانات في مادة التكنولوجيا البيولوجية في مدارس مختلفة بأسلوب الأسئلة متعددة اللإجابات و ذلك على أجهزة الكمبيوتر.

In both examples, the student added the coordinating conjunction “*and*” where it was not necessary. This illustrates a word-for- word translation technique which was used by the student, a reason that this kind of grammatical errors was recurrent in other translations.

e. Prepositions

Inappropriate choice of preposition

1.120 students from Scotland will pass the exam of Biotechnology in different schools **with** the form of questions **of** multiple answers.

سيقوم 120 تلميذا من اسكتلندا بالتقدم للامتحانات في مادة التكنولوجيا البيولوجية في مدارس مختلفة بأسلوب الأسئلة متعددة الإجابات و ذلك على أجهزة الكمبيوتر.

3. This tool can be used to connect to the skype program **by** your PC.

يمكن استخدام هذه الأداة للوصل على برنامج الإتصال Skype على كمبيوترك.

4. Their response was great **with** this process. وقد كان تجاوبهم رائع مع العملية.

The misuse of prepositions is a very common error that students made in their translations. Most of these errors were caused by interference from Arabic. Not all the prepositions in Arabic have their equivalents in English. The students who made these errors were likely influenced by their native language in that they translated the prepositions literally from Arabic into English, such as in the use of ‘with’, ‘by’, ‘with’ respectively in examples 1, 2, 3 instead of ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘towards’. Moreover, the addition of the preposition ‘of’ in the first example reflects the students’ lack of linguistic competence that enables them to form a meaningful and correct phrase such as “*in the form of multiple-answer questions*” instead of “*with the form of questions of multiple answers*”.

Addition of prepositions

1. We have done an experiment with a number of students **in** earlier.

لقد قمنا بتجارب مع عدد من المتقدمين للامتحانات في وقت سابق.

Some students added the preposition “*in*” before the adverb “*early*” because of the word-for-word translation from Arabic into English that they have performed.

Omission of prepositions

1. It can also record a video **X** no more than 30 seconds.

يمكن أيضا تصوير فيديو بمقاطع لا تزيد عن 30 ثانية.

1. It can also store **X** thousand mp3 songs.

يمكن تخزين ما يقارب الألف أغنية من نوع MP3.

In the examples 1 and 2, the students omitted the prepositions 'of' and 'of about' which occurred, due possibly to their lack of prepositional knowledge in English in addition to the influence of Arabic in that the student translated the first sentence literally from Arabic into English "لا تزيد عن 30 ثانية".

f. Pronouns

Addition of Pronouns

1. This phenomenon **it** is only the processing of information that occurs through the intervention of the memory which connect the visual or the audio effects with other events we saw **them** or the brain tries to imagine **them** before it sees them.

هذه الظاهرة ماهي إلا معالجة للمعلومات تحدث بتدخل الذاكرة التي تعمل على ربط المؤثرات المرئية أو المسموعة مع أحداث أخرى رأيناها في الماضي أو قام الدماغ بمحاولة تخيلها قبل رؤيتها لها.

In the example above, the student added the pronouns written in bold where it was not necessary due to literal translation from Arabic into English.

Misuse of pronouns

1. It is related to the way our brain processes the information which **he** had received.

فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله.

2. The brain didn't treat **him** in the same moment.

الدماغ لم يعالجه في ذات اللحظة.

3. The brain has predicted all these factors, which led **him** create this special feeling.

كل هذه العوامل توقعها الدماغ مسبقا مما أدى به إلى خلق ذلك الشعور الخاص .

The examples above illustrate the misuse of the pronouns in that students used the third person personal pronoun “*he*”, “*him*” to refer to non-human (*the brain*), which should be referred to as ‘*it*’.

Omission of pronouns

1. Psychologists assert that **X** has nothing to do with supernatural phenomena.

علماء النفس يؤكدون أن لا علاقة له بالظواهر الخارقة للطبيعة.

2. Psychologists call it Déjà vu (I have seen **X**) or Deja vécu (I lived **X** before).

علماء النفس يسمونه Déjà vu (رأيتَه من قبل) أو Déjà vécu (عشته من قبل).

Students omitted the pronoun ‘*it*’ in the two sentences above. This type of errors may occur due to the students’ inability to find equivalent translation to this pronoun in English.

g. Relative pronouns

The Inappropriate choice of relative pronoun

1. This discovery was done through experiments **who** have been done on mice.

تم التوصل الى هذا الاكتشاف بواسطة تجارب تم عملها على الفئران.

Using of the relative pronoun “*who*” instead of the pronoun “*that*” in the above example reveals the influence of the first language on the students’ translations.

h. Subject-verb agreement

This is one of the most common errors made by students, which occurs when the subject does not agree with the verb in terms of number and person. In Arabic, the subject agrees with the verb in gender, number and person. Below are some examples that illustrate this type of errors identified from the students’ translations:

1. **The brain do not** work like a machine. الدماغ لا يعمل كآلة.
2. **(.) things that is** around us. العوامل المحيطة بنا.
3. It is related to the way **our brain treat** the information which it receive. فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله.
4. **The process depend on** what we have seen. العملية تعتمد على ما رأيناه.

In the examples 1, 3. and 4 , the students omitted the “s” at the end of the verbs conjugated with the third person singular “do not”, “treat, receive” and “depend” while they used the singular form of the verb “to be” with the plural noun “things”. The possible reason why students used “s” after the plural form of verb and omitted the “s” at the end of singular form of verbs was likely due to the overgeneralization of the rule of plurality which involves adding the plural marker “s” with the plural form and omitting it with the singular form. However, this rule has to do with nouns, not verbs. Clearly, students seemed confused between the rule of plurality in nouns and the third person “s” with the singular form of verbs. In addition, some of them may be influenced by Arabic plurality that involves adding the plural marker to verbs where the subject is plural. This is one case where the students’ native language affects the use of English grammar.

i. Verbs

Omission of auxiliary

1. The exam observer can watch all the computer screens that **X** used by the students.

يمكن لمراقب اللامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي استخدمها المتقدمون للامتحان.

Inappropriate choice of tense

1. We **weren’t** never in that place before.

لم نكن في ذلك المكان أبدا من قبل.

2. It is related to the way our brain treats the information which it **had received**.

فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله.

3. Collela adds, "We **have** experiments with a number of students who will pass the exam".

كوليللا يضيف " لقد قمنا بتجارب مع عدد من المتقدمين للإمتحانات " .

Misplacement of the auxiliary

1. For the first time, **will be** the exam organized on the computer.

لأول مرة ستكون عملية الإمتحان منظمة على الكمبيوتر.

2. The brain predicts what **can** we see.

يقوم الدماغ بتوقع ما يمكن أن نراه.

The findings show that most of the students' errors are related to verb tense and form. Third year students, though they have been studying English for seven years, still find difficulties with how and when to use tenses in English. The types of errors drawn from students' translations are those related to the omission of auxiliaries, misplacement of auxiliaries, and inappropriate choice of tenses. Some errors may be justified by the incomprehensibility of grammar rules whereas others may have occurred due to the complexity of the verb tense and form. Unlike English, Arabic, it should be noted, has three tenses only. Some English verb tenses, such as the simple past tense, the future simple tense, the past perfect, present perfect and even the present simple tense, were not used correctly because of both the students' confusion between tenses and first language interference.

5.2.1.3. Syntactic errors

The findings summarize the different types of syntactic errors in the students' translations which were related to phrase, clause and sentence. Examples of these errors will be classified and discussed below.

a. Phrase structure

Inappropriate phrase construction

1. Before **arrive** قبل الوصول ...
2. Before **seen**..... قبل رؤية ...
3. We can see the white color on the walls and **in the clothing workers in the hospital**.

يمكننا ذكر اللون الأبيض على الجدران و في ملابس العاملين في المستشفى.

3. **The first using of technology** in an official exam is a very important event in Scotland.
أول استخدام للتكنولوجيا في إمتحان رسمي هو حدث في غاية الأهمية في اسكتلندا.

The syntactic errors made in the first and the second example resulted in an inappropriate phrase construction as the students used the verb “*arrive*” and the past participle “*seen*” after the adverb “*before*” instead of using the gerund form of both verbs. As to example 3, and 4, the students could not construct correct phrases due possibly to the lack of linguistic competence as well as to the literal translation (example3) they have performed.

Misordering

1. The exam observer will watch all the **screens computers**.
يمكن لمراقب الإمتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للإمتحان.
2. The **GPS mentioned** is available.
جهاز ال GPS المذكور موجود.

3. When we see the event for the second time **after minutes few**, the brain remembers the last experience.

عندما نرى ذلك الشيء للمرة الثانية بعد ...دقائق.....، يسترجع الدماغ التجربة السابقة.

Third year students, in an attempt to keep the meaning of the original text, made considerable errors in word order, especially in the placement of adjectives and quantifiers in English. The examples above show that the students were confused between the Arabic phrase structure and the English phrase structure. Thus, they used their first language in producing these sentences. Unlike in English, the adjective and the quantifier follow the noun in Arabic. The second and the third example can best illustrate this confusion. The first example shows a clear evidence of first language transfer in word order (شاشات الكمبيوتر).

b. Clause structure

Addition of subject/object

1. This phenomenon **it** is only the process of information.

هذه الظاهرة ماهي إلا عملية معالجة للمعلومات.

2. The first use of technology in an official exam **it's** a very important event in Scotland.

أول استخدام للتكنولوجيا في امتحان رسمي هو حدث في فاية الأممية في تحديث عملية الإمتحانات في اسكتلندا.

3. In other cases, we find that the process depends on what we see **it** quickly.

في حالات أخرى نجد أن العملية تعتمد على ما نراه بشكل سريع.

