

Bar-Ilan University

**Teaching the Translation Skills Program in an Israeli High School
and Its Effect on Reading Comprehension Skills in L2 and
Metalinguistic Awareness**

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Abstract

This paper describes a longitudinal case study carried out in 2007 - 2008 investigating the effect of the Translation Skills Program on 12th-grade students' metalinguistic awareness, as well as their reading comprehension skills in L2. It presents qualitative and quantitative self-assessments of fourteen students (the subjects of this study), as well as the quantitative assessments of the students by four teachers, one of whom is the participants' Translation Skills teacher and is also the author of this study.

The objective of this study was to determine whether the Translation Skills Program has a positive effect on students' metalinguistic awareness and on their reading comprehension in L2. It further discusses the possible positive effects of translation studies on the study of English as a foreign language.

Students were given a text to translate at the beginning of the school year (Test I), prior to any training in translation, and were then given the same text at the end of the year (Test II). These translations were evaluated by two different assessors, basing their assessment on an error analysis rubric. The results of Test I and Test II were compared. A third assessor was asked to compare the two translations and to decide intuitively which one she preferred.

Students were also given a questionnaire to fill out after completing each of the tests, relating to their perception of their language proficiency as well as the description of the translation process i.e. how long it took, how they dealt with terms they were confused about, what reference materials they used. The same students were also given two reading comprehension tests, one at the beginning and one at the end of the year. These tests were also evaluated by their teacher. The participants also filled out an additional questionnaire at the end of the year, designed to reflect their evaluation of how the program had contributed to their English proficiency in general, and to their reading comprehension and metalinguistic awareness, in particular. Later, the students were individually interviewed by the teacher of the Translation Skills Program. Apart from the interview, the students remained anonymous throughout the study.

Among the methodological limitations were the following:

- The author of this study was also the teacher of the program, and knew the students well.
- Assessment of both tests was based solely on error assessment.
- The study did not include a control group.

Quantitative and qualitative results of this small study show that the Translation Skills Program offered to high school students in Israel has a positive effect on the reading comprehension skills of most of the students and on their meta-linguistic awareness as well. Research also provides data showing a correlation between the empirical data of the study and students' scores on the matriculation exam in the Translation Skills Program in 2008.

Further study may include:

- Conducting a similar but wider study among a larger number of students in different high schools in Israel.
- Comparing classes that have been conducted in Hebrew rather than in English.

Results of this study provide a basis to promote the Translation Skills Program in other high schools in other countries.

1. Introduction

The teaching of foreign languages in general, and the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) in high schools have undergone many changes over the past decades. From the end of the 19th century until the beginning of the 20th century the Grammar Translation Method of teaching a foreign language was the prevalent method (Titone & Danesi, 1985). Little attention was given to the content of texts or to communication skills. This lack of attention contributed to the unpopularity of the Grammar Translation Method, giving way to new methods of foreign language teaching. However, translation is regaining its respectability in the language-learning classroom (Malmkjær, 1998), not necessarily as an end, but as an additional means towards language acquisition.

As a teacher of EFL, and of Translation Skills¹ in Israeli high schools, I have noticed certain advantages in studying translation skills for both Hebrew (L1) and English (L2). In this paper I have focused on high school students' metalinguistic awareness using English source texts. I have also focused on their reading comprehension skills, as translating complex texts written in the source language (English) requires advanced reading comprehension skills, without which translations into the target language (Hebrew) would be inadequate (Bassnett, 1998).

The students' positive attitude towards what they had been learning and what appeared to be a significant increase in metalinguistic knowledge gained through the study and practice of translation skills in high school, motivated me to carry out both a quantitative and qualitative study of translation and a quantitative study of students' reading comprehension skills and their metalinguistic awareness in English, based on self-assessment, evaluation by trained teachers of translation, and evaluation by a professional translator.

Studies have been conducted investigating students of translation classes at the university level, but few have investigated the effect of translation studies on high school students. Of the 22 studies that pertain to research in translation cited in the bibliography of this study, only four (18%) were carried out on the high school level, as reflected in the literature review below.

¹ Translation Skills will appear in upper case only when referring to the Translations Skills course per se.

2. Literature review

2.1 *What is translation?*

Translation is a pragmatic-integrative language activity that incorporates different skills - one that requires competence in both the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) and awareness of the metalinguistic differences between the two. It is the process in which one transfers a word, segment or text from one language into another, going beyond mere words; it includes interlingual relationships, cultural differences - and when spoken, body language - in order to ultimately convey the source text's message in the target language (Sewell, 1996). It is "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text" (Newmark, 1991). Translation is essentially a "derived" linguistic activity, in the sense that its purpose is not the creation of a new, authentic text, but the transformation of the source text (ST) into a target text (TT) (Wilss, 1996).

On the one hand, some researchers regard translation as a science, as it sometimes uses scientific results taken mostly from branches of linguistics, e.g. neuro-linguistics, semantics, sociolinguistics, etc. It also incorporates terminology used universally in the study of translation skills (Brini, 2000). In the past decades it has been combined with computer science, giving way to machine translation. However, translation cannot be regarded solely as a science because even though translators use scientific data and theories, they use these in such a way that allows them individual choice of words, syntax and voice. It is impossible to find a scientific equation that would solve translational problems in every language. "Translation addresses all fundamental issues the science of language has to contend with, from the nature of linguistic meaning to the process of communication across languages" (Adrabou, 2003).

On the other hand, translation can be seen as an art, where although translators use words as a tool, mood and personality may reflect the translator's choice. It can also be presented as a teachable craft and although it is closely related to language learning itself, it is a distinct and separate skill (Azizinezhad, 2007).

Pedagogic translation vs. professional translation

The traditional definition of the difference between pedagogic translation and professional translation is that for the former, the students present the teacher with their knowledge of specified aspects of the foreign language, where the latter is to present the teacher with their knowledge of the contents and meaning of the original text (Klaudy, 1995). Pedagogical translation can also be defined as using translation as a method of teaching a foreign language, while professional translation is a separate skill, implemented after students have mastered the L2 (Petrocci, 2006).

It has been said that even though some learners may excel at language learning, they may still find it very difficult to translate in spite of their language proficiency (Brini, 2000). This difficulty may result in code-switching (See section 2.6) but may be reduced through translator training, which may provide students with the awareness they might previously have been lacking in order to avoid "translationese" (translations featuring source language interference) (Gellerstam, 1986).

In a recent study in Birbeck College in England Sewell (1996) sought to determine what transferable skills and knowledge could be developed in a translation studies class, offered as one of the eleven courses required to complete a BA. It was found that translation could be taught as a means of improving students' linguistic proficiency, as it included the following transferable skills: The ability to read accurately, operate effectively on a socio-linguistic level, i.e. be aware of register, text-type, understand theory of communication, use contextual knowledge effectively, work to a brief, carry out instructions, see when extra research is needed, prioritize, pace oneself, post-edit one's own work, understand what makes the two languages work, articulate unspoken assumptions. Students mentioned that they were gaining insight in both their mother tongue (English), and their second language (French), into which they were translating. They also felt that translation was "good intellectual training." Reading and text analysis in the foreign language were emphasized during the first two years of this foreign language course, therefore the students were expected to become proficient in these two skills – skills which formed the basis of the translation course. They were required to focus on metalinguistic aspects, e.g. reading accurately, socio-linguistic awareness, register, text-type, contextual knowledge, editing and co-editing, and articulating unspoken assumptions.

Students discovered that translation demanded "high standards and considerable linguistic sensitivity" and that students gained metalinguistic insight through their exposure to and the investigation of cultural diversity through translation (Sewell 1996).

Despite the positive aspects of teaching translation as a means of increasing language proficiency, Newson (1998) concedes the possibility of negative implications, as well; among them:

- Students think in one language while transferring into another, which may lead to interference.
- Translation reduces the advantages of working within one language. It was previously believed that using the L1 impeded efficient language learning (Newson, 1998; Sewell, 1996).

2.2 *Comparative stylistics*

Comparative stylistics is the systematic study in which two or more languages are compared according to their stylistic characteristics. This study presents the profound distinctions between languages and may offer students a deeper knowledge of the characteristics that differentiate one language from another and may offer language learners a deeper knowledge of the features that distinguish one language from another.

Comparative stylistics can benefit students as it allows them to identify the characteristics which distinguish the L1 from the L2, thus recognizing the phenomena that gives each language its particular uniqueness. Since comparing one language to another primarily requires translation, this means that comparative analysis can be learned subsequently to foreign language learning, after students have reached a certain level of language proficiency and not prior to it. Comparative stylistics allows students to perceive language beyond its basic meaning and investigate various contexts and situations, thus continually discovering that words and expressions do not remain stable in a given context.

Linguistic interference may occur when a person, proficient in two or more language spontaneously uses a particular word or expression suitable in one language, but unsuitable in another (Brini, 2000).

2.3 *Translation in the foreign language classroom in the past*

2.3.1 The Grammar Translation Method of foreign language teaching

The Grammar Translation Method was implemented in the latter part of the nineteenth century as a method of teaching a foreign language (Howatt, 1984) for westerners interested in learning classical languages, such as Greek and Latin (Brown, 2000). Its aim was to teach students a foreign language using intense grammatical analysis and to familiarize them with the grammar of their native language and the foreign language, while introducing lists of vocabulary items in order to teach them to read and write classical materials in a foreign language and to pass standardized exams (Zimmerman, 1997). It was also believed that this comparative method of languages might have an effect on the students' comprehension of their native language². Students were given either literary or religious texts and with the help of a dictionary were required to translate the texts according to the grammar structures they had learned. Sometimes they were given isolated texts that had little purpose other than the task at hand – which was to compare grammatical structures and increase vocabulary. The Grammar Translation Method was seen as a scientific method, in which the students learned grammar and vocabulary explicitly, leaving no room for discussion of possible choices. Teachers elicited the "correct" answers from students and there was little or no discussion of alternatives among the students. The majority of these students usually had a high level of analytical ability and could easily perform these tasks, therefore this method was not considered suitable for the less motivated or gifted student.

The Grammar Translation Method was supported by the prestigious universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England, where it was believed that using translation as a method of language learning helped maintain the standard of foreign language learning and its place in the university curriculum (Zimmerman, 1997).

An argument against the Grammar Translation Method was presented by Halliday (1964:266) who states that presenting translation as a methodology to students who have not yet mastered the L2 is placing the unnecessary and perhaps stressful burden on the learner who has to learn "a whole new technique ... at the same time s/he is learning a new language." This method could possibly have tested what

² <http://stmail.fju.edu.tw/~b8720164/gtm1.htm> (last October 2007)

learners understood on a grammatical and lexical level, but it did not address aural, oral and written communicative skills, which were increasingly being recognized as necessary when learning a foreign language.