Once again, first language transfer can be shown in the three clauses taken from the students' translations. The addition of the subject "it" in the first and the second example as well as the object "it" in the last example clarifies the extent to which students were influenced by their native language to the point that they used its structure when translating.

In English, there is no need to repeat the subject as in example 1 where the student added “it”, the equivalent of “هي”, which is needed in the Arabic text.

Inappropriate clause construction

1. A strange feeling we feel it when we enter a particular place.

شعور غريب ينتابنا عند دخولنا لمكان معين.

2. 120 students from Scotland will get on exams of Biotechnology.

سيقوم 120 تلميذا من اسكتلندا بالتقدم للإمتحانات في مادة التكنولوجيا البيولوجية.

3. The brain not work like a machine.

الدماغ لا يعمل كآلة.

Such a syntactic error occurs when the student fails in building a clause that fits the conventions of English syntax either by choosing a structure that, though its word order is correct, does not convey the message of the original text or using a correct structure but with the wrong word order. In the three examples, the students used an inappropriate clause structure according to English syntax due to their word-for-word translation which is best illustrated in the third example (الدماغ لا يعمل كآلة).

Misordering

1. The pharaohs made a strong, central government and stable.

قام الفراعنة بإنشاء حكومة مركزية قوية ومستقرة.

2. Why the pyramids had been built?

لمادا تم بناء الإهرامات؟

3. For example, immediately we feel that we have seen it.

فنشعر على الفور أنه قد سبق لنا رؤيته.

The examples above show the students' failure in ordering the adjectives correctly, placing the adverb after the subject and before the verb, and his incomprehensibility of the question word order. Such errors were very common in the students' translations as well as in their writing assignments in general. These errors were the result of the students' lack of knowledge of language rules such as those of forming questions in English as well as to first language transfer.

Omission of the main verb

1. In other cases, we found that the operation **X** what we have seen quickly.

في حالات أخرى نجد أن العملية تعتمد على ما نراه بشكل سريع.

2. It is related to the way our brain **X** the information which it receives.

فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله.

In the examples 1 and 2, the main verbs “*relies on*” and “*processes*” were respectively skipped. This may reflect the students' inability to translate both verbs into English due to their poor linguistic competence.

Omission of subject

1. The psychologists call it *Déjà vu* (**X** saw it before) or *Déjà vécu* (**X** lived it before).

علماء النفس يسمونه *Déjà vécu* (رأيتَه من قبل) *Déjà vu* (عشته من قبل).

2. They assert that **X** has nothing to do with supernatural phenomena.

يؤكدون أن لا علاقة له على الإطلاق مع الظواهر الخارقة للطبيعة.

The subjects “*I*” and “*it*” respectively were omitted in both sentences 1 and 2. The influence of the source text language seems to result in the students' ignorance of the need to locate the subjects in their translations. In fact, in Arabic, there is no need to add the subject “*أنا*” to the verbs “*رأيت*” or “*عشت*” as the verbs themselves are expressive.

c. Sentence structure

Inappropriate choice of subject/object

1. The brain is not like a machine as we know. **He**, before arriving to a place or seeing an event, can expect what we can see.

الدماغ لا يعمل كآلة بالمفهوم المتعارف عليه، فهو قبل الوصول الى مكان ما أو قبل رؤية حدث ما، يقوم بتوقع ما يمكن أن نراه.

2. The brain did not treat **him** in the same moment because it didn't consider **him** an important detail.

الدماغ لم يعالجه في ذات اللحظة لعدم اعتباره من التفاصيل الهامة.

One of the most common errors that students committed is the inappropriate choice of subject and object. In the first example, the pronoun “*he*” was used to refer to a non-human instead of the pronoun “*it*”. This may be related to the source language, Arabic, in which the pronoun “هو”، which is the equivalent of “*he*” in English is used for both human and non-human objects. As to the second example, the student did not select the appropriate object pronoun to refer to “*what has been seen*”, he rather used the object pronoun that refers to a person. Once again, this error occurred because of the influence of students’ native language.

Inappropriate combination of the subject and the passive verb

1. Why **was pyramids** built and how **it** had been built?

لماذا تم بناء الأهرامات؟ كيف تم بناؤها؟

In the above sentence, the student failed in accurately combining the subject which is in the plural form “*Pyramids*” with the verb “*to be*” that has been conjugated with the third person singular. Besides, the student referred to the subject by using “*it*” which reflects the word “الأهرامات” in the source text with which a singular form of the verb *to be* is used with it

“كانت”. These errors occurred due to the considerable influence of Arabic in that the students translated the above sentence literally into English.

Inappropriate combination of two or more clauses

1. The exam observer sees all computer screens used by applicants for the exam **and to ensure the fairness of the results from cases of cheating.**

يمكن لمراقب اللامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للامتحان و ذلك لضمان عدالة النتائج و لمنع أية حالات غش.

2. This phenomenon is just a result of information treatment in the memory **works with visual effects or audio effects with other facts we had in the past or our brain tried to imagine before seeing it.**

هذه الظاهرة ماهي إلا معالجة للمعلومات تحدث بتدخل الذاكرة التي تعمل على ربط المؤثرات المرئية أو المسموعة مع أحداث أخرى رأيناها في الماضي أو قام الدماغ بمحاولة تخيلها قبل رؤيتها لها.

In the first sentence, the student failed to combine the two sentences appropriately in the sense that he used the coordinating conjunction “and” to link them instead of using an accurate connector to have a meaningful sentence. He could simply omit the conjunction “and” to have a correctly combination of the two clauses. As to the second example, the sentence looks ambiguous in that the target reader may not understand what the verb “works” refers to. In fact, this verb refers to the memory. Clearly, there is a need for a relative pronoun “that” which should precede the verb “works” to make this sentence meaningful. It should be noted that the focus in this example was on the inappropriate combination of the two clauses. Thus, no attention is paid to other types of errors that this translated sentence contains. Literal translation is again the source of the above errors.

is associated with the *communicative value* of an expression rather than its conceptual meaning. So, this study has to do with the speaker's meaning.

It is not an easy task to detect pragmatic errors in translation. This being said, one should first emphasize the cultural context that surrounds the source text and match it to that of the target text. Factors such as the writer or the speaker's intentions, where, when and under which conditions a particular source text has been produced should be taken into account. In addition to these factors, translators should be aware of several pragmatic aspects such as speech acts (acts of communication that perform particular functions) (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1979), implicatures (the inferred meanings from utterances), Grice's (1975) four maxims that people should follow to have efficient conversations (quality, quantity, relation and manner) and so on. Translation errors occur due mainly to the pragmatic differences between the source and the target language. Hatim and Mason (1991) assert that for the translator to end up with a better translation, he should create the same pragmatic effect of the source text on the target text. In this case study, the pragmatic differences between the source language (Arabic) and the target language (English) led third year foreign languages students to commit different errors of this category due to different reasons such as their unawareness of the importance of context or rather the pragmatic aspect in translation and, possibly, the lack of pragmatic knowledge of the source and/ or the target language. The current thesis discusses some pragmatic errors as part of translation errors students made in their translated texts. Consequently, there is no emphasis on the aspects of pragmatics in this discussion but on the role of context that was neglected by students in their translations. Some errors are discussed below:

1. The exam observer can see all the computer screens used by the students in order to ensure the fairness of the results **from any cases of fraud.**

يمكن لمراقب اللامتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للامتحان و ذلك لضمان عدالة النتائج و لمنع أية حالات غش.

In this example, the student's use of the word '*fraud*' seems ambiguous according to the context in which the original utterance has been used. He/she did not create a pragmatic equivalence between the source and the target text as he/she did not try to meet the target reader's comprehension needs. The student could achieve such needs by taking into account the pragmatic factors surrounding the source text and using them when translating into the target language. Though the role of context in which the source text has been produced is of considerable importance in this respect, the student did not pay any attention to it. Thus, he/she ended up with a translation that did not have the same impression the Arabic text writer had on his readers. Though it can be semantically acceptable in another context, the student should not use the word '*fraud*', which means 'a wrongful or criminal deception intended to result in financial or personal gain' (Oxford dictionary of English). He/ she could instead use the word "*cheating*" which is appropriate to the context of school exams. All that the student did was to transfer the linguistic meaning of the utterance from Arabic regardless of the cultural differences between both languages. Clearly, the lack of pragmatic knowledge and the neglect of context when translating resulted in such kind of errors made by some third year foreign languages students.

2. They assert that it has nothing to do with natural or metaphysical phenomena. It is related to **the way which cures our brain.**

Example 2 represents some students' translation of the Arabic sentence: ويؤكدون ان لا علاقة له على الاطلاق مع الظواهر الخارقة او الميتافيزيقية، فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات.

These students did not succeed in finding a correct equivalent of the source text in the target language. The target reader may think that the context of the sentence is related to the field of medicine due to the use of the noun phrase “*the way which cures our brain*”. Consequently, he/ she will be confused as he/she may , unsurprisingly, fail in making the link between what has been said before and what is said after this phrase. This ambiguity is resulted from the students’ ignorance of the contextual elements that surround the source text, to which more attention should be paid. Besides, the purely word-for word translation which reflects the students’ focus on the linguistic elements, without taking account the functions they serve, is considered the main reason behind the occurrence of such kind of errors.

5.2.2.2. Omission of some parts of the source text

This type of errors occurs when the translator makes some translation shifts such as skipping a part of the source text for some reasons that may be related to the clarification or simplification of the text linguistic structure which makes it more readable. This particular process can cause some errors that affect the meaning of the original. This thesis addresses the students’ errors that involve the omission of some parts of the source text not due to, as mentioned before, simplification of the text linguistic structure, but because some parts were difficult to be understood or translated. Most of the time, some words are intentionally omitted because of the students’ inability to find appropriate equivalents in the target language. Here are some examples of some parts that were omitted in the collected translations:

1. رائحة المطهر المستخدم في معظم الغرف،.....
2. ممرضة تمر امامنا بملابسها المعهودة،.....
3. تعمل على ربط المؤثرات المرئية أو المسموعة (أو تلك الخاصة برائحة معينة).....
4. فـجـهـاز الـGPS المـذـكـور مـوجـود في اقصى المنطقة الخلفية من الدماغ.

The omission of these parts that are taken from different text translations can affect the target readers' comprehension since all the sentences include some contextual elements that are needed for the texts to be better translated, particularly in the third example where the omitted sentence explains how the memory really works to process information. In fact, sentences 3 and 4 contain significant information that students thought redundant and could be omitted. Another possible reason behind the occurrence of these errors may be related to the fact that students, due to their lack of linguistic competence, failed in finding the appropriate words in the target language and intentionally skipped them in their translations.

5.2.2.3. Too literal translation

Most of the students who participated in this study made this type of errors which refers to word-for-word translation of the source text rather than sentence translation. The act of translating, in this respect, involves going beyond the mere surface structure and taking into account the pragmatic aspect of the text which helps in obtaining an accurate rendition of the original message. Many errors of this type were made by students some of which are discussed below:

1. It is linked to the way our brain fixes the information which comes to it.

- فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله.

2. Comes the phone with unusual colours.

يأتي هذا الهاتف بالوان غير تقليدية.

3. 120 students from Scotland will progress to the exam of Biotechnology.

سيقوم 120 تلميذا من إسكتلندا بالتقدم لامتحانات في مادة التكنولوجيا البيولوجية.

4. A strange feeling we feel it when we enter a particular place.

شعور غريب ينتابنا عند دخولنا لمكان معين.

The examples above show students' translations of some parts of the texts introduced to them in Arabic. The general impression that the target reader may have is that these translations are unnatural and do not respect the target language conventions, especially word order. Besides, words are combined together to serve communicative functions. Thus, any attempt to translate words of a particular source text in isolation will result in strange and inaccurate translation as illustrated in the examples above. Clearly, no attention was paid to the context in which the utterances occurred or their co-text (which refers to the linguistic environment which surrounds a word) which helps, to a large extent, limiting the sets of translation possibilities that a word may have.

5.2.2.4. Wrong lexical choice

This error occurs when the students fail in selecting the most appropriate word among the range of possibly similar but not interchangeable words that may exist in the target language. Though no method of translation was determined for the students in the sense that they had access to dictionaries and online translation aids, they showed some weaknesses in choosing the adequate equivalent of the source text such as in the following example:

1. The brain **reminds** the last experience.

يسترجع الدماغ التجربة السابقة.

2. The exam observer can watch all the computer screens students used in the exam to ensure the fairness of the results from any cases of **fraud**.

يمكن لمراقب الإمتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للإمتحان و ذلك لضمان

عدالة النتائج و لمنع اية حالات غش.

As indicated in examples 1 and 2, the students made substantial errors of this type in their translations where they could not select the appropriate word especially among many synonyms or words of similar meaning. The verb “*reminds*” is inaccurately used in the first example to mean *يسترجع* in Arabic, which is not the appropriate equivalent. In the second example, the student used the word “*fraud*”, which is one of the good examples of inappropriate lexical choice to mean “*cheating*”. Such kind of errors was committed because of the students’ lack of linguistic competence.

Conclusion

As shown in the discussion above, this chapter was devoted to the analysis of the questionnaire findings that were divided into two parts. The first part was designed to explore the teachers’ attitudes towards translation in an EFL context in general. The second part was particularly devoted to investigating their responses towards the use of translation to improve students’ writing skill. The findings showed that teachers generally had positive attitudes towards using translation in EFL classroom, but they did not know when and how this teaching tool can be used. The teachers’ responses were illustrated through pie graphs. The second source of data was the students’ translation of different texts from Arabic into English. This chapter summarized students’ errors and classified them according to Na Pham’s (2005) taxonomy of errors. The error analysis model used by the author was that of Corder (1967). This Chapter also discussed the most illustrative examples from the students’ translations to analyse the significant kinds of errors they made. In this respect, data showed that students committed linguistic as well as translation errors. Comprehension errors ,which occurred when students misread or misunderstood a word or structure in the source text and came up with a wrong translation in the target language, were not found due possibly to the fact that

third year foreign languages students translated texts from their native language (Arabic) into English. Linguistic errors (morphological errors, grammatical errors, syntactic errors) along with translation errors (pragmatic errors, omission of some parts of the source text, literal translation errors and wrong lexical choice errors) were discussed through examples taken from the students' translated texts.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the findings and the conclusions drawn from the last two chapters. The first part of the practical study has dealt with the analysis of the questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers to explore their attitudes towards the use of translation as a pedagogical aid in the EFL classroom in general and its role in enhancing the students' writing skill in particular. To tackle this point, sixty five (65) secondary school teachers have participated in a questionnaire that was divided into two parts the first of which aimed at answering the following question: What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of translation in EFL classroom?

6.1. General Findings and Conclusions

The examination of the teachers' questionnaire shows that the majority of teachers (88%) reported using translation, which they considered an important pedagogical resource that could improve EFL learning. However, some of them noted that some inspectors did not permit its use in the EFL classroom, justifying their position by the overuse of translation on the part of inexperienced teachers at the expense of the use of English.

The majority of teachers agreed that translation was an unavoidable activity in teaching English as a foreign language. In fact, they believed that translation was a natural phenomenon (as in Danchev, 1982; Leonardi, 2011) that caused no harm to foreign language learning. Half of them reported being confident and comfortable when integrating translation in their daily teaching practice. However, others had a negative view of the notion of confidence while using translation considering it an indicator of the teacher's lack of

competence. Thus, they would strongly support a monolingual method of teaching English particularly when teaching students with a high level of language proficiency. Though the Ministry of Education has issued a decree in July, 2010 allowing and promoting the use of pedagogical translation on account of its relevance to improving EFL learning, some teachers were still hesitant about the extent of translation use in their classrooms. This was largely due to the reservation expressed by inspectors as to the use of translation, a position which considerably encouraged English-only teaching. Half of the teachers who participated in this study supported the daily use of translation at certain points in the lesson (as in Fernandez Guerra, 2014).

The vast majority of teachers reported that their students enjoyed learning when they integrated translation in their EFL classroom as it helped them understand the teaching material. Consequently, students would be able to participate in the different classroom practices either individually, in pairs, or in groups (as in Carreres, 2006), creating and maintaining a good peer relationship due to the healthy classroom atmosphere and the familiarity students would feel when their teachers made use of their native language in the foreign language classroom. The second part of the questionnaire sought to address the usefulness of translation in developing students' writing skill. Some conclusions are summarized as follows:

Half of the teachers who participated in this study believed that translation was a valid and an effective instrument of instruction. These teachers seemed receptive to the new approach that attempts to restore translation in language teaching. Translation, they believed, saved time and facilitated their teaching tasks as it helped learners to grasp the difficult parts in the lesson quickly and in an explicit manner, which not only allowed for a conscious learning of the foreign language but also helped students assess whether or not their comprehension was correct as many studies suggested (Shiyab and Abdullateef, 2001;

Schäffner, 1998). However, other teachers thought that the use of translation in conveying instruction could increase the amount of the first language use, Arabic in this case, and reduce the students' exposure to the foreign language. What needs to be said, however, is that a problem of this nature may not occur if translation is used judiciously and purposefully in English classes and is based on a good planning on the teachers' part.

The majority of participating teachers reported the effectiveness of translation in explaining new vocabulary related to the unit they were teaching, as confirmed by Carreres (2006), which gave the students' writing some stylistic richness. Writing tasks introduced to third year students were all related to the different sequences that made up the teaching unit that revolved around one particular theme. It should be noted that the range of vocabulary taught in the different units covered during the school year would be tested in the Baccalaureate exam in the form of two suggested writing topics. For this reason, any vocabulary section should be well covered, and whether or not the students understood the new vocabulary introduced to them would be part of the teachers' responsibility.

There are clear variations in the teachers' attitudes towards the relevance of translation in developing students' cognitive skills, which are brain-based skills such as analyzing, critical thinking, interpreting, understanding, sequencing and problem-solving skills. More than half of the participants agreed that translation helped students develop their cognitive skills in the sense that it was a mere mental process that required an in-depth study of the source text. This study, which is based on interpreting, reflecting and contrasting the source text with the target text, involved high skills of analyzing and critical thinking which allowed learners to choose an accurate translation from the wide range of possibilities existing in the target language. The teachers' possible justification of their viewpoint, in this respect, is consistent with the findings of many researchers (Duff, 1989; Stibbard, 1994; Leonardi, 2010; Cook, 2013; Fernandez- Guerra, 2014). Additionally, based on the belief above, more than 60

% of the participants subscribed to the view that translation from and into students' own-language helped them plan, reflect, review and edit their written works using the different previously mentioned cognitive skills (as in Fernandez-Guerra, 2014)

More than half of the participants subscribed to the view that thinking in the first language is a natural process that all students go through when writing, irrespective of their level of proficiency and whether this is allowed or rejected by the teacher (as in Duff, 1989; Cook, 2013; Kerr, 2014). Considered as the most preferred language learning strategy (see Atkinson), translation enabled students to transpose ideas based on their background knowledge from their native language into the foreign language they were studying while writing. To put it differently, translation allowed students to direct their thinking about English during language tasks such as writing (as in Hall & Cook, 2013; Anton and Dicamilla, 1999: 26 in Hall &Cook, 2013). Besides, the translating process can enrich students' schemata as well as their linguistic competence in both their first language and the target language.