Furthermore, the Grammar Translation Method proved insufficient in testing comprehension and it also provided little aid in developing techniques that could be transferred to other L2 texts (McDonough and Shaw, 1993). The skills required in the Grammar Translation Method were of limited use outside the formal classroom setting, and therefore gave way to newer language theories, such as the Direct Method, the Audio-lingual Method, the Communicative Method and the Holistic Approach.

On the other hand, a rather positive example of the implementation of the Grammar Translation Method was its apparent success in the former Soviet Union during the latter part of the 20th century, where using this method, without any contact with native speakers of English, many language learners reached a high level of proficiency. This was usually manifested in their grammatical proficiency; learners needing or benefiting from a more structured method could possibly benefit from the Grammar Translation Method (Quynh, 2007).

2.3.2 Reform

Interestingly enough, despite harsh criticism of the Grammar Translation Method, it was used well into the twentieth century as the principal method of foreign language instruction. Sweet (1899) began a reform of the Grammar Translation Method at the beginning of the twentieth century in which isolated sentences and words were avoided and only following a complete study of a text would grammar structures or vocabulary items be addressed.

When the need for communication between European countries became greater, adults began to show an interest in foreign language learning. The Grammar Translation Method was ill-suited for adults as they were less inclined to accept this type of language learning without question. The reform, beginning towards the end of the nineteenth century as a reaction to the Grammar Translation Method, was based on the following principles (Malmkjaer, 1998):

1. The importance of speech.
2. The importance of relevant texts in teaching and learning.
3. Prioritizing oral classroom methods.

2.3.3 The Natural or Direct Method

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Natural Method was introduced, (also known as the Conversation Method, the Direct Method or the Communicative Approach), which had a negative effect on the popularity of the Grammar Translation Method. It was believed that language was intuitive, and that people had a natural capacity for it, provided it was taught under the proper conditions, not in a step-by-step manner, following graded syllabuses or complicated explanations and exercises (Howatt, 1994:198-201). The Natural or Direct Method forbade any translation whatsoever, and discouraged teachers from using the mother tongue of the pupils, even minimally (Zimmerman, 1997).

This method was widely practiced and applied by Maximilian Berlitz (1852 – 1921), when he opened language schools all over the United States, to teach immigrants basic means of communication that they needed in order to get ahead in a foreign country and become assimilated, using the same methodology in sixteen different schools in the United States and 30 schools in Europe. Berlitz's explicit instructions to the teacher were that under no circumstances could translation be considered a method of teaching, nor should L1 be used in the classroom.

Lado (1964) explained that translation should not be used (in a language teaching class) because, "...it is not a substitute for language practice." Supporting principles were:

1. Few words in any two languages are truly equivalent.
2. The student, believing that his/her translations are in fact equivalent assumes that his/her translations can be interchanged with the original, resulting in possible errors.
3. Word for word translations may result in incorrect structures.

These three principles were in fact the steppingstones towards teaching translation as a way of raising metalinguistic awareness. Lado (1964) and Gatenby (1967) discuss translation as a skill that can be taught, while Harris and Sherwood (1978) relate to it as a natural skill of some bilinguals.

Lado (1964) believed that good translation could not be achieved without complete mastery of the L2. He advocated becoming proficient in the second language and then teaching translation as a separate process. He also believed that

understanding one's native culture would facilitate understanding a foreign culture, which is necessary when learning the intricacies of translation.

Gatenby (1967), comparing the way children acquire language naturally and the way foreign languages are taught, stated that when a language is learned intuitively, there is no process of translation per se. Intuitive translation that does not involve a process can result in L1 interference (Brini, 2000). Malmkjær (1998) supports this and adds that in order to translate one needs to master both L1 and L2 but "clearly (translation) involves something in addition...namely the ability to relate the two (language) systems to one another appropriately, thus minimizing negative interference while maximizing positive interference when selecting the most appropriate translational equivalents."

Harris and Sherwood (1978) claimed that bilingual children translate spontaneously, without having difficulty transferring from one language to another. Believing that bilingualism was the ultimate form of mastery of L1 and L2, it seemed that using translation as the only tool to assess proficiency or comprehension was unnatural; a pupil may understand something in a foreign language very well but this does not mean that s/he is able to reproduce it in his/her mother tongue. Reasons not to use translation as a means of teaching a foreign language included the following arguments (Newson, 1998):

1. Translation is a separate skill, and is independent of the four skills that define language proficiency: reading, writing, speaking and listening.
2. It is fundamentally different from the above four skills.
3. Teaching translation uses valuable time that could be otherwise utilized to teach these four skills with other language learning methods.
4. It is unnatural.
5. It erroneously makes students believe that languages correspond on a one-to-one basis.
6. It prevents students from thinking in the L2.
7. It produces L1 interference.
8. It is a poor test of language skills.
9. It should be only used in training professional translators.

2.3.4 The Audio-Lingual Method

In spite of the negative attitude towards the Grammar Translation Method, the Audio-Lingual and Cognitive Methods showed support towards using translation in an EFL classroom. Advocates of these methods were followers of Skinnerian behaviorist psychology, popular between 1930 and 1950, believing that learning occurs in the Stimulus-Response Reinforcement chain, meaning that if we want our students to respond in a certain way to a foreign language (e.g. English), the stimulus must be in that (foreign) language (Zimmerman, 2006).

2.4 The use of L1 in an FL classroom

While searching for alternatives for the Grammar Translation Method, foreign language teachers and researchers might have overlooked some of the positive aspects of teaching translation, believing that using the mother tongue in a foreign language classroom should be avoided. As a response to the obvious pitfalls in the Grammar Translation Method, in which students were translating "for the sake of translating" (Sewell 1996), language theorists paid little or no attention to the important role that the native language could play in a foreign language classroom. It has been contended that progress in the foreign language classroom can best be facilitated if only the L2 is used, in order to ensure that this will counteract the natural "pull" towards L1 (Cummins and Swain, 1986).

Newson (1998) states that using the mother tongue is mainly useful in the early stages of language learning as "a brief time saver." One major concern in using L1 in an FL classroom is that students may exploit the use of L1 to shift the focus of the task at hand, i.e. away from what is being taught and from pedagogical objectives (Elridge, 1996). However, the L1 can be used independently or in conjunction with translation. It seems that the criticism towards using the mother tongue in a foreign language classroom has not allowed teachers to recognize its many possible advantages and the important pedagogical role it could play. Teachers and theorists imply that the mother tongue seems to have played no role at all in the foreign language classroom, (Malmkjær, 1998). Some of the reasons for this observation are:

1. Teaching translation may be associated with the outmoded Grammar Translation Method.

2. Foreign language classes may be taught by teachers who strongly prefer using the L2.
3. Some foreign language teachers may have very little or no knowledge of the L1.
4. The only way to learn a foreign language is by speaking that language.

Over the years evidence has caused many teachers and researchers to look more favorably upon using L1 in a foreign language classroom (Malmkjær, 1998), to provide students with the following tools, all of which are said to have a positive effect on foreign language teaching (Atkinson, 1987). The following suggestions might promote an increase in metalinguistic awareness by:

1. Explaining the meanings of words and discussing the subtle differences between meanings in L1 and L2: Instead of attempting to elicit understanding of new vocabulary from students, teachers can clarify nuances of lexical items in the foreign language more straightforwardly when using L1 to explain.
2. Presenting grammatical explanations and contrasting L1 and L2: Explanations involving complex grammatical structures can be simplified when using the L1.
3. Teaching reading techniques as a way of improving comprehension: Teaching any methodology in the students' L1 may enhance understanding (See section 2.9).
4. Presenting commonly misunderstood or misused phrases in L2: Asking students what a passage or word means in their L1 can prevent confusion. Common reasons for confusion such as false cognates, gridding, and colloquialisms can be explained more easily.
5. Presenting cultural differences that surface as a result of the exposure to a foreign language: Confusion and misunderstanding of phrases, words and complete texts is often the result of a lack of awareness of cultural differences.
6. Presenting likenesses between L1 and L2 that can facilitate the understanding of complex grammatical structures.
7. Giving instructions or explanations in a clearer manner: Teachers may misinterpret students' poor performance, not realizing that the students simply misunderstood what was requested of them.

8. Using translation as an assessment tool: Having students translate phrases can be used to assess their understanding of how the phrase is used in a particular text.
9. Using the L1 when teaching reading comprehension (See section 2.9).
10. Translation techniques are a part of the preferred learning strategies of many FL students.
11. Using L1 in a foreign language classroom is sometimes seen as saving time and energy, alleviating students' frustration.
12. Time spent on explanations, reading instructions, etc., can be used for more exposure of L2 when students aren't required to use only L2 "at all costs," to the exclusion of L1.
13. In a high school Translation Skills classroom in which L2 language proficiency is high, students may feel less stress when hearing explanations in their mother tongue.

On a psycho-cognitive level, foreign language students inevitably fall back on L1 as a learning and communication strategy. It has been noted that when requested to produce writing, students often write a draft in their L1 and then translate it into L2. Although foreign language teachers attempt to prevent students from doing this, they cannot prevent students from *thinking* in a certain language (Mahmoud, 1998).

2.5 Metalinguistic awareness

Metalinguistic awareness is a relatively new term used in linguistic studies and was first introduced by Cazden (1974). It is considered one of the most commonly studied phenomena among researchers of foreign language learning.

2.5.1 Definition

Metalinguistic awareness (MA) is the structure, theory or model that may explain the connection between language and written text, especially among bilingual learners. Language acquisition can be regarded as "any other acquired skill", such as replacing a light bulb; as long as it is performed smoothly, it remains transparent. However, if there is a snag in communication, either written or verbal, attention may be shifted to what is causing it, creating opaqueness to language use (Cazden, 1974).

MA is the ability to analyze language as a "thing", a "process" and a "system," and to "think about a language" (Mora, 2007) in terms of language sensitivity. It enables language learners to analyze (compare and contrast) one or more language systems. In cases of two or more languages it also involves the recognition of commonalities and differences. Metalinguistic awareness is the process of thinking about and reflecting on the nature and functions of a language (Pratt & Grieve, 1984).

2.5.2 Study of metalinguistic awareness

Teaching translation skills in high school does not seek to provide a future profession for students, but to make them aware of the mental processes that may occur on a conscious and unconscious level when they use one of the two languages (Petrocchi, 2006). Studying cross-cultural differences aids in heightening students' metalinguistic awareness because it forces them to become familiar with linguistic elements connected to their own language and culture and to that of the L2.

In a study conducted in two Israeli high schools among students participating in the Translation Skills Program (See section 2.7), the objective was to see if students' metalinguistic awareness had improved over a three-year period (Kozminsky et al. 1998). Forty tenth-grade students from two high schools were chosen as subjects for a three-year study beginning in tenth grade and ending in the middle of their senior year of high school. Sixteen of the subjects were studying in the Translation Skills Program, and twenty-four in the control group were candidates for the highest-level (five-point) English matriculation exam at the end of that school year.