While some teachers disagreed with the idea that translation helped students learn comparatively and that negative L1 transfer errors could be avoided, most noted that learners would "automatically" compare both languages as stated by Kavaliauskienė and kaminskienė (2007) in Fernandez-Guerra (2014). Thus, students' language awareness, including the similarities and the differences between the source and the target language, would be promoted (see Widdowson, 2003) and many errors which occurred due to negative transfer could be avoided. These teachers seemed to support Kerr's (2014) view on learning comparatively as he asserts that the most effective way to deal with negative transfer errors is to directly compare the source and the target language. The teachers who were not keen about this idea supported a monolingual approach to teaching English as they were convinced that

the use of two languages in the classroom would, undoubtedly, lead to negative transfer which, in turn, would cause errors in writing.

Half of the participating teachers believed that translation made students aware of both language elements (words) and their functions. In fact, any translating act involves an appropriate choice of words from the range of possibilities that exist in a language to better transfer the meaning of the original (as in Duff, 1989). These teachers also reported that translation could raise the students' awareness of both coherence and cohesion through reading the source text and noticing its textual connectivity, an awareness which would be taken into account when translating into the target language. In an attempt to transfer the meaning of the original, the student would be interested in the way the source text is structured and how the ideas are connected. This particular aspect that translation embodies is a key component in writing. The findings also showed that some teachers disagreed with the view that translation raised the students' awareness of both coherence and cohesion. There were clear differences in the teachers' views concerning the role of translation, when used appropriately, in raising the students' awareness of the different types of styles and registers. Half of the secondary school teachers who participated in this study believed that the teaching material that was varied and appropriately selected would certainly include different types of texts written in different styles and originating from different fields. Being aware of the text styles and registers reflective of how language is used for communicative purposes would enrich the students' lexical knowledge when translation is successfully integrated in the EFL classroom. It should be noted that some teachers who disagreed with this idea, the author of this thesis has concluded, regarded translation as a mere code-switching activity that could never be taught in a systematic and a purposeful way. Thus, they did not consider it effective in making students aware of the different styles and registers, in particular, and in promoting foreign language skills in general.

The last finding was drawn from the open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire. This question concerned the teachers' attitudes towards the provision of one hour to practise some purposeful translation activities in order to consolidate some language materials. Though the vast majority of teachers agreed that this activity could facilitate foreign language learning, they suggested different ideas on how and when to practise these translation activities. Some of them proposed that these translation activities might be given as homework while others thought that they could be conducted in the EFL classroom itself. Thus, there was no need to devote an hour to practise them. However, other teachers did not agree with this view as they did not believe in the relevance of translation in promoting foreign language learning in the first place. They strongly thought that translation was a time-consuming activity that deprived students of the chance to use English in the classroom and called for the use of other teaching tools such as visual aids and dictionaries to convey the teaching input. Once again, this view confirmed that these teachers saw translation as a form of code-switching only and not as purposeful and well-designed activities that improve language skills, especially writing. Their responses also indicated that they had a very restricted view of translation due mainly to their lack of up-to-date literature and of the ongoing research that attests to the relevance of translation in the EFL context. Other teachers viewed that one hour was not sufficient to practise well-planned translation activities as they felt no guilt to use them in their classrooms. However, many participants reported that translation activities should be judiciously used to clarify some points in the lesson, especially the teaching of new vocabulary. In a nutshell, the majority of secondary school teachers reported that translation played a considerable role in improving foreign language learning and language skills in general. Their responses to the different statements suggested in the questionnaire indicate the importance of translation in raising the students' awareness of the different aspects of the foreign language that promote the writing skill.

In an attempt to address the research question related to the usefulness of translation in enhancing third year foreign languages students' writing competence and avoid or at least minimize error occurrence in the future, the author examined the translations of eight different texts written in Arabic by thirty students from Belaouinet Mohamed secondary school in Sig. All the students participated in this study and translated the texts with which they were provided in the classroom. Errors were identified and classified according to their possible source and analyzed in the previous chapter. These errors were divided into two main types: linguistic errors and translation errors. Comprehension errors were not detected as the material introduced to the students was written in their first language. The errors' frequency and percentage were not taken into account as the current study focused on the types of errors occurred in students' translation as a kind of writing. Besides, much importance was given to the sources of errors and how translation as a pedagogical activity helped in detecting errors that deprived students of producing effective pieces of writing.

The study drew the following conclusions:

Among all the types of errors, the grammatical errors were, as it was observed in the different stages of their analysis, the most common types of errors made by third year secondary school students, followed by syntactic errors, translation errors and morphological errors. Some categories of errors, as the findings showed, seemed to lead to a serious communicative misunderstanding such as syntactic and translation errors. Morphological errors generally did not affect the meaning of the source text except in some cases where the student inappropriately constructed the verb forms.

As to the grammatical aspect of the foreign language, students made grammatical errors in all the word classes. These errors were classified according to the number of the subcategories each word class included. Errors in verb category that encompassed the

omission of the auxiliary, the misplacement of the auxiliary and the inappropriate choice of tense were the most common errors in the students' translations. Then, errors in the use of articles included the misuse of the article, its omission or its addition. Evidently, subject–verb agreement is the third highest error occurrence in the participants' papers. Students made a considerable number of errors related to adjectives and adverbs such as the misuse of adjectives or adverbs and their misplacement. The findings showed that the use of prepositions was another error that students made abundantly in that they added a preposition, omitted it or inappropriately chose to use it. Moreover, errors in pronouns were, as the author observed, were frequent errors that students made either by adding a pronoun, misusing a pronoun or dropping it in a particular structure. They also made errors in choosing the appropriate relative pronoun. Thus, they produced inaccurate relative clauses, especially in the first and the second texts they were provided (see appendix C and D). As the results indicated, one type of errors that was recurrent in the translation of almost, if not all, the Arabic texts was the addition of conjunctions, especially the coordinating conjunction “*and*” which was, in some cases, used to connect ideas instead of using a subordinating conjunction.

Students encountered problems in writing coherent translated texts in the target language due, to a large extent, to the syntactic errors they committed, which have been ranked according to their common occurrence as observed by the author. At a clause level, these students made the following common errors: addition of subject/object, inappropriate clause construction, misordering, omission of a main verb and omission of a subject. At a sentence level, students had problems constructing sentences in an appropriate manner. They committed errors in choosing the adequate subject or object, inappropriately combined two or more clauses, in misordering the different parts that built up a sentence and inappropriately combined subject and passive verbs. At a phrase level, the findings summarized the students'

errors in this respect. These errors were related to an inappropriate phrase construction and misordering of the phrase parts.

The morphological errors found in the students' translations were generally related to noun class. Students usually omitted the plural marker "s" in nouns and the third person "s" in verbs conjugated with the pronouns *he*, *she* and *it*. In addition, the inability to correctly form a verb was another morphological error that many students committed as in the case of the use of the past participle with modals. In some cases, students added the plural marker "s" to words that did not take the plural form, such as the word *information*. The last ranked error among the morphological errors was that of the incorrect use of the possessive case where students forgot to put the possessive indicator with persons and added it with objects.

As far as translation errors are concerned, students committed a significant number of literal translations in the sense that they used a word-for-word translation instead of a sentence translation, neglecting, therefore, the role of context and the pragmatic aspect of the source text, which would have enabled students to come up with an accurate rendition of the original meaning. The second ranked type of translation errors made by students was pragmatic errors, which occurred due to the students' lack of pragmatic knowledge as well as their unawareness of the role of context in translation. Finally, third year students skipped some parts of the source text in the process because of their inability to render them into the target language or overlooked these parts, especially in some scientific texts.

6.2. The Causes of Students' Errors in Translation as Rewriting

Based on the findings of the current study, it can be said that the errors made by third year foreign languages students committed were mainly due to L1 transfer, weakness in English writing skill, lack of writing practice, lack of linguistic competence and unawareness

of the role of context in translation. As illustrated in the previous chapter, students committed errors due to their native language transfer, which could influence every aspect of the foreign language they were learning, such as syntax, semantics, and morphology. Thus, students' translated texts were highly influenced by such transfer, which students considered as a cognitive strategy that they referred back to when they failed in achieving their communicative ends. The data obtained from the students' texts showed that there was clear evidence of a lack of basic writing skill because of the kinds of errors committed in these translations. The lack of linguistic competence, insufficient writing practice, and the teaching method adopted by teachers who did not try to espouse new techniques to teach writing were the main reasons behind such deficiencies. Besides, students made errors due to their inability to apply the knowledge of English grammar they were taught, either because of the lack of practice or their miscomprehension of language rules. Consequently, they translated words rather than sentences and emphasized the semantic meaning at the detriment of the pragmatic meaning.

6.3. Recommendations

Drawing on the findings obtained from the questionnaire addressed to secondary school teachers as well as from the analysis of the students' translations, some recommendations are put forward in order to develop the writing skill, still perceived as an elusive, demanding skill, and to give some general guidelines to overcome the students' weaknesses in writing based on the errors they committed and the nature of their occurrence. The study shows the importance of error analysis in identifying the problematic areas of language that need to be treated. Thus, teachers should be familiar with this aspect of teaching and know that errors can be used as a feedback that informs them about the effectiveness of

their teaching techniques and their learning objectives (or their lack for that matter), and about the areas that have not been adequately taught or learnt in the syllabus, and ultimately informs them about the need for a revision of the syllabus itself.

Secondary school teachers should give much importance to writing by reconsidering the way this skill is taught under an educational system that is typically exam-oriented and heavily focused on grammar at the expense of other language skills. This relegates the writing skill to a secondary position though it encapsulates all the aspects studied in the teaching unit, such as the linguistic knowledge, vocabulary, syntactic patterns and grammar components. In fact, writing requires a special attention due to its demanding nature. Students should be capable of generating data related to the topic they are required to write about based on their knowledge of the world and be able to link them using the appropriate cohesive devices and rhetorical patterns in order for their composition to be coherent and understood. Such abilities require more practice on the students' part in the form of well-designed assignments to be given to them as homework and as in-class activities.