A pre-test was administered to the tenth grade students (in 1992) in which they were given two texts: one in English (264 words) and one in Hebrew (320 words). Students were instructed to select five words or phrases in each text that they considered difficult to translate and write an explanation in Hebrew for the difficulties. Students had no access to reference material, nor were they allowed to ask questions.

In the middle of the twelfth grade (1994) a post-test showed that the Translation Skills Program did improve students' ability to recognize and explain translational difficulties, in both the Hebrew and English texts. Students who had taken the Translation Skills Program achieved a score five points higher (net effect)

than those who had not. The authors attributed this improvement to heightened metalinguistic awareness.

2.6 Code-switching

2.6.1 Definition

Code-switching, "the practice of selecting or altering linguistic elements to contextualize talk in interaction", ³ has been studied in predominantly bilingual environments, rather than in foreign language learning classrooms (Elridge, 1996).

Teachers and researchers of EFL/ESL have been concerned that the appearance of code-switching is an indication of the failure to learn the target language, or a reluctance to do so (Willis, 1981).

2.6.2 Code-switching in the language-learning content

Elridge (1996) observed Turkish foreign language students, aged 11–13, studying English as a foreign language and found one hundred instances of code-switching, which were observed and recorded. 77% of the instances of code-switching were related to classroom tasks, i.e. requesting help, explanations, declarations of success, etc. 16% of the comments were directed towards the teacher and were related to procedure, or else they were language-related questions, not related to the task at hand.

It seems that code-switching was neither the result of lower-level language proficiency, nor the result of a higher achievement level of the L2. It is difficult to categorize the use of code-switching, as it may be multifunctional and open to different interpretations. The following examples may provide some possible explanations:

1. Searching for an equivalent – using or eliciting an equivalent lexical item in L2 through the use of L1:
Teacher, cave it means in Turkish *mağara*? (cave)
2. Floor-holding – using L1 when retrieval of a word or phrase in L2 is time-consuming, or frustrating:
T: Where did Robert...*ondan sonra* (after that)?...*neydi*?(what was it?)

³ Nilep, C. – Colorado Research in Linguistics June 2006 Vol.19 Boulder University of Colorado, Last accessed Feb. 2009

Or:

T: Was this done on your own?

S: *Tek başında* (on my own)...on my own.

3. Meta-language – Students tend to assume that language-related tasks are to be carried out in L2, any discussion around or clarification of L2 items may be carried out in L1.

T: Where did Gary go?

S: *Ben sorucağım* (I'll ask): Where did Gary go?

4. Reiteration – This is indicative of the need for reinforcement, clarification or emphasis, when the message is transferred in one code, but apparently not understood.

S1: Flowers...he?...flowers.

T: Flowers.

S2: Flowers...*çiçek*. (flowers).

5. Group affiliation, e.g. through shared humor – This motivation for code-switching is manifested in word-play: I like speak half Turkish half English. For example, My best friend '*im*.' (my).

It seems this form of code-switching is indicative of a lack of commitment towards the language. It also may explain the frequent use of discourse markers: I like being corrected *yani* (that is) because I learn *yani*.

6. Conflict control – According to Heller (1988: 81-93) one of the most common reasons for code-switching is to create ambiguity in the event of impending conflict. This is not only common among students, but among adults as well. Swearing in a foreign language seems to be less face-threatening than when used in one's L1. "I said 'liar' in English to my friends, because I don't want to say *yalancı* (liar) because I'm not sure."

7. Alignment – This occurs when the speaker/listener aligns him/herself with the group in which the discourse is taking place e.g. when the expected language of discourse is L2, but due to social pressures, embarrassment, or simply a reluctance to cooperate, students switch to L1 in response:

S1: (In L2) What did you do yesterday?

S2: *Neden siz*...Why are you...? (Why are you speaking in English)?

S3: Be quiet!

S4: Please be quiet!

These examples are cited to show that some use of L1 in a foreign language classroom is inevitable and that the teacher might do well to maintain reasonable expectations.

2.7 *Using translation as part of foreign language learning*

The arguments cited above against using translation in the foreign language classroom relate primarily to the Grammar Translation Method, in which students translated "in a void" (Vienne, 1994, in Malmkjær, 1998). Modern foreign language teachers, trained according to the Natural Method (also referred to as the Direct Approach) reintroduced this method in modern language teaching classrooms in the early 1970s and believed that using translation when teaching a foreign language prevented exposure primarily to L2. It was then believed to be the most effective method of teaching a foreign language. However, this proved to be a reaction to language theorists' discontent with the Grammar Translation Method, coupled with an assumption that students immersed in L2 would gradually begin to think in L2 when speaking and when writing.

Separating the use of L1 in a foreign language classroom from translation is as difficult as it is unnecessary. However, a distinction should be made between the natural language of communicative translation, and translation used to clarify the mechanics of L2 (Newson, 1998). Combining the two was seen as contributing to more efficient teaching strategies and diffusing previous misunderstandings (Atkinson, 1987) and increasing metalinguistic awareness. Newson (1998) maintains that translation from L2 to L1 can be useful in expanding source language vocabulary, and in discussing items within a specific semantic field, as in an exercise on synonymy.

House (1981) claims that the three main objectives of using translation strategies in an FL classroom are to:

1. Explain grammatical structures.
2. Aid the teacher in assessing how well the students have understood.
3. Provide teachers with means of large-scale testing of different types of knowledge and skills.

In the past, translation was used to assess students' comprehension of the L2; however, there was no reference to register, style, text type, or target reader. The socio-linguistic dimension of translation was ignored and students were not made aware of the many translational choices (Mahmoud, 1998).

This use of translation in foreign language teaching has come to be seen as a complex strategy that combines skills and behaviors based on "a variety of cognitive components which are the building blocks of translator intelligence" (Wilss, 1996:161; Adrabou, 2003). It is believed that translation addresses all the basic components that language science must contend with "from the nature of linguistic meaning to the process of communication across languages."

To translate, the translator employs at least four distinct strategies involving other language learning activities (Mackenzie, 1994; Malmkjær, 1998):

1. Categorization - Translators decide on the context and genre of the source text (ST): Who wrote it, who the target audience is, why it was written and when.
2. Resource exploitation - Translators use resource materials to search for previously unknown words and expressions, ideas and concepts.
3. Consultation – Translators consult with other translators and experts, pooling valuable knowledge.
4. Revision – Translators revise their work until they are satisfied with the outcome.

Contrary to the belief that translation was thought to be an outmoded method for foreign language instruction and its use being primarily to evaluate students' foreign language proficiency, translation may provide students with linguistic awareness that might otherwise be left undeveloped (Azizinezhad, 2007).

Based on studies of language errors apparently caused by L1 interference, language learners think in L1, engaging in mental translation, even when they are speaking or writing in L2 (Mahmoud, 1998). This gives rise to the notion that translation can be and should be used in the foreign language classroom and may serve as a means of increasing metalinguistic awareness. Because teaching translation involves switching back and forth between L1 and L2, students are confronted with similarities and differences between the two. Malmkjær (1998) suggests that translation increases students' awareness of L1 interference, increasing their metalinguistic awareness, thereby possibly controlling this interference.

Using translation as part of foreign language teaching can provide foreign language learners with the tools necessary to improve their understanding of and mastery over each of the two linguistic systems by investigating the relationship between them (Abdrabou, 2003). Translation studies for students still studying the L2 introduces separate language-learning issues, and is not necessarily the same as learning a language as such, although studying translation and learning a language may involve some of the same skills. Each foreign language student becomes proficient at a different rate during his/her foreign language education, having an effect on the level at which they could possibly become proficient in translation.

According to Pienemann's teachability hypothesis (1989), there are two sequential aspects of language learning relevant when teaching translation as a tool to increase language proficiency and not for the sole purpose of teaching a discrete skill (Azizinezhad, 2007):

1. Developmental sequence occurs regardless of the learner or the method of teaching and is controlled by the inherent nature of each learner's language acquisition device, which is common to all language learners.
2. Variational sequence describes the language-learning process using different methods in which language learners acquire language skills, based on the relationship between them and their individual circumstances, i.e. level of intelligence, ability to acquire a foreign language and socio-economic status.

2.7.1 Translation Skills Programs

Teaching translation skills to high school students differs from professional translation as it is for the purpose of increasing foreign language proficiency and metalinguistic awareness (Azizinezhad, 2000). Titford (1985:74) maintains that translation is an activity "usefully engaged in after the basic L2 communicative skills have been taught."

Materials covered in high school translation studies are generally modern, current texts, e.g. newspaper or magazine articles, essays and anecdotal texts (See Appendix I) and are used as a means of expanding language knowledge and as a means of exposing students to various forms of L2 (Newmark, 1991). It has also been found that students who attend optional translation courses do so in order to expand their vocabulary as well as improve their grammar (Snell-Hornby, 1985). Translation

Skills Programs can provide students with the opportunity to become aware of the relationship between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) and to learn more about each (Quynh, 2006) and to enhance their ability to analyze texts in a functional way, enabling them to identify the exact precise meaning intended (Brini, 2000).

By comparing one language to another, we consciously or unconsciously compare grammatical structures, syntax, lexis, etc. Words are addressed not only individually, but also in reference to what is actually implied by them in context. Students become more competent in the meaning of grammatical structures and more familiar with cultural norms linked with their own language (Petrocchi, 2006). During this process of contrastive analysis, students are forced to pay attention to pitfalls with which they are often faced in the foreign language classroom (Sheen, 1980; Mahmoud, 1992).

Language learners who are asked to translate a text that relates to recently taught material (e.g. lexical or grammatical) may benefit from the reinforcement of their awareness of structural, conceptual and socio-linguistic (cultural) differences between L1 and L2. Translation of material presenting false cognates, for instance, may increase students' awareness of misleading similarities between the languages. Back translation may be a useful method for enabling students to recognize inconsistencies or incoherence in their own outputs (Abdrabou, 2003).

Activities involving translation from L1 to L2 may also aid in rectifying recurrent problems of transfer by encouraging students to think about "How can I *express* X in English?" rather than "How do I *say* X in English," distinguishing between word for word translation and translating ideas and thoughts. This coincides directly with the more modern Communicative Approach of teaching English (Atkinson, 1987).

2.7.2 The Translation Skills Program proposal for Israeli high schools

At the time of his proposal of Translation Skills as part of the English curriculum, Gefen (1982), then the Chief Inspector for English in Israel, perceived translation as a practical skill that could be applied "in real life" after the students graduated from high school. He proposed that it would be very "useful" if students needed to "translate a letter," for instance, and should be the next step towards greater

language proficiency. Metalinguistic awareness was addressed not as an objective but an additional benefit. It was suggested that perhaps through exposure to translation practice students "might even be able to develop some insight into language as such, precisely through the direct confrontation between the mother tongue and the foreign language." Gefen proposed that:

1. Translation Skills should be taught in the last two years of high school (eleventh and twelfth grades).
2. Translation Skills should be taught from English into Hebrew only, as the majority of students were native Hebrew speakers.
3. Only certain agreed-upon sections of the final test should be graded.
4. The percentage of the translation portion of the final test should not exceed 10% of the final grade.
5. The passage given in the final test should not be too difficult and there should be no need for a bilingual dictionary.

Gefen's proposal evoked reservations from language teachers. For example, Pnina Rosenblith, then a teacher at Boyer High School in Jerusalem, observed that even students with unremarkable achievements in English language proficiency might do well in Translation Skills studies, as it is sometimes considered an art. Another EFL teacher from Jerusalem claimed that "'legalizing' translation in the English lesson would make it systematic, as in the past, and in the long run would not be beneficial." Elana Shohamy, of the School of Education, at Tel-Aviv University, stated that a clear distinction should be made between teaching translation as a goal, as opposed to using it as a means of checking reading or listening comprehension.⁴

From 1985 to 1988, three years after Gefen's initial 1982 proposal, Translation Skills was offered as an experimental program in Israeli high schools in the eleventh and twelfth grades, in an addition to the four basic language learning skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. In 1989 it was introduced as an independent, optional two-point matriculation course designed for students who had received an 85% or higher on the first of the three modules of the five-point English matriculation exam, the highest level of English in Israeli high schools (Kozminsky et al., 1998). The objectives of the course were:

⁴ Comments from Raphael Gefen's Discussion Paper (1982) pgs. 15, 19

1. "To develop the learner's insight into the nature and significance of language as such..."
2. To create an intellectual and linguistic challenge.
3. To broaden the student's competence in both the mother tongue (Hebrew) and the foreign language (English).
4. To show the student how to "balance the competing claims of accuracy and fidelity to the source on the one hand and appropriacy and idiomacy in the target language on the other" (Ministry of Education 1990:3).

2.7.3 Translation Skills in Israeli high schools today

The Translation Skills Program taught in some Israeli high schools is an advanced or final stage of language teaching in the high school setting. It is recognized as the "fifth skill" as it encourages advanced verbal and written communication, reading comprehension in addition to understanding differences between cultures. Israel seems to be the only country that offers this program to high school students.

Today, in 2009, the English Curriculum in Israel is based on a number of principles, according to which incidental translation need not be ruled out entirely. However, since Gefen's proposal in 1982 to incorporate teaching translation skills as a part of the Israeli curriculum, changes have been made in the English Curriculum for Israeli Schools, including a course in systematic translation, or Translation Skills, that has been implemented in many high schools as a separate course for students who have achieved a high proficiency level of English. Students who pass the matriculation exam in translation are awarded two points towards their total (21 point) matriculation point quota, which is needed in order to graduate high school. Students may participate in the course even if they have already acquired enough matriculation points towards their quota from other courses; they are not required to actually take the matriculation exam, but may reap the benefits from having taken the course.

Kozminsky et al. (1998) regard the results of their study as grounds for promoting the Translation Skills Program in high school, but note that "students and even their teachers are not aware of this extra benefit to their English..." and yet, ten years later, the Translation Skills Program is taught in sixty-two high schools all over Israel with more students taking the translation skills matriculation exam each year, up from 300

in 1988, to approximately 600 students in 2008. The number of teachers certified to teach Translation Skills, who have participated in the mandatory course for that purpose is unknown, as many who have taken the course do not actually teach the program, while some schools offer the course taught by an uncertified teacher.⁵ The size of the classes ranges from 5 to 25 students, depending on the size of the school, the minimum quota each school requires to provide the course, the number of students who meet the requirements, and the number of students who are willing to take the extra two-point workload. The requirements are:

1. Students must have received an 85% grade in the grammar section of their Hebrew matriculation exam.
2. Students must have taken part in the Native Speaker⁶ program in their high school.
3. Students must have received at least an 85% on the first module (Module E) of the three-part English matriculation exam in the eleventh grade (Ministry of Education, 1990).

By and large the above prerequisites attract talented and serious students in general and serious language students in particular. Lessons are conducted in a relatively informal environment, where L1 and L2 are used interchangeably and students are encouraged to collaborate (See section 2.10). Authentic texts are preferred to doctored or adapted ones and are chosen so students will fulfill a realistic, communicative task (Klaudy, 1995). To pass the matriculation examination in Translation Skills students are required to:

1. Translate a passage of approximately 200 words from English to Hebrew. The passage is usually adapted from a leading magazine or newspaper article (See Appendix IX).
2. Give an item analysis of 6 out of the 15 or so dictated lexical items or phrases that present a particular challenge in translation. These items deal with translational issues such as:
 - a. detecting and avoiding false cognates.

⁵ Personal communication, Miriam Shlesinger, Aug. 4, 2008, and by Sara Kitai, Aug. 5, 2008

⁶ The Native Speaker program is offered in some schools, usually from the seventh grade on, who have proven to be highly proficient in English, whether they are fully bilingual or not. English is taught as a second language, and not as a foreign language. The objective is to maintain a "native-speaker" level of English in these classes, preparing student for early matriculation in 11th grade.

- b. adapting source-language syntax to that of TL.
- c. recognizing the appropriate register and adapt it in the TL.
- d. adhering to corresponding TL grammar and recognizing grammatical structures in the SL text.
- e. recognizing the differences in semantic field and gridding in SL and TL.
- f. recognizing different pragmatic structures in the SL and TL.
- g. being aware of polysemes in both the SL and the TL.
- h. being aware of voids (lexical, grammatical, cultural, morphological, conceptual).
- i. being aware of metaphors and idioms.
- j. being aware of different collocations in SL and TL.
- k. recognizing different cohesive devices in both languages.
- l. detecting word-play, e.g. alliteration, assonance, puns, allusions, etc.
- m. accuracy⁷ – translating all semantic content while preserving the original form, from SL to TL.
- n. appropriacy⁸ - translating the semantic content while creating a natural, fluent translation, as though the text were written originally in the TL.

Translation of the text accounts for 70% of the exam (as opposed to 10% cited in Gefen's original proposal in 1982) and 30% of the exam is devoted to item analysis. Students may use reference materials, e.g. dictionaries, thesauruses, etc. (the Internet has not yet been introduced as a reference source), the rationale being that the translation exam is not to test proficiency, but mastery of the translation skills taught in the course and improved metalinguistic awareness (Gefen, 1982).

2.8 *The English Curriculum for Israel*

The English Curriculum for Israel (1982) is based on three principles:

1. Communication
2. Relevance of English to the educational process in Israel
3. To encourage an interest and a feeling of language

⁷ Rosenbluth & Ballas, 1998:13

⁸ Rosenbluth & Ballas, 1998:13

The English Curriculum for Israel revised in 1982 (p.78) allows the use of translation in a foreign language classroom within its support for the "modified Audio-Lingual Approach", where translation could be used as part of the presentation stage of lexical or grammatical items. The English Curriculum for Israel states that "systematic translation, where students translate back and forth as a goal, and not as a means of teaching English, as opposed to incidental, or occasional translation, in order to point out a specific item, is not recommended..." and "use of the mother tongue should be kept to a minimum..."(English Curriculum for Israeli Schools, p. 77). The Curriculum goes on to state, "The didactic dangers in the widespread use of the mother tongue far outweigh any immediate aesthetic or semantic benefit."

2.9 *Teaching translation to improve skills in L2 reading comprehension*

Bassnett (1998) believes that "translation offers a crucial lesson in how to read, since it is a critical way into the text." She sees it as an effective means of obliging students to read texts critically and to focus on the lexical, syntactical and textual levels, as well as expanding general knowledge, while "unveiling students' problems in comprehending (English) texts" (Brini, 2000). Students are encouraged to pay attention to terminology, register, jargon, slang and idioms that may characterize an individual text (Petrocchi, 2006). Translation can be an effective tool to analyze comprehension problems, which may lead to problems in discourse processing (Adrabou, 2003).

Reading comprehension exams are difficult to evaluate because they do not allow the instructor to investigate how students have arrived at their answers, nor do they take into consideration students' comprehension or interpretation of the comprehension questions themselves (Mahmoud, 1998).

In the English matriculation exam in Israel (Garb, 1997), tests that were once designed to have students read the texts in English, and then answer the comprehension questions in their L1 were abolished on the grounds that experts believed that this did not provide the tester with enough material to test the students' level of language production⁹.

⁹ http://www.etni.org.il/etnirag/issue1/erica_garb.htm#A (Last accessed Sept. 2008)

In one experiment (Garb, 1997) teachers gave Israeli high school students a reading comprehension text that originally had comprehension questions attached, which had been removed for the purpose of the experiment. The students, who had continually received high grades in reading comprehension exercises, were asked only to read the text. When asked if they had understood the text, all the students replied positively. However, when asked global questions about:

1. the writer's intention
2. the writer's opinion
3. the overall theme

it emerged that the students' understanding of the text had in fact, been poor. This discrepancy is seen as stemming from the students' habit of relying on questions to "guide" them to making sense of the material, while not taking sufficient heed of the deeper meaning of the texts and not thinking independently or critically.

According to Mahmoud (1998) reading comprehension skills should be taught as a means of *teaching* a foreign language rather than a means of *assessing* the comprehension of the language, as was done in the past. Reading skills should be taught in order to make students aware of how meaning is conveyed in the L2. If we assume that there is only one "correct" answer by grading comprehension questions while students recite their answers aloud in class or by having the teacher mark the exams according to a fixed answer key, then crucial pedagogical and linguistic tools may be overlooked if the teacher accepts the only "right" answer and moves on. Some have argued that merely labeling an answer as "wrong" leads to poor utilization of the text as a device to encourage critical thinking and awareness (Nuttal, 1982). Another difficulty may lie in the complexity and seeming "trickiness" of the question, which students find demoralizing (Mahmoud, 1998). If students are required to follow simple instructions such as, "Translate the following passage," they are forced to relate to the entire passage, and there is less room for discrepancies. In addition, the level of their comprehension may become clearer through their translation. Because there is not only one possible answer in translation, students may express themselves more freely both verbally and in writing. This possibility may encourage collaborative learning (See section 2.10.1); where although there might be a preferred translation, it may not necessarily be rendered the only "correct" one.

Translation can be very useful because it encourages students to read texts more carefully and critically as opposed to skimming reading passages to find the

main idea, which may often leave some of the text unread. One of the goals of translation might be to help students find an efficient method to comprehend texts, focus their ability to analyze texts in a functional way, enabling them to determine meaning, and provide them with methodology when faced with matters such as polysemy, dictionary consultation, usage, etc. (Brini, 2000).