Translation activities, as this thesis attempts to assert, are not only effective in raising students' awareness of the abilities required for the writing skills discussed above, but they also make them aware of the kind of errors that deprive them of producing good compositions. Consequently, teachers should integrate translation activities in teaching English language in general and the writing skill in particular. They should collaborate to improve and vary teaching methods for writing and translation. The Ministry of Education had high expectations, yet to be materialized, that students should be able to write effective compositions of different types of discourse. It is high time teachers thought of other useful strategies to solve the students' deficiencies in writing.

Though the Ministry issued a decree in July 2010 allowing and promoting teachers to make use of pedagogical translation to foster EFL learning, these teachers did not heed much the necessity to include translation in their classes. In this case, English syllabus designers should reconsider and evaluate the teaching of writing, plan learning outcomes that match the kind of material provided to teach writing and the way writing lessons are introduced in the textbook, particularly that many inexperienced teachers, and even some experienced ones, seem to adopt a subservient attitude to already planned writing lessons in their textbooks to the extent that they apply them without taking into account their students' limited knowledge of language and poor writing skill. This is one of the reasons that lead students to feel disconnected from the subject and to produce poor compositions. Translation is one of the new effective teaching tools that could enhance the teaching of writing as translation is in itself a kind of writing that is meant to reproduce the meaning of the original text in a style reflective of the writing conventions of the target language. On these grounds, teachers should be savvy about the importance of translation and try to integrate it purposefully in their writing classes.

How can translation be integrated to improve students' writing skill and facilitate the teacher's task? This is a legitimate question that many teachers may ask in this respect. A number of scholars (Duff, 1989; Leonardi, 2010; Cook, 2013; Kerr, 2014; Fernandez- Guerra, 2014) suggest guidelines on how to successfully use translation activities to enhance their students' language skills, particularly their writing skills. Teachers should carefully select texts and passages of different types, styles, contexts and registers. In order to save time and consolidate what has been taught in the previous sequences of the syllabus, the material introduced in translation activities should preferably be related to the themes of the teaching units in the practical part conducted with third year foreign languages students to familiarize them with the subject. In addition, the suggested material should be interesting, clear and easy

to translate in order to match the students' level of proficiency. In this regard, particular attention should be paid to the selection of the material for translation in terms of length and complexity in that it should not be too long or too complex for the students' grasp. The material should also cover different aspects of language (grammar, register, stylistic variety) that contribute to improving the students' writing skill.

Before applying translation activities, teachers have to consider a variety of factors beside their students' level of proficiency. The translation combination (whether it is from L1 to L2 or vice versa), the time allocated to the translation activity, and the class size are also worthy of consideration (see Leonardi, 2010: 87). It should be noted that translation activities, if they are varied, could be appropriate for all types of learners, but always in function of their level of proficiency in English. They can be very stimulating and motivating if they are correctly employed and well designed to achieve specific learning aims.

Translation should not be associated with the Grammar-Translation method. It is rather a successfully tested pedagogical tool that can be a support for the writing skill, especially for intermediate and low level learners as in the case of secondary school students. Therefore, teachers should plan for and encourage pair and team work in order for students to exchange and compare their ideas with those of their classmates. Furthermore, group work can motivate students to be engaged in discussion and enable them to review their choices and correct each other's errors.

Finally, an important question heavily and legitimately imposes itself in this respect. How can a teacher who does not share his students' first language integrate translation in his English classes? Some scholars, mainly Kerr (2014), have faced this interesting though cumbersome issue. Kerr attempts, as it has previously been mentioned in the literature review, to address this question by identifying different types of classes (type A, B, C) as mentioned

in Chapter 4, with a few examples about multilingual contexts where more than two native languages coexist in the classroom. In the line of this classification, Kerr proposes different types of activities that may effectively be used for each type of class. In the case of a teacher being a native speaker of English who cannot use any language other than his own, engaged with students sharing a native language, most commonly the language of schooling itself, activities and guidelines are proposed by Kerr to make a better use of translation in learning the foreign language (see Kerr, 2014; 11). In the same vein, Cook (2010) attempts to overcome this problem by suggesting that the monolingual teacher has to think about the advantages of learning or starting to learn his students' language through training. If the class is a multilingual class where students speak different mother tongues, it is suggested that they can be encouraged to explore the particular functions and consequences of using L1 when several language groups are present and be given "the option of deciding the extent to which L1 should be used in the classroom" and asked to "regulate language use themselves" (Auerbach, 1993: 24: in Hall & Cook, 2013). Even in this particular case, Kerr suggests that pair or group work is still useful and the comparison of one's native language with other languages is beneficial and should be encouraged.

In the Algerian context, there may be more than one mother tongue in the classroom, but this does not affect the integration of translation from and into Arabic as this language is a shared schooling language all over Algeria. Students learn Arabic for twelve years from the primary to the secondary level. Similarly, secondary school teachers, regardless of their mother tongues and ethnic grouping, share the same language with their students. Consequently, they can make the best use of translation activities to foster language skills, especially writing, considering that translation is a type writing itself.

To successfully employ translation in the EFL classroom, secondary school teachers who reported different attitudes about the integration of translation in English classes due to

their lack of knowledge of its relevance in facilitating the learning process, should be trained on how to make an effective and judicious use of such a pedagogical teaching aid in their daily teaching experience. Training programmes and workshops should be prepared, professional conferences about the current debate surrounding the use of translation, and especially the students' native language in the EFL context should be organized and delivered.

This being said, it looks that the inclusion of a translation course as part of the future teachers' academic syllabus is highly recommended. This course should preferably embody basic knowledge of translation such as models of translation, techniques of translation and ways of implementing pedagogical translation in the foreign language teaching-learning process.

6.4. Suggested Translation Activities

In the light of these recommendations, the author of this thesis suggests some translation activities, adopted from Kerr (2014). Other activities are purely creative activities proposed by the author considering the students' needs, the learning objectives set by the Algerian Ministry of Education throughout the English language syllabus and the students' level of proficiency and abilities. All the activities suggested below are carefully designed to identify some of the students' deficiencies (whether they are related to vocabulary, context, register, style, etc) in writing so that they can produce an effective composition that meets English writing conventions. If secondary school teachers try out some of these activities or other activities suggested by a number of practitioners in the field of translation and language teaching such as Duff (1989), Leonardi (2010), Kerr (2014), they can undoubtedly integrate

successfully a valuable and a creative teaching aid that supports and improves not only their students' writing performance but all the range of English language skills.

Activity 1

The teacher provides the students with a short advertisement like a flyer in Arabic showcasing the main features of a Smartphone for example. In groups of four, students are asked to translate it into English for overseas marketing purposes.

Text

ابل ايفون 7 بلس بدون فيس تايم - 256 جيجا، الجيل الرابع ال تي اي- اسود لامع

اللون: اسود لامع

سعة التخزين: 256 جيجابايت

الوصف

جاء ما طال انتظاره لتستيقظ من نومك وتعيش عصرا جديدا مع هاتف Apple iPhone 7 Plus. يأتي هذا الهاتف ذو اللون الاسود الرائع بنظام التشغيل اي او اس 10، iOS 10، والذي يحتوي على العديد من التطبيقات ليساعدك في اتمام المهام اليومية الخاصة بك بشكل سهل. يحتوي الجهاز على شريحة ايه 10 فيوجين، A10.

Time: Approximately 20 minutes

Aim: This activity aims at:

- making students aware of this type of texts (advertisement).
- making students aware of the type of vocabulary used in such type of texts (register of ads)
- raising students' awareness of contextual elements surrounding the text

Activity 2: Text expansion

This activity is adapted from Kerr (2014:110) and modified according to the students' needs and level of proficiency. The students are asked to extend the text below after

researching the relevant information about the topic in their native language using their background knowledge. The suggested text that students are required to extend has been studied in the classroom. All that students need to do in this activity is to have Internet access in their classroom. The teacher can ask his students to carry out this research as homework if they cannot get online access.

Text

Some people say organic foods are better than processed foods because with processed foods there can be hidden fats, salt and sugar that can go in during the processing. Food certified as organic is not allowed to contain genetically modified ingredients.

After explaining the instruction and the aim of the activity, students should read and understand the text. Then, they start researching the additional information they will use to extend the text using either online research or they use the data obtained from the research done at home. In pairs, students decide what the most appropriate pieces of information can be added to the text and think of where to insert them.

The teacher can give a clear example to illustrate what the students are asked to do on the whiteboard. He/she should remind them that the insertion of new ideas requires some changes to the sentences to make them coherent. The student pairs complete the writing task and exchange their final draft of the expanded texts with other student pairs for error checking. It is up to the teacher to decide how he/she can correct such activity.

Time: Approximately 30 minutes

Aim: This activity aims at:

- developing students' writing skills
- having students use their background knowledge when writing in English
- enabling students to connect ideas to get a coherent composition

Activity 3: Note taking and summarizing

Though this activity is adapted from Kerr (2014:102), the author of the current thesis suggested the text according to the students' needs, syllabus and level of proficiency. In this activity, the students listen to or read a short text about one of the teaching units' themes in Arabic such as in the text below, take notes and summarize the content in English.

Text

الإعلانات ... إحدِر الشراء!

عندما ننكر الإعلانات، فأول ما يخطر ببالنا هو هذا الإزعاج الناتج عن توقف برنامجنا التلفزيوني أو الإدا عي المفضل لعدة مرات يتم خلال كل منها عرض إعلانات عن بضائع أو أجهزة أو ملابس في معظم الوقت لا تهمننا أو لا نستطيع شرائها أو شاهدها لعشرات المرات سابقا... و ننتظر انتهاء هذه الدعايات بفارغ الصبر لكي تتمكن من متابعة البرنامج الذي كنا نشاهده.