In response to Gefen's proposal to teach Translation Skills in Israeli high schools, Shohamy claimed that translation used as a means to check reading or listening comprehension is a "very useful and effective technique" (Gefen 1982).

2.10 *Teaching translation in a collaborative classroom*

2.10.1 What is collaborative learning?

Collaborative learning (or cooperative learning) is an alternative to the traditional frontal style of classroom teaching. Students benefit from openly sharing ideas and conclusions with one another in a more informal environment, thus allowing even timid students to voice their opinions. All the students are "equal" in that they are striving towards a common goal, i.e. the most acceptable translation (Romney, 1996). The teacher's role changes from that of sole transmitter of knowledge to that of a guide and assistant (Sewell, 1996; Kiraly, 1995). According to Johnson and Johnson (1985:104), "cooperative learning experiences promote higher achievement than do competitive and individualistic experiences." For students to optimally benefit from collaborative learning, they must be made aware of the teacher's objective, how the system works and what to expect, and all aspects of collaborative learning should be indicated (academic, social and individual) (Romney, 1996).

In a collaborative translation class, students are divided into groups either randomly or according to a prescribed rubric, e.g. gender, level of achievement, behavior, etc. Together the group arrives at a version of the translated text that is later shared with the other groups, i.e. the rest of the class. While there may be no consensus, as translation does not have one correct answer, the process enables less inhibited discussion, sharing knowledge and ideas with peers, and freedom of expression for most. Students are sometimes required to keep a log or journal to keep track of errors, or choices they would like to remember (See Appendix II).

While the process of collaborative learning might take longer than receiving the "correct" answer from the teacher, the overall process is considered ultimately more profitable (Romney, 1996).

2.10.2 Benefits of collaborative learning

Benefits for the teacher

- The teacher is freer to circulate in the classroom, providing immediate, personal answers to questions.
- Time may be saved when groups collaborate, because students work simultaneously.
- A collaborative classroom atmosphere allows more time for discussion of errors and inaccuracies, as well as preferred translational solutions.
- A collaborative classroom atmosphere leaves more time and fertile ground for commending good work (Romney, 1996).

Benefits for the student

- Students may be less reluctant to share their difficulties in a setting that is less threatening.
- Students rely on their collaborative expertise, encouraging each other to participate; in a non-collaborative classroom, certain students often become passive.
- Shy students may feel less intimidated when working within a small peer group
- The informal, relaxed atmosphere may reduce anxiety, often felt in frontal classroom situations (Kozminsky et al. 1998).
- Students learn from each other as well as receive feedback from the teacher (Kiraly, 1995).

Sainz (1993) has devised a chart for student progress in translation (See Appendix II). Here students can keep a comprehensive chart of changes in previous translations, as well as maintaining a log of their progress. She suggests that students can thus become more aware of errors as well as good translational solutions.

2.11 Assessment in translation

Translation assessment is a wide, complex field, involving a variety of methods and strategies. Because it depends on the human ability to assess quality, the diversity of assessment, the type of assessment (professional versus that of students) and the level of assessment (degree of flexibility) can vary widely. While translation assessment may be in part "a matter of personal taste," students of translation are keen on having their work evaluated and being aware of what those criteria are (Farahzad, 1992). This being said, no matter how concrete the criteria, it is difficult to ignore the human element in assessment (Gile, 1999).

2.11.1 Teacher-based assessment

Evaluation per se is explored in the field of Education Science, as educators are constantly in search of newer more objective methods to evaluate students' progress and competence (Melis & Albir, 2001; Goff-Kfour, 2004). In the case of learning translation skills, the teacher is the only person assessing the students' work, which may lead the students to dismiss readers who were not privy to the source text and to disregard any but the teacher's list of "correct answers" (Pagano, 1994; Pym, 1992).

Assessment has been equated with "measuring in order to judge." According to this perspective, the evaluator (or teacher) is the "judge" and the person being evaluated (the student) must submit to the evaluator's authority (Melis & Albir, 2001). However, when learning translation, students are able to "step back from one's work and evaluate it with objectivity, and post-edit one's own and other people's work" (Sewell, 1996). Students can learn from the teacher's explanations of the languages involved, thus giving them a frame of reference to later assess their own translations (Klaudy, 1995).

Assessment in the translation classroom poses a challenge for the translation teacher and the type of assessment used in any translation classroom needs to be defined. Students must be made aware of the type of assessment the teacher will use in his/her classroom (Goff-Kfour, 2004); e.g. a rubric, listing what will be assessed and how the assessment will be conducted. When students understand their role, and the requirements, the learning process may become clearer, thus paving the way for more comprehensive and less stressful learning (Sainz, 1995).

Feedback is usually discussed in the classroom on an ongoing basis and when returning assignments (Dollerup, 1993), and students offer alternative options as well, thus increasing metalinguistic awareness by comparing and contrasting meaning and style.

One of the drawbacks of teacher-based assessment is that it does not always allow students a full awareness of their lack of knowledge, e.g., failure to produce certain lexical items may cause the translator to be circumlocutory. Even when identifying a problem, discussing its etiology and revising to avoid repeating it, students of translation may manifest interference, which may be difficult to eradicate (Shlesinger, 1992).

2.11.2 Diversity and fidelity in teacher/professional assessment

Not only students suffer from failure to identify pitfalls, but assessors as well. Even if a group of assessors agrees upon the quality of a certain translation, their assessments may vary, regarding specific errors of grammar, lexical choices, syntax, etc. (Gile, 1999). Translators' style and interpretation may vary as well, possibly rendering different outputs (Melis, Nicole & Albir, 1998).

2.11.3 Self-assessment

Self-assessment is an integral facet of collaborative learning and reflects the growing pedagogical need for alternative forms of assessing students' progress. It is also used as an alternative to allegedly alleviate the teacher's workload (Moritz, 1996). Instructors and curriculum designers today seem to believe that a more learner-centered, creative and flexible teaching system motivates students. A more active attitude is encouraged on the part of the student and self-evaluation is incorporated into the learning process. They also see the necessity of adapting testing methods to the revised curricula and methodologies (Goff-Kfour, 2004).

2.11.4 Research in self-assessment

In research pertaining to self-assessment, reference is made to the lack of decisive evidence that students can accurately assess their own learning. There are several contributing factors (Moritz, 1996):

1. Students' attitude towards the particular subject matter.
2. Students' self-esteem.
3. Students' attitude towards the teacher of a particular subject.
4. Students' alleged knowledge of what the teachers' expectations are.
5. Wording of the questions used in questionnaires.
6. Students' alleged desire to conform to perceived social /scholastic values.

In a study of foreign language learning (Moritz, 1996), using two types of verbal reports, TAPs (Think Aloud Protocol), and an immediate retrospective interview, six principal factors were identified as affecting students' self-assessment:

1. Question interpretation – how the student interpreted each question.
2. Language learning background – the language background of the student.
3. Reference points – how the student saw him/herself in relation to the other participants.
4. Strategies in completing a questionnaire – how each student perceived the correct method of completing a questionnaire.
5. Level of certainty towards answers – how certain each student was of his/her own capabilities.
6. Level of confidence – a subjective, psychological perception of how each student perceived his/her own ability.

In summary, self-assessment is an individual interpretation of one's answers in relation to the rating scales, as influenced by one's experiences, background, attitudes and strategies towards the self-assessment task and despite their subjectivity, may be in shaping the students' own overall impression of their own learning, as well as the teacher's impression of his/her degree of success in imparting knowledge (Moritz, 1996).

3. Objective

The objective of this case study is to evaluate the effectiveness of the Translating Skills Program in high schools in Israel, as represented by a single teacher in a single high school, by assessing students' metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension skills in English after participating in the program.

4. Hypotheses

1. The study of translation skills and the collaborative methods of the translation classroom will increase students' metalinguistic awareness.
2. The study of translation skills will improve reading comprehension skills in English, the students' L2.

5. Methodology

The study combines qualitative and quantitative methods. The participants originally comprised twenty-six 12th graders, six of whom dropped out of the course, leaving 20 (10 males and 10 females), who participated in the class and ultimately took the matriculation exam; of these only 14 (7 males and 7 females) participated in the full research program (see below).

All of the participants had been students in the Native Speaker English program provided by the school, and completed their required matriculation exam in English as a foreign language in the 11th grade. Only one student came from a home in which English was spoken as a first language; the remaining thirteen had achieved a high level of proficiency in English either by studying English in school and/or having spent time abroad.

The native language of the group was Hebrew; however, the class was instructed mostly in English as the teacher, a native speaker of English had been teaching the class for 5 consecutive years. Hebrew was used upon request to clarify certain points. The students were not required or encouraged to choose between English or Hebrew as their language of communication during class.

The class was quite homogeneous in terms of English language proficiency and the ambience was relaxed and comfortable, with almost no disciplinary problems.

5.1 *Stage I – October 2007*

5.1.1 **Baseline assessment of translation skills and of metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension skills in the English (L2)**

Before beginning the Translation Skills Program, the students (n=20) were given a text of 180 words to translate. The text (Test I) included items that were considered to prove challenging to translate, such as: idioms, homonyms, polysemes, grammatical voids, lexical voids, foreign measurements, slang, medical terms, false

cognates, etc. (See Appendix III). They were also given a questionnaire asking them to describe their translation process (See Appendix IV).

Reference materials were monolingual English dictionaries¹⁰, bilingual Hebrew-English/English-Hebrew dictionaries¹¹, a Hebrew thesaurus¹², an English thesaurus¹³, and a bilingual thesaurus of idioms and phrases¹⁴.

5.1.2 Text assessment

Texts were assessed by three translation professionals: Two teachers of the Translation Skills Program (who will be referred to as A1 and A2); one had been teaching the course for nine years, the second teacher had been teaching the course for six years. The third assessor (who will be referred to as A3), a native speaker of Hebrew, and not a teacher of the Translation Skills Program, was graduate of the Master's program in The Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies at Bar Ilan University, as well as a teacher of English as a foreign language in the Israeli high school system.

Task 1

The two teachers (A1 and A2) graded the students' translated texts (Test I and Test II) according to the following criteria:

<i>Error</i>	<i>Hebrew grammar</i>	<i>Syntax</i>	<i>Wrong word or phrase</i>	<i>Omission</i>	<i>Wrong collocation</i>	<i>False cognates</i>	<i>Register</i>	<i>Gridding</i>
<i>Student #</i>								

These criteria were chosen based on the prescribed requirements for item analysis on the matriculation exam, as presented in the Translation Skills Program textbook. Assessors were asked to tally the number of errors each student made in each category.