لكن هل يمكننا فعلا اعتبار هذه الإعلانات أو الفواصل الترويجية مجرد إزعاج أو وقت ضائع نقضيه أمام شاشة التلفزيون مثلا؟ أم أن هناك العديد من الأمور التي لا نعرفها و التي سيكون لها تأثير مباشر علينا و على من حولنا؟ هل هذه الـ *ad spots* مجرد عرض لمنتج ما مع بعض الموسيقى الخلفية فقط؟ أم أن هناك عمل جدي أو مرهق خلفها؟ كيف تؤثر على أساليب اختيارنا لما نشتره (حتى لو لم نعرف ذلك) وكيفية نظرنا إلى المنتجات بطريقة مقارنة توصلنا أخيرا إلى اقتناء شيء بعينه؟

Source: www.sci-prospects.com

To produce this brief written summary, students should listen to or read the text at least twice to be able to take notes. The teacher asks students to compare their notes with their partners before listening to or reading the text again if necessary. In pairs, students are required to produce a short summary based on the notes they have taken as well as the entire text to which they have listened. They may compare their ideas with their partners.

In groups of four (two pairs), students are asked to compare their summaries and work together to write a final draft of the summary. One student from each group is asked to read his group summary for his classmates to choose the best version and justify their choice. The teacher discusses any problems that occur with his students. Kerr (2014: 102) suggests that

this activity be used with written texts instead of note taking through asking students to highlight key words and phrases.

Time: This depends on the students' level of proficiency and the length of the text.

Aims: This activity aims at:

- encouraging students to compare their own-language with English.
- fostering students' understanding of summary techniques
- helping students write a coherent composition

Activity 4: Delayed reverse translations (Adapted from Kerr, 2014: 80)

Toward the end of a reading lesson and as a preparation for writing about the same topic, the teacher provides his students with an English text familiar to them taken from their textbook or any other source as suggested below. In groups of four, he/she asks them to read and translate the text into their mother tongue. When working on it, students are allowed to use dictionaries or online tools if they have access to them. The material should not exceed 90 words.

Text

We may live a totally different life in the next few decades because modernity has brought with it a new life style. Nowadays people take less time to eat, go to fast food shops to gulp hamburgers, hot dogs and chips. In the future, we might have conventional food being replaced by food substitutes like pills, or we might get our nutrients out of crude oil, that would shorten meal times even further.

The teacher collects the students' translations to have a look at them later. In the coming lesson, the teacher distributes the translated texts to the groups of students without showing them the source text and asks them to translate the text back into English. At this

stage, the teacher should not reply to his students' questions if they need help. They may leave some words without translating them if they are unable to find their equivalents.

As a last step, the teacher allows his students to have a look at the original text and compare it with their own translation and discuss any difficulties which arise. The teacher may select short passages or even key sentences that consist of grammar points that he may want to shed light on.

Time: This depends on the length of the text and the students' level of proficiency in English.

Aims: This activity aims at:

- preparing students for the writing task by providing them with key ideas about the topic they will write about in the coming lesson
- encouraging students to compare their own-language with English not only in grammar but also in style and rhetoric
- developing students' vocabulary about the topic

Activity 5: Identifying context and register

This activity is suggested by the author of this thesis to raise students' awareness of context and register in different types of texts. The teacher selects different excerpts from longer texts to be translated. These excerpts may be in the form of sentences or short passages of no more than four lines.

Text 1

يتبع الشمس ثمانية كواكب معروفة وتدور حولها، مكونة ما يسمى باسم المجموعة الشمسية، وهذه الكواكب تترتب في مدارات حول الشمس من الداخل إلى الخارج كما يلي: عطارد، الزهرة، الأرض، المريخ، المشتري، زحل، أورانوس، نبتون وتنقسم إلى قسمين: الكواكب الداخلية و الكواكب الخارجية ويتبع كل كوكب مجموعة من التوابع أو الأقمار عدا

كوكبي عطارد والزهرة فليس لهم توابع. وبالإضافة إلى الكواكب وأقمارها فإن بداخل المجموعة أعدادًا هائلة من الكويكبات والمذنبات .

Source : <http://www.alkoon.alnomrosi.net/solar/planets.html>



Text 2

أنت اللغة المصرية القديمة بعد السومرية كأقدم لغة مسجلة. تطلبت الحاجة إلى الكتابة مع تزايد المتطلبات الإدارية و البيروقراطية لمصر بعد أن قام الملك "مينا" بتوحيد قطري مصر . و ينسب إلى "تحوت" أنه مخترع الكتابة الهيروغليفية ، و اعتبرت قرينته "سيشت" ربة الكتابة. و إنقسمت الهيروغليفية إلى فئتين ، رموز ذات معانٍ صورية تسمى صوريات ، و رموز ذات قيم صوتية تسمى صوتيات . و أطلق المصريون على كتاباتهم "ميدو نتر" و معناها "كلمات الرب".

Source: http://histoc-ar.blogspot.com/2009/12/blog-post_18.html.

Text 3

يحكى أنه في صباح مشرق ، كان رجل يجلس في الركن المخصص للإفطار في المطبخ، وابتعد الرجل ببصره عن البيض المقلي أمامه فرأى وحيد قرن أبيض اللون وذا قرن ذهبي يأكل الورد في الحديقة في هدوء ، و صعد الرجل إلى حجرة النوم حيث كانت زوجته مازالت نائمة فأيقظها ، قائلاً : "هناك وحيد قرن في الحديقة يأكل الورد" ، ففتحت عينا واحدة تنم عن العدا و نظرت إليه قائلة : "إن وحيد القرن حيوان خرافي".

By James Thurber reprinted from "Fables for Our Time"

<http://www.wata.cc/forums/showthread.php?1460>

Text 4

هزتان أرضيتان بغرب ووسط البحر المتوسط بين الرابعة والحادية عشرة صباحاً.
زلزال يضرب العاصمة وضواحيها ويحدث هلعاً وسط السكان.

To practise this activity, the teacher divides the class into groups of four or five and assigns a text for translation into English to each group from the list of texts selected. The students work collaboratively to produce an adequate translation taking into account the type of text, its register and the context in which this text has been written. Through class discussion, the teacher draws the students' attention to the texts' different registers and contexts.

Time: This depends on the students' level of proficiency.

Aim: This activity aims at:

- raising students' awareness of the different registers of texts and their context of occurrence
- enhancing students' writing skills

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This thesis aims at investigating the role of translation as a pedagogical aid likely to improve the secondary school students' writing skill. It sets off with an overview of teaching English as foreign language in Algerian secondary schools, laying particular emphasis on the writing skill in the light of the principles of the Competency-Based approach. The literature review presented looks at the theoretical aspect of translation, mainly its types, models, characteristics, and its place in the different teaching methodologies throughout the course of history. An overview of the writing skill and error analysis in ESL/EFL context is suggested. Given that part of the research work is attitude-based, the author devoted one chapter to the early views of translation along with the current views on translation in foreign language teaching. Arguments favouring and discouraging the use of translation in the foreign language teaching-learning process are summarized. In an attempt to answer research questions and reach the aims of the present thesis, an empirical study has been conducted in Belaouinet Mohamed secondary school in Sig, Mascara with the participation of 30 third-year foreign languages students. The latter have earnestly carried out translation activities that have contributed to drawing a number of conclusions about the usefulness of translation in developing students' writing performance. In addition, a questionnaire has been proposed to explore their attitudes towards the use of translation in enhancing the writing skill in particular, and in EFL learning in general. To endow the research findings with more credibility, the questionnaire was addressed to practicing teachers who worked in different cities in Algeria to give free vent to their views about the integration of translation within their daily classroom dynamics. Ultimately, the present work is an attempt to address the much controversial issue of pedagogical translation in English language teaching and learning, an area that continues to generate a heated debate in academic circles. It is hoped that a research of this kind, on account of its pioneering nature in an Algerian educational

context, will herald more in-depth studies in support of pedagogical translation and in favour of its full-fledged integration in future secondary schools syllabus design.

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APPENDICES

Questionnaire for Algerian Secondary School EFL Teachers

Dear Colleagues,

This questionnaire is meant for a scientific research on the use of translation in enhancing secondary school students' writing skill in EFL classroom. I hereby invite you to complete it by providing objective answers. Thank you in advance for giving me some of your precious time.

Gender: Male Female

Position: Full-Time Teacher Part Time Teacher

Teaching Experience: **Location**

Part One: Teachers' attitudes toward the use of translation in English classes.

1. Are you making use of translation in your classroom?
Yes No
2. Translation is a useful aid in EFL classroom.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
3. Translation is unavoidable activity in EFL classroom.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
4. Teachers feel confident when using translation in EFL classroom.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
5. Translation is an enjoyable activity for students in EFL classroom.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
6. The teacher always uses translation when teaching.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
7. Translation can foster progress in the foreign language learning process.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
8. Translation is an enjoyable activity for students in EFL classroom.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
9. The teacher always uses translation when teaching.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

Part two: The usefulness of translation in developing the writing skill.

1. Translation is useful in explaining instructions.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
2. Teachers use translation in explaining /teaching the new vocabulary related to the unit they are teaching.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
3. Pupils can spot their weaknesses and develop their cognitive skills in analyzing and in understanding when the teacher uses translation.
Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
4. Translation activities give the learners the opportunity to plan, reflect, discuss, review and edit their written work.
Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

5. Translation is used to extend pupils background knowledge and enrich their linguistic competence that enables them to develop their writing in English.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

6. Pupils translate their thoughts using their first language when writing in English. This particular process helps pupils transpose these ideas English when asked to produce a piece of writing.

Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

7. When translation is used purposefully, students learn comparatively. Thus, the typical error caused by negative first language transfer can be avoided.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

8. Translation makes students aware of language elements and their functions.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

9. Students will be aware of the different types of styles and registers when translation is utilized appropriately in EFL classroom.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

10. Students will be aware of both cohesion, coherence and the sequencing of ideas in both languages when they are exposed to translation activities.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

11. What do you think of devoting one hour a week to practise purposeful translation activities so as to consolidate some language points and skills?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you very much for your valuable help and collaboration.

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية وزارة التربية الوطنية

مديرية التعليم الثانوي العام و التكنولوجي

04 جويلية 2010

الجزائر في

الرقم : 10/0.3/77

إلى

السيدات والسادة مديري التربية (للتبليغ والمتابعة)
السيدات والسادة مفتشي التربية الوطنية (للإعلام والمتابعة)
السيدات والسادة مديري الثانويات (للتنفيذ)

تأريخ: 2010/09/13
رقم: 457
أشياء: /



الموضوع : استعمال الترجمة في تدريس اللغات الأجنبية.

ينص القانون التوجيهي للتربية، لا سيما المادة 4 منه، على ضرورة تمكين التلاميذ من التحكم في لغتين أجنبيتين على الأقل للتفتح على العالم، باعتبار اللغات الأجنبية وسيلة للاطلاع على الوثائق و المبادلات مع الثقافات و الحضارات الأجنبية. وسعيا منها إلى ترقية تحكم الأساتذة و التلاميذ على حد سواء في تعليم اللغات الأجنبية و تعلمها ، تعمل وزارة التربية الوطنية على إدخال الطرائق الفعالة في تعليم اللغات الأجنبية بغية الارتقاء بمستوى التحكم فيها. ومن بين هذه الطرائق التي أثبتت نجاعتها الترجمة التعليمية.

يقصد بـ "الترجمة التعليمية"، استخدام تمارين ترجمة تهدف إلى تعليم لغة أجنبية ما و ذلك عبر ما يترجمه التلميذ من لغته الأم إلى لغة أجنبية أو من اللغة الأجنبية إلى لغته الأم". فهي تمثل نشاطا لا تترتب عنه زيادة في الحجم الزمني لتدريس المادة كونها لا تمثل محورا إضافيا في البرنامج الرسمي الذي يبقى بدون تغيير إلى حين مراجعته. كما يجب على أساتذة اللغات الأجنبية السهر على العمل بما يلي:

- ينبغي العمل بتدرج الصعوبات أثناء اختيار أنشطة الترجمة، حتى يتعود التلاميذ تدريجيا على هذا النشاط الجديد و ذلك انطلاقا من ترجمة الجمل و العبارات القصيرة البسيطة ثم الجمل الطويلة إلى الفقرة القصيرة، حسب مستوى التلاميذ.
- يستهدف التوصل بتدريب التلاميذ على هذا النشاط إلى مستوى ترجمة نص طوله من عشرة إلى خمسة عشرة سطرا، مع مراعاة توازن الترجمة التعليمية مع المتطلبات الأخرى لتعليم اللغة.
- ألا يسمحوا لأنفسهم و لا للتلاميذ بتهجين اللغة و ذلك بتقادي الخلط اللغوي. و يطلب منهم أن يعملوا على المحافظة على انسجام التعبير في اللغة الواحدة.

- يكون اختيار موضوع النص من الكتاب المدرسي أو من ميول التلاميذ و اهتماماتهم، و ذلك على غرار ترجمة نص من نصوص أغاني مختارة من التراث المحلي أو العالمي أو من مجال الإعلام الآلي أو من مجال الرياضة... الخ.

- يجب مراعاة جانب الإملاء ضمن نشاط الترجمة مع الاهتمام بالجانب الجمالي للخط.

- يوصى التلاميذ بإنجاز معجم لغوي للمفردات في إطار هذا النشاط.
- ينظم التنسيق بين أساتذة اللغة العربية و أساتذة اللغات الأجنبية (الفرنسية، الانجليزية، الإسبانية و الألمانية) من أجل ضمان الانسجام الأفقي بين هذه المواد و دعم الجوانب المتكاملة بينها.

هذا و يبقى على أساتذة المواد المعنية القيام بندوات تنسيقية داخلية مشتركة حول موضوع الترجمة التعليمية و تقنياتها و دعمه بندوات تكوينية يشرف عليها مفتشو التربية الوطنية.



مديرية التربية بولاية المسيلة

مصلحة المدرس و الامكانات

مكتب المعلم الثانوي

رغم: 2010/294 بتاريخ: 2010/07/14

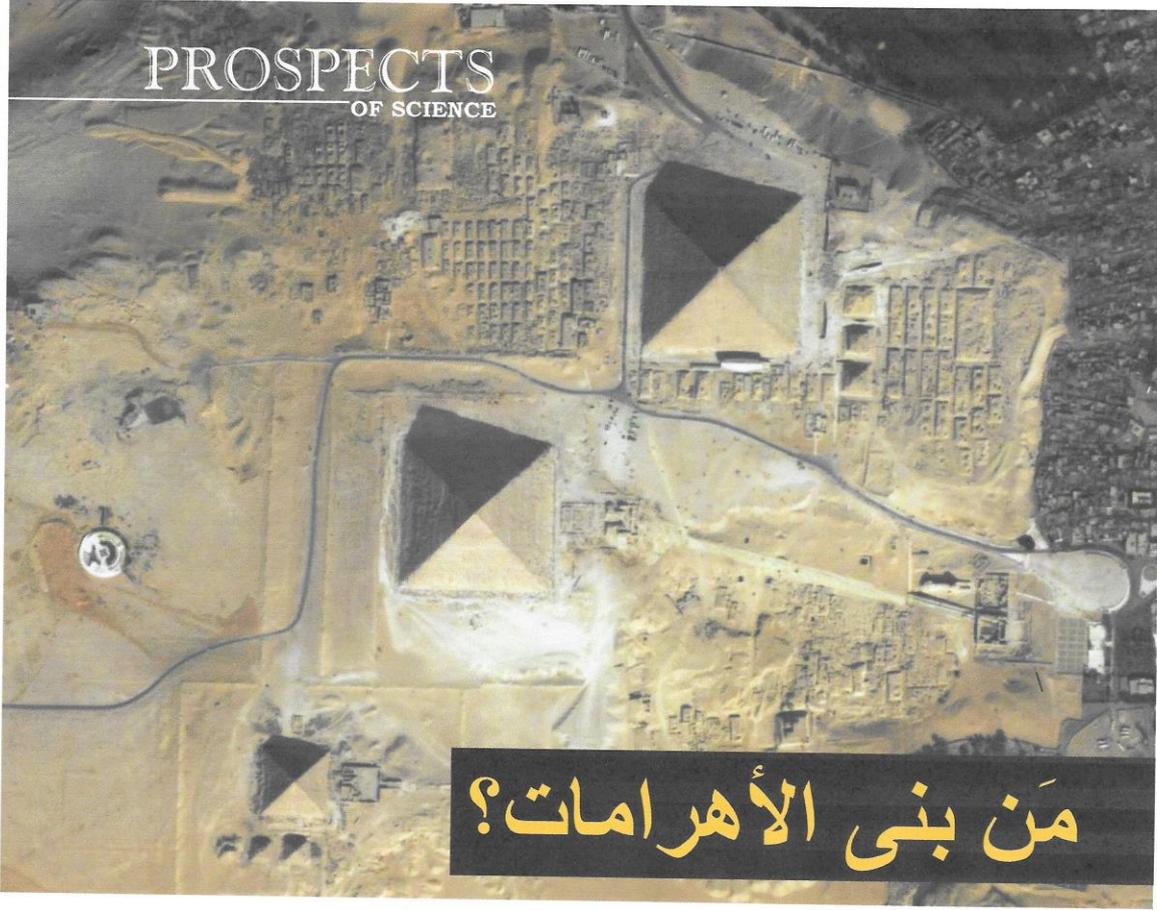
الكالمسالة:

مديرية التكوين المهني بولاية (السنفند)

مصلحة المدرس



مصلحة بوراس



مَن بنى الأهرامات؟

خلال فترة حكمهم، قام الفراعنة بإنشاء حكومة مركزية قوية و مستقرة في وادي النيل الخصيب... يمكننا رؤية أعظم معالم دولتهم اليوم، بعد آلاف السنين من اندثارهم؛ الأهرامات، و التي كانت في نهاية المطاف قبوراً يرقد فيها الملوك.

هذه المباني الضخمة لا زالت أمام أعيننا لتذكركم بتلك الحضارة العظيمة التي كانت في أرض مصر.

لماذا تم بناء الأهرامات؟ كيف تم بناؤها؟
و الأهم من ذلك كله: مَن بناها؟

لماذا يحدث شعور Déjà Vu؟



لم نكن في ذلك المكان أبداً من قبل... إلا أننا نعرفه.
هذا ما يسمونه بالـ Déjà Vu.