¹⁰ Cassel's English Dictionary (1979), New York

¹¹ 1) Oxford English-English-Hebrew Learner's Dictionary Kernerman Publishing and Lonnie Kahn Publishing, Tel Aviv Based on Oxford Students' Dictionary, (2001), Oxford

2) The Complete English-Hebrew Dictionary, (2001) Alkalay, R. Tel-Aviv

¹² Word for Word, Thesaurus of the Hebrew Language, (2000), Israel

¹³ Roget's 21st Century Thesaurus, (2005) N.Y.

¹⁴ Thesaurus of Idioms and Phrases, (2006) Sevenier-Gabriel, N. Israel

Task 2

At the end of Stage IV, A3 was asked to compare each of the students' translated texts (Test I and Test II) and determine which translation she felt was the better of the two, using no formal rubric.

5.2 *Stage II – October 2007 – May 2008*

Lesson structure

According to the Ministry of Education, Translation Skills should be taught in the last two years of high school. However, because of administrative reasons, the program is taught only in the last year (12th grade) of this high school.

Every week a 90-minute class was conducted beginning with the discussion of "bloopers" the students shared with the class (for which they received extra credit), i.e. idiosyncratic translations that students had come across in newspapers, on television, in books, street signs, etc. Each "bloopers" was first discussed together with the teacher, after which the students worked in groups, discussing what the error was, how to describe it and what they would consider to be a better translation. Time allotted for this exercise depended on the number of bloopers submitted in a particular lesson, and the amount of discussion necessary.

Students were divided into groups of three or four, usually based on seating arrangement (Romney, 1996). Following the discussion described above, the lesson was devoted to checking homework, which consisted of translating a paragraph from a text, reviewing points in translation practice, introducing a new point based on the text they had been given, or introducing the remaining paragraph(s) from the current text or a new text (See Appendix I).

Students were required to keep a log of their progress (See Appendix V), of the translation terminology they had learned and of their own errors, to increase awareness and to reduce prospects of repeating the errors. They were also required to note any translation solutions they felt were particularly good, thus enabling them to log their personal progress. This process was entirely collaborative, with students often debating the type of error they had made, binary or non-binary (Pym, 1992), and the cause of the error as well as alternative solutions.

During the stage of collaboration, the teacher visited each group, listened to the conversation and commented, while offering encouragement, answering questions, or giving suggestions. This allowed her to decide what to emphasize during the next

part of the lesson or in future lessons, or share a particular point with the class frontally. One student was chosen by the group to present that group's translation, leading to further discussion of the different translations. The teacher would sometimes suggest a translation and at other times the class would vote on their “favorite”. Grammatical, lexical and/or syntactical errors in the Hebrew (L1) were pointed out when necessary.

In addition, a language teacher of Hebrew was invited to the class on three occasions, to stress certain Hebrew grammar structures that the students seemed to be having difficulty with.

5.3 *Stage III – December 2007*

Reading comprehension skills in English (L2)

For this stage of the study, students' reading comprehension was to be tested using two standard exams, taken from Module G, of previous matriculation exams that the participants had never seen (See Appendices VI and VII). The Israeli English matriculation exam is a two-part exam, including a 250-300-word text, often adapted from a leading English-speaking newspaper or magazine, and followed by eight comprehension questions. The second part of the exam is a writing task in the form of a 120-150-word essay. This study focuses only on the reading comprehension portion of the exam, geared to test the following criteria:

1. Recognition and production of higher proficiency-level grammar (the perfect aspects, passive voice, etc.)
2. Spelling and punctuation
3. The ability to read and understand a high level of vocabulary, with the aid of the Oxford Learner's English-English-Hebrew dictionary
4. Comprehension of the text

In this study, the students' output was graded only according to the number of comprehension errors they had made, and not according to the number of points prescribed in the exam.

The assessment process

The participating students were divided into two groups of ten - Group A and Group B – with each group receiving a different reading comprehension exam (Exam

A and Exam B). The exams were later evaluated by their Translation Skills teacher, based on a pre-existing answer key (Goff-Kfour, 2004), paying attention *only* to the comprehension questions. Scores included only the *number* of errors out of the eight questions in each exam.

5.4 Stage IV – May 2008

Ranking translational output

At the end of the six-month course, only the 14 students¹⁵ who had participated in the complete study were given the same text (Test II) they had translated in October and asked to:

- Translate the text.
- Describe the translation process.
- Discuss which output they preferred: the one at the beginning of the year or the one at the end of the year. They were also asked to explain their choice. They were shown their first translations *after* completing the second one.

They were also asked to describe the translation process as in the Test I. The second translations were assessed by the same evaluators (A1 and A2) who had assessed the first translation, based on the same criteria. In addition, the translations were given to the third A3, who was to decide which of the two translations she preferred. A3 had not been informed of the sequence: which translation was first and which one was second. She was asked to choose the preferred translation of the fourteen sets of two, and to describe the reasons for her choice.

5.5 Stage V – June 2008

Assessing reading comprehension skills in the English (L2):

At the end of the six-month course, the same reading comprehension exams as mentioned above, were administered with Group A taking Exam B, and Group B taking Exam A. These exams were also evaluated by their teacher of Translations Skills and were compared with the ones they had taken at the beginning of the year.

¹⁵ Six students did not complete this stage of the study.

5.6 *Stage VI – June 2008*

Students' assessment of metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension skills

The students were given another questionnaire at the end of the six-month course to self-assess changes in their metalinguistic awareness as well as their reading comprehension skills (See Appendix VIII).

5.7 *Stage VII - June 2008*

Teacher's impression of students' meta-linguistic awareness

Interviews, in Hebrew (except for one in English) were carried out with 14 students¹⁶ by the Translation Skills teacher to obtain personal feedback as well as validate data in the questionnaires while allowing the students more latitude when describing their experience (Sainz, 1993) comprised the following questions (without explicit reference to metalinguistic awareness):

1. What did you expect to learn from the Translation Skills Program?
2. Did the curriculum meet your expectations? Explain.
3. What subjects of the course seem relevant for you in real-life situations?
4. Did the course affect your English (L2) reading/listening comprehension, your writing and your speaking? How?
5. How did you feel about translating the text given to you at the beginning of the year? At the end of the year? Discuss these differences.
6. What did you actually learn in the Translation Skills course? What will you take with you?
7. If you could turn the clock back, would you still take the Translation Skills Program? (Responses in section 6.3)

5.8 *Methodological limitations*

The longitudinal report presented here is essentially a case study based on a small number of subjects during one year. Results present a number of methodological limitations:

1. Using high school students presents a number of drawbacks (Moritz, 1996).
 - a) Attendance is not always consistent.

¹⁶ Six students did not complete the study.

- b) Performance of high school students varies in ways that may be unrelated to the task.
 - c) Different tasks require different levels of execution.
 - d) The level of students' motivation, commitment and conscientiousness vary greatly.
 - e) Students' understanding of the task at hand or what is being asked may vary.
2. Guidelines given to Assessors 1 and 2 as to how to calculate errors were left to their own interpretation.
 3. Guidelines given to Assessors 1 and 2 specified the type of error only, excluding the number specific errors.
 4. Assessor 3 was not provided with the same guidelines as Assessors 1 and 2.
 5. This study did not include a control group.
 6. Quantitative research was confined to error analysis.
 7. This study was confined to one single class in a single school by a single teacher, who is the author of this study.
 8. The author of this study was the subjects' teacher of the Translation Skills Program and had been their teacher of English as a foreign language for five consecutive years.

6. Findings

6.1 Assessment of translation texts

6.1.1 Quantitative findings from Test I and Test II

Hypothesis 1: *The study of translation skills will increase students' meta-linguistic awareness in English (L2).*

The following data represents the quantitative findings from the translations of a text (See Appendix III) given to the students at the beginning of the year (Test I) and the translations of the same text given to the students at the end of the year (Test II).

Each set of texts (Test I and Test II) was graded separately by two assessors, A1 and A2, teachers of Translation Skills in two Israeli high schools. Both were given the same instructions before evaluating the texts: to record and classify the number of

errors according to a table of eight categories. The choice of categories was explained to the assessors by the researcher.

6.1.2 Assessor 1 (A1)

The following tables show that according to A1 all of the students produced fewer errors on Test II than on Test I. The total number of errors produced by all of the students combined decreased by 25% on Test II.

Table 1 – A1 Test I

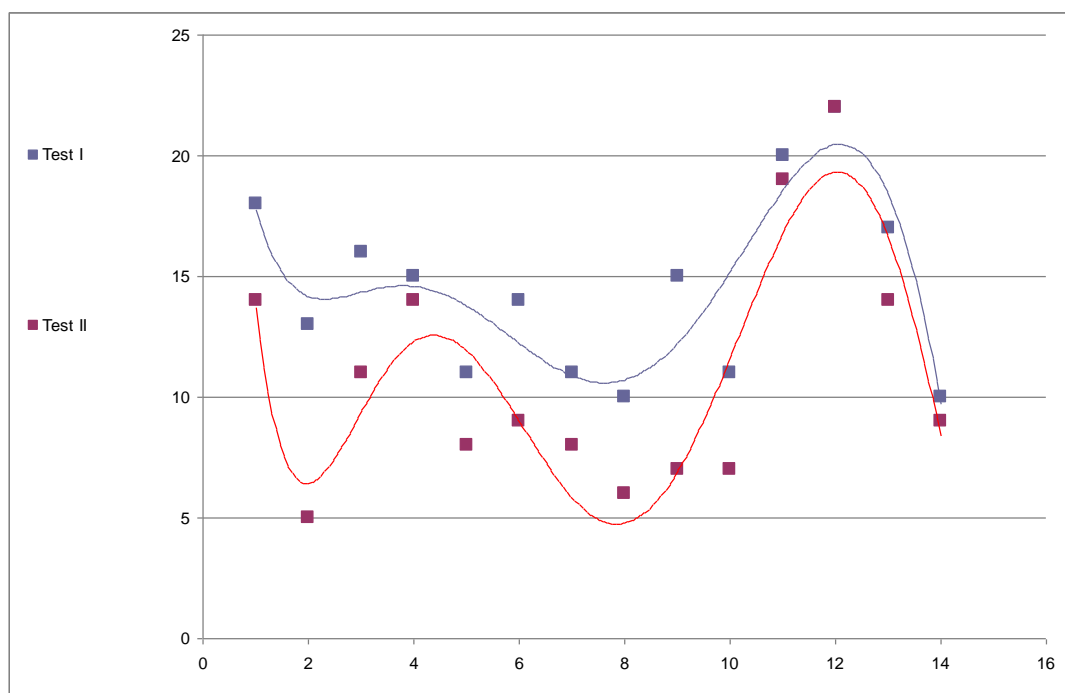
<i>Student</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	18
2	14
3	16
4	15
5	11
6	15
7	11
8	10
9	16
10	11
11	21
12	23
13	17
14	11
Total	208
Mean	15

Table 2 – A1 Test II

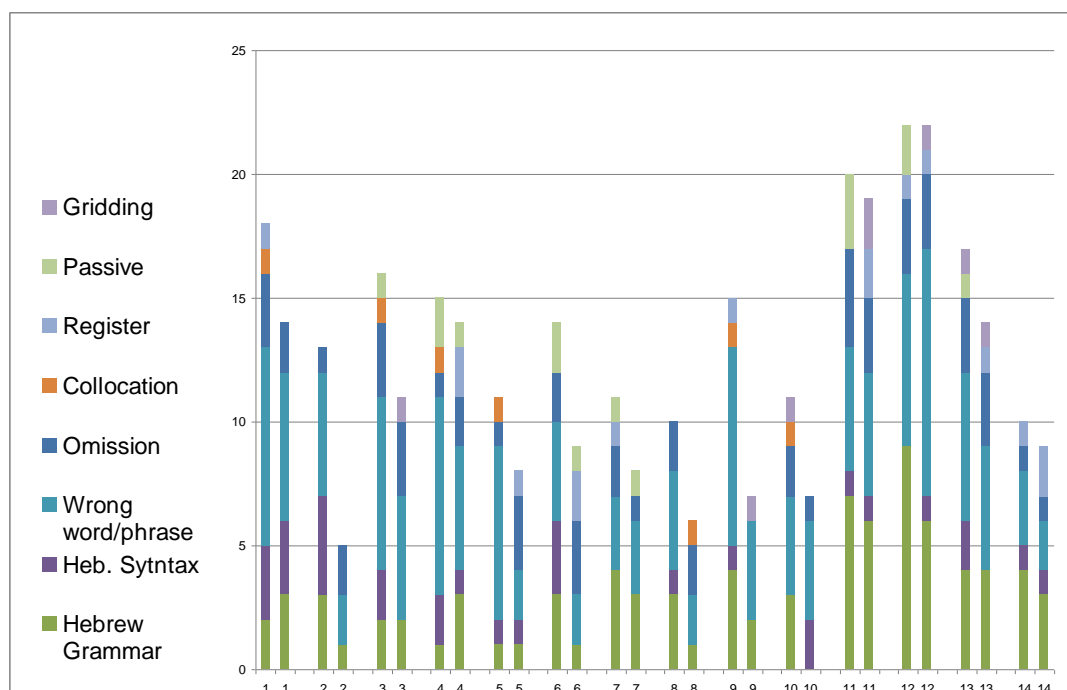
<i>Student</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	14
2	5
3	11
4	14
5	8
6	9
7	8
8	7
9	7
10	7
11	20
12	22
13	14
14	10
Total	156
Mean	11

Graph 1 (scatter chart below) shows the total number of errors on Test I (blue) in relation to the total number of errors on Test II (red): according to A1 100% of the students received a higher score on Test II than on the Test I.

Graph 1
Scatter chart comparing Test I and Test II results according to A1



Graph 2
Comparison of students' errors on Test I and Test II according to A1



Graph 2 (previous page) shows the comparison between Test I and Test II and the corresponding number of errors in each category (Test I on the left, and Test II on the right). According to A1 100% of the students received a higher overall score on Test II than on Test I.

The following table (Table 3) shows the total number of errors the students produced in each category that A1 recorded on Test I. The highest number of errors (79) was produced in the "Wrong word or phrase" category.

Table 3 – A1 – Summary of Test I

SUMMARY Test I (n=14)			
<i>Category</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Hebrew Grammar	50	3.57	4.73
Heb. Syntax	21	1.50	1.50
Wrong word/phrase	79	5.64	3.48
Omission	28	2.00	1.23
Collocation	6	0.43	0.26
Register	5	0.36	0.25
Passive	12	0.86	1.05
Gridding	2	0.14	0.13

The following table (Table 4) shows the total number of errors the students produced in each category that A1 recorded on Test II. Again, the highest number of errors (57) was produced in the "Wrong word or phrase" category.

Table 4 – A1 – Summary of Test II

SUMMARY Test II (n=14)			
<i>Category</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Hebrew Grammar	36	2.57	3.34
Heb. Syntax	10	0.71	0.84
Wrong word/phrase	57	4.07	4.99
Omission	29	2.07	0.99
Collocation	1	0.07	0.07
Register	11	0.79	0.80
Passive	3	0.21	0.18
Gridding	6	0.43	0.42

The overall variance of the class is concurrent with Test I, showing the continued homogeneous nature of the class. The lower overall variance in Test II shows the class's combined improvement on Test II.

6.1.3 Assessor 2 (A2)

The following tables show that A2 recorded more total errors per student than A1; however, all of the students still produced fewer errors on Test II than on Test I. Students 1 and 12 produced approximately 10% fewer errors while the remaining students produced between 40% - 60% fewer errors on Test II.

According to A2's results the students produced approximately 40% fewer errors on Test II than on Test I.

Table 5 – A2 Test I

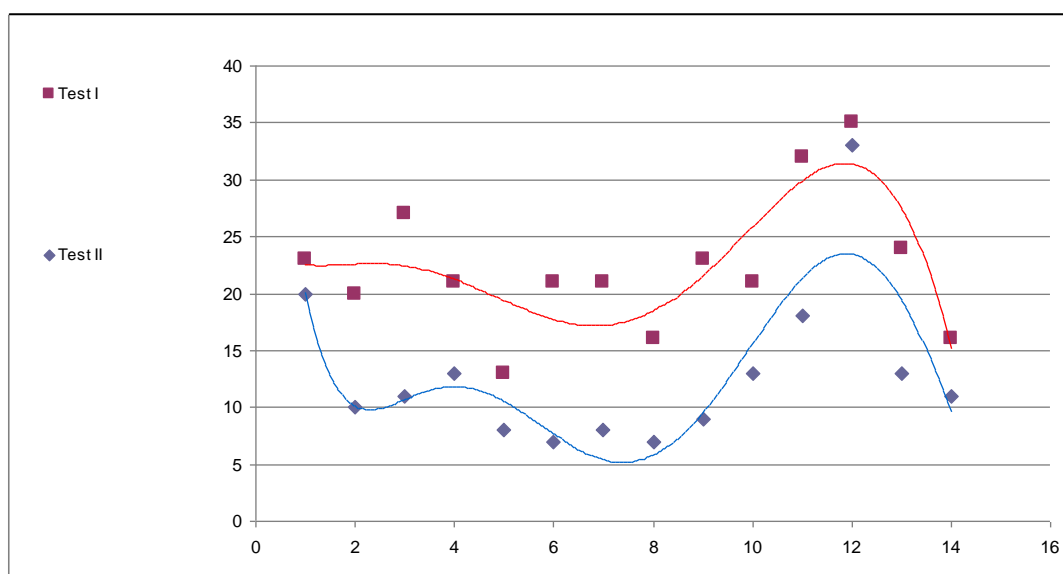
<i>Student</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	23
2	20
3	27
4	21
5	13
6	21
7	21
8	16
9	23
10	21
11	32
12	35
13	24
14	16
Total	313
Mean	22.3

Table 6 – A2 Test II

<i>Student</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	20
2	10
3	11
4	13
5	8
6	7
7	8
8	7
9	9
10	13
11	18
12	33
13	13
14	11
Total	194
Mean	13.8

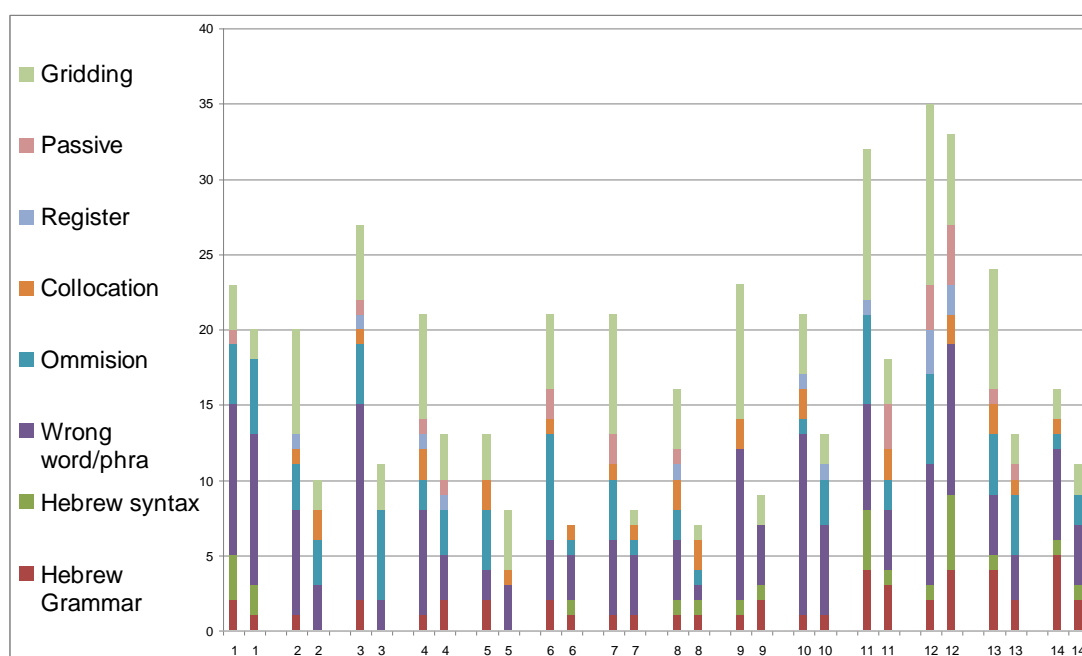
According to A2 all of the students (100%) received a higher overall score on Test II than on the Test I, and produced approximately 40% fewer errors. Graph 3 (scatter chart, following page) shows the total number of errors on Test I (blue) in relation to the total number of errors on Test II (red):

Graph 3
Scattered chart comparing Test I and Test II results according to A2



Graph 4 (below) shows the comparison between Test I and Test II and the corresponding number of errors in each category: Results of A2 show that 100% of the students received a higher overall score on Test II than on Test I.

Graph 4
Comparison of students' errors on Test I and Test II according to A2



The following table (Table 7) shows the total number of errors the students produced in each category that A2 recorded on Test I. The highest number of errors (99) was produced in the "Wrong word or phrase" category as in A1's results.

Table 7 – A2 – Summary of Test I

SUMMARY Test I n=14			
<i>Category</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Hebrew Grammar	29	2.07	1.76
Hebrew syntax	12	0.86	1.52
Wrong word or phrase	99	7.07	10.53
Omission	48	3.43	4.26
Collocation	17	1.21	0.64
Register	9	0.64	0.71
Passive	12	0.86	0.90
Gridding	87	6.21	8.80

The following table (Table 8) shows the total number of errors the students produced in each category that A2 recorded on Test II. Again, the highest number of errors (60) was produced in the "Wrong word or phrase" category.