شعور غريب ينتابنا عند دخولنا مكان معين مثلاً فنشعر على الفور أنه قد سبق لنا رؤيته و التجول فيه. حدث لـ 95% منا على الأقل لمرة واحدة... علماء النفس يسمونه **Déjà Vu** (رأيته من قبل) أو **Déjà Vécu** (عشته من قبل) و يؤكدون أن لا علاقة له على الإطلاق مع الظواهر الخارقة للطبيعة أو الميتافيزيقية **Paranormal**، فهو مرتبط بالطريقة التي يعالج فيها دماغنا المعلومات التي تصله... الدماغ لا يعمل كآلة بالمفهوم المتعارف عليه؛ فهو قبل الوصول الى مكان ما أو قبل رؤية حدث ما يقوم بتوقع ما يمكن أن نراه: قد يقوم برسم متوقع للمكان الذي سندخله أو يقوم برسم مسار أحداث لما يمكن أن يحدث في مشهد نراه فيوصلنا الى نتيجته قبل أن نرى فعلياً ما سيحصل... فعند دخول مستشفى مثلاً، نجد أن العوامل المحيطة هي التي أوصلت الدماغ الى رسم الصورة الموجودة أمامنا كما هي فعلاً؛ من هذه العوامل يمكننا ذكر اللون الأبيض على الجدران و في ملابس العاملين في المستشفى، رائحة المطهر المستخدم في معظم الغرف، ممرضة تمر أمامنا بملابسها المعهودة؛ كل هذه العوامل توقعها الدماغ مسبقاً مما أدى به الى خلق ذلك الشعور الخاص بكوننا قد زرنا المكان في الماضي.

في حالات أخرى، نجد أن العملية تعتمد على ما رأيناه بشكل سريع لكن الدماغ لم يعالجه في ذات اللحظة لعدم اعتباره من التفاصيل الهامة... لكن عندما نرى ذلك الشيء للمرة الثانية بعد ثوان أو دقائق قليلة و نمعن النظر، يسترجع الدماغ التجربة السابقة (التي لن تكون لأكثر من لحظات قصيرة جداً و غير واضحة تماماً) و هذا ما نشعرنا بأننا رأينا ذلك الشيء سابقاً.

هكذا من الممكن التأكيد أن هذه الظاهرة ما هي إلا عملية معالجة للمعلومات تحدث بتدخل الذاكرة التي تعمل على ربط المؤثرات المرئية أو المسموعة (أو تلك الخاصة برائحة معينة) مع أحداث أخرى رأيناها في الماضي أو قام الدماغ بمحاولة تخيلها قبل رؤيتها لها.

الامتحانات المدرسية: Online

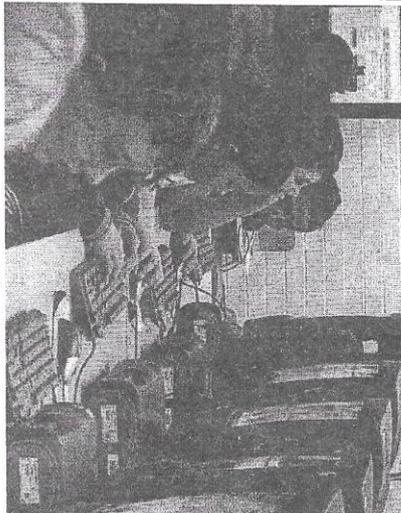
لأول مرة ستكون عملية الإمتحان منظمة على الكمبيوتر بالإستخدام على تكنولوجيا الإنترنت بطريقة مماثلة لإمتحانات التأهيل التي تعتمد على شركات مثل ميكروسوفت.

سيقوم 120 تلميذا من اسكتلندا بالتقدم للإمتحان في مادة التكنولوجيا البيولوجية Biotechnology في مدارس مختلفة بأسلوب الأمثلة متعددة الإجابات و ذلك على أجهزة كمبيوتر متصلة عن طريق الإنترنت بإدارة منح الكفاءة الاسكتلندية.

ستكون غرفة الإمتحان منظمة بحيث يمكن لمراقب الإمتحان مشاهدة جميع شاشات الكمبيوتر التي يستخدمها المتقدمون للإمتحان و ذلك لضمان عدالة النتائج و لمنع أية حالات غش.

يقول أنتون كوليللا Anton Colella مسؤول إدارة منح الكفاءة المدرسية الاسكتلندية "أول استخدام للتكنولوجيا في امتحان رسمي في اسكتلندا".

يضيف كوليللا "لقد قمنا بتجارب مع عدد من المتقدمين للإمتحانات في وقت سابق و قد كان تجاربهم رائع مع العملية بشكلها الجديد... لكن لا يزال هناك الكثير مما يتوجب علينا عمله لضمان أمن المعلومات خلال عملية الإمتحان".



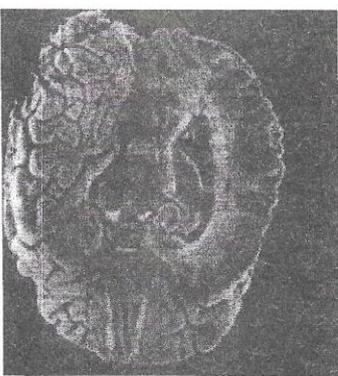
غاية الأهمية في تحديث عملية الإمتحانات في

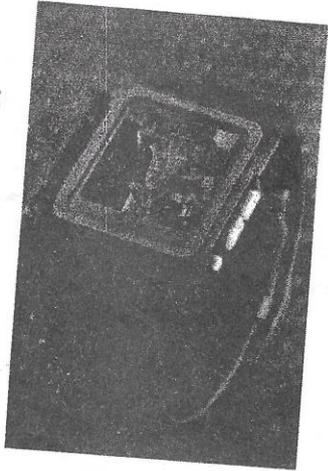
GPS حقيقة في الدماغ

في الدماغ يوجد جهاز ملاحية متكامل يقوم بإعلامنا دائما بإمكان وجودنا و يقوم بإبسطنا معلومات عن الاتجاه الذي نتحرك فيه حتى في حالة عدم توجيه أعيننا في تلك الاتجاه، ليس هذا فقط؛ بل يمكنه أيضا معرفة المسافة التي تفصلنا عن نقطة الوصول المطلوبة اعتمادا على سرعة حركتنا... هذا ما توصل إليه العلماء في جامعة العلوم و التكنولوجيا في مدينة تورنتو لهم الترويجية.

حسب هذا الاكتشاف، فـجهاز الـ GPS المذكور موجود في أقصى المنطقة الخلفية من الدماغ و المسماة Entorhinal Cortex (المشل إليها في الصورة).

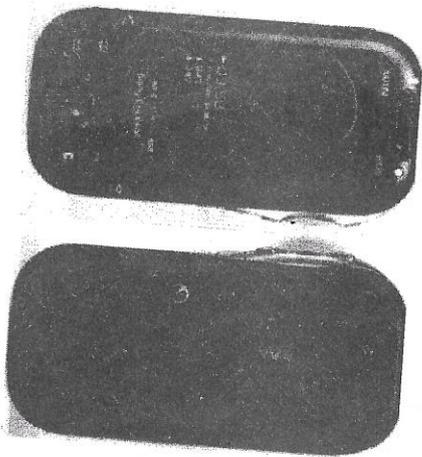
تم التوصل الى هذا الاكتشاف بواسطة تجارب تم عملها على الفئران، و هذه النتائج في غاية الأهمية لأن المنطقة المذكورة هي أول من يعطي إشارات بالتضمر عند الإصابة



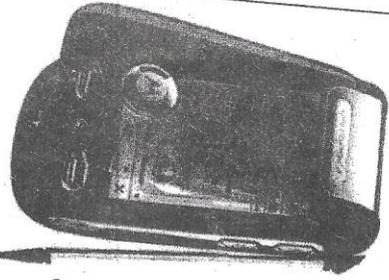


Home Theater Watch

اخيراً وصلت الأسواق هذه الساعة التي تعطيك إمكانية معرفة الوقت بالإضافة الى إمكانية مشاهدة أفلام فيديو... يبلغ قياس الشاشة 1.5 إنش إلا أن تجربة المشاهدة تعتبر جيدة... يمكن حفظ أفلام على القرص الصلب للساعة البالغ 2GB... يمكن لهذه الساعة أيضاً تشغيل الموسيقى من نوع MP3 و WMA و فتح ملفات مكتوبة و عرض صور JPG.

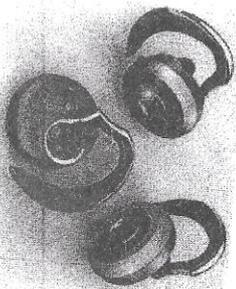


هاتف محمول جديد من فئة Walkman يحتوي على أداة بث الراديو FM و كاميرا بكتلة رقمية تبلغ 2.1 ميجابكسل... يمكن أيضاً تصوير فيديو و مقاطع لا تزيد عن 30 ثانية... يمكن تخزين ما يقارب الألف أغنية من نوع MP3 بحيث أن القرص الصلب لهذا الهاتف يبلغ 2GB يمكن زيارتها باستخدام بطاقة ذاكرة من نوع MicroSD... يبلغ قياس الشاشة 2.7 إنش... يأتي هذا الهاتف بالوان غير تقليدية كاللارق الخاقق أو بونين هما الوردى و الأبيض.



Motoring A1200e

الهاتف الذي الجديد من موتورولا يأتي بنظام تشغيل Linux... يضم كاميرا بكتلة رقمية 2 ميجابكسل بالإضافة لإمكانية تصوير فيديو... يحتوي على راديو FM و يمكنه بواسطة البرنامج RealPlayer تشغيل موسيقى من نوع MP3, XMF, WMA v9, AAC+, WAV... يمكن زيادة قدرته التخزينية بواسطة بطاقة ذاكرة من نوع microSD بحجم أقصى 2GB. يعمل قياس الشاشة الى 2x1.5 إنش.



Dragon Bluetooth headset

يمكنك استخدام هذه السماعات، التي تعمل بكتل ارجيا البلوتوث، بعيداً عن هاتفك المحمول بمسافة تصل الى مئة متر... يمكن استخدام هذه الأداة للاتصال على برنامج الاتصال على كمبيوترك... Skype على كمبيوترك... الصوت الذي توفره هذه الأداة يعتبر من أكثر الدرجات نقاء ووضوحاً... يمكن أيضاً استخدامه للاتصال المباشر مع أجهزة و محطات يصل الى 7000 متر مربع.