Table 8 –A2 – Summary of Test II

SUMMARY Test II n=14			
<i>Category</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Hebrew Grammar	20	1.43	1.34
Hebrew syntax	12	0.86	1.82
Wrong word or phrase	60	4.29	7.14
Omission	31	2.21	3.57
Collocation	12	0.86	0.75
Register	4	0.29	0.37
Passive	9	0.64	1.63
Gridding	33	2.36	2.09

The following table (Table 9) shows the relationship between the number of errors both A1 and T2 recorded for each student on Test II. Results show that in Test II, both A1 and A2's recorded errors show a difference of two or fewer errors in 71% of the results:

Table 9
Comparison of A1 and T2's recorded errors on Test II
(Errors on Test I are shown in parenthesis.)

Student	Number of errors recorded by A1 on Test II	Number of errors recorded by A2 on Test II
1	14 (18)	20 (23)
2	5 (14)	10 (20)
3	11 (16)	11 (27)
4	14 (15)	13 (21)
5	8 (11)	8 (13)
6	9 (15)	7 (21)
7	8 (11)	8 (21)
8	7 (10)	7 (16)
9	7 (16)	9 (23)
10	7 (11)	13 (21)
11	20 (21)	18 (32)
12	22 (23)	33 (35)
13	14 (17)	13 (24)
14	10 (11)	11 (16)

6.1.4 A3

The translated texts (Test I and Test II) were given to a third assessor (A3) who has a master's degree in Translation and Interpretation Studies. With no indication of their sequence, she was instructed to indicate which of the two tests she preferred, based on what "sounded more like Hebrew."

In 12 out of the 14 pairs of tests (86%) A3 preferred the second translations (Test II) over the first translations (Test I). The only exceptions were students 10 and 12. (She accounted this choice by stating that student 10's first test seemed to "flow better" and student 12's second test was just a "hodge-podge.")

6.2 Assessment of students' description of translation process

6.2.1 Qualitative findings from questionnaires following the first translation

Students were required to describe the process by recording a detailed account of what they had done throughout the translation exercise (See Appendix IV).

None of the students described a process per se, nor did they use any translation terminology. Some of the descriptions read as follows (my translations): "I read each line first," or "I was mostly thinking and looking up words," or "I thought a

lot," and "I didn't translate word for word, but according to sentences." "I was under pressure."

They described difficulties with phrases such as, "The sentence was unclear in English," or "I wasn't sure which word to use," and "I changed the sentence because it sounded odd." They made lists of words or expressions that were difficult for them to translate, but made no reference to the cause, other than "I didn't know how to translate these words or phrases."

The mean number of times they used reference material (e.g. English-Hebrew/Hebrew-English dictionary) was 10.25, ranging from 3 to 15 times. Two students had refrained from providing this information. No use was made of any other reference materials provided.

It is not surprising that the students did not relate to the translation "process" as they had not been made aware that such a process existed. They had been given no prior training in translation skills, but because of their high level of proficiency in English appeared to assume that all they had to do was "write the same text in the target language."

6.2.2 Description of translation process at the end of the year

As in Test I, the students were requested to record the process (See Appendix IV) when translating the text for the second time (Test II). Below are some of the students' descriptions (my translation). Students 4, 12 and 14 did not address the translation process at all, even though they were asked to. Use of the dictionary (Oxford's Learner's English-English Hebrew Dictionary) averaged 13 times, ranging from 0 to 15. Four students used a Hebrew thesaurus and two used the Cassel's Monolingual Dictionary.

Student 1 – "I read the text and remembered reading it on the first day of school. I didn't remember how I had translated it, but I knew that there were pitfalls I hadn't been aware of then. I knew that they needed to be addressed, but I wasn't always sure how to translate them. I used the dictionary a lot more. I didn't trust my instincts as much this time."

Student 2 – "First I read the text from the beginning to the end. If I didn't understand a word, I tried to understand it according to the text. If I still didn't understand it, I used the dictionary (Hebrew – English) to avoid 'not knowing what I don't know'. I deliberated over the register of the text, as it changed from paragraph to paragraph."

Student 3 – This student itemized the translational challenges the way she would have done for the high school matriculation exam in translation (See Appendix IX). For example, *...are sometimes smoked...* "I noticed the number of times the passive voice was used in the text, and realized that the passive voice doesn't always translate well into Hebrew", or, *...are colloquially known as 'cigs', 'smokes', 'ciggies', 'cancer sticks'*, "I found these expressions difficult to translate because of the slang terminology that doesn't exist in Hebrew (voids) and the low register; therefore I felt it was okay to omit these terms, and just write, "In English there are a number of slang terms, but in Hebrew..." She also explained writing two sentences in the target language instead of the one long one in English "to improve the syntax."

Student 5 – "After finishing the translation, I decided to delete the slang terms for cigarettes, because in Hebrew these terms present voids. I translated the title at the end, because I wanted to use an idiom like in the source text, but knew I had to complete the whole text so I could find a sensible equivalent idiom in Hebrew or other collocation. The word 'inserted' was difficult, because of the gridding. I also couldn't find the right word for 'consumed' in Hebrew, a), because of the passive and b), because of the gridding."

Student 6 – "I first read the whole text as we were taught, so I could get the main idea of the text as well as the register and the tone. I translated the text quickly, but marked the problematic words or phrases. I used the dictionary to help me with these passages. I was preoccupied by two major problems: The use of passive in the source text, and the use of the slang expressions for cigarettes. I know there are a lot of slang terms for drugs in Hebrew, but not for cigarettes. This is an interesting sociological fact in itself. I guess we could call it a sociological void, but I don't remember learning that particular type of void. Perhaps cultural? Anyway, I decided to omit them. I had a problem with the collocation 'finely cut'. I wasn't sure what it meant exactly. Then I attempted to get the register right – it kept changing throughout the

test. Then I checked my grammar in Hebrew. Then I sat for 15 minutes to let the text "sit." Then I made the final adjustments and translated the title. I think it took me a lot longer this time."

Student 7 – "First I read the whole text then began translating. I marked the words I thought I would have difficulty with, and then looked them up in the dictionary. I stared at the blackboard for a while deciding which words would fit the best. I got stuck on the slang terms for cigarettes, because there were no entries for the words in English, and as far as I know there are no equivalent slang terms in Hebrew. The word 'disease' confused me, because according to the text the word really should be 'problems.' I had a problem with the title, which I translated last, because I wanted to find the right collocation. I even had trouble with subject-verb agreement. I realized that I had used the male form of the verb when I should have used the female, or vice versa."

Student 8 – "I read the text from the beginning to the end and began translating, leaving the title for last. I looked up all the words I didn't know, or wasn't 100% sure that I knew. I had a problem with the slang terms for cigarettes, and I admit – I left the classroom to see if I could find anyone outside who knew any slang terms in Hebrew for cigarettes. I even 'texted' my friend. When I got to the title I used the Thesaurus of Idioms and Phrases in order to find a suitable collocation. I had a problem with the words 'finely', 'commonly used', 'cigarette holder'. The word 'devices' has a larger gridding in English. I don't think we have exactly that term in Hebrew. I shortened the sentences and changed a lot of them from passive to active."

Student 9 – "I read the text twice and at the same time looked up difficult words or expressions. I divided the text into sentences. When I began to translate each sentence I read it two or three times. I tried to understand the *meaning* of each sentence and not just the words. I tried to overcome the 'pitfalls' (there were a lot). I divided the longer sentences. I changed a lot of the sentences from passive to active. I had difficulty with the time expressions, such as 'generally', 'usually', because when I translated them they didn't make sense in Hebrew. There were examples of ellipsis that confused me because I wasn't always sure what the verb was referring to. The word 'commonly' is a morphological void and it was hard for me to find the equivalent for 'commonly

known'. The word 'colloquially' is both a morphological and a lexical void, and I had trouble finding an equivalent for 'colloquially used'."

Student 10 – "While translating, I was looking up words in the dictionaries. I was concerned with translating the text so it wouldn't sound like translationese. I wasn't sure whether the word "finely cut" meant in cut little pieces or that it was cut well. There was no equivalent in Hebrew for the word "smolder" so it is a lexical void. I changed most of the passive sentences into active, because we don't use the passive as much in Hebrew. I divided the long sentence into two sentences to improve the Hebrew syntax.

Student 11 – This student described the physical process when translating the text. He mentioned that he got up to get a dictionary, but "couldn't find one" [sic]. Therefore, he didn't use a dictionary, so he just omitted the words he didn't know.

Student 13 – "I found this text even harder the second time. I was more aware of the subtleties of the English. There was a lot of use of the passive voice in English that I had to change, but my Hebrew grammar isn't as good as it should be, I guess, because some of the sentences really didn't sound right. I used the dictionary a lot. I don't remember how many times."

6.3 Interviews

Interviews were conducted with all fourteen of the students after they had taken their Translation Skills matriculation exam (See Appendix IX). As in the beginning of the year, the students were reminded that their answers were going to be used for research, but not told what the research was focusing on. The interviews took place randomly, whenever the students had a few moments to spare. This proved to be more challenging than anticipated. To make sure information was obtained from all, students were asked to answer the questions via e-mail as well.

Interviews were conducted in an informal setting (usually under a tree on campus) in Hebrew (unless specified otherwise) and answers were recorded in writing as the students spoke.

Questions had been prepared in advance, and students were asked to answer them to the best of their ability and as elaborately as possible, with occasional follow-up questions of clarification. As these interviews were obviously not conducted anonymously, it was taken into consideration that perhaps some of the students felt they needed to give more positive feedback than they had given on the anonymous questionnaires (See Appendix VIII); only student 12 addressed the questions with just yes/no answers.

Question 1

What did you expect to learn from the Translation Skills Program?

Ten students (2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 14) said that they had expected to learn the differences between English and Hebrew, on both a grammatical and a lexical level and how to bridge the gap between the two languages. Students 12 and 13 mentioned that they had expected to learn about the process of translation and how to translate more quickly and with fewer errors.

Students 9 and 13 did not address the question per se, but mentioned that they hadn't realized that translation was so 'abstract' and was an acquired skill, although one must have a certain talent in order to do it well.

Students 4 and 14 said that they hadn't given it much thought prior to the course. They said they had felt the course would widen their horizons, so no matter what, they would benefit.

Student 1 claimed that she had heard that the course was "fun", didn't entail a tremendous amount of extra homework, and that there was some prestige attached to taking it. She also maintained that she did not "need" the extra two points and had felt that she could drop out if it had not met her expectations.

Question 2

Did the curriculum meet your expectations? Explain.

Students 7, 11 and 12 only provided a positive answer, "Yes," and were reluctant to elaborate. The remaining eleven students also answered positively, but added: "Absolutely. I learned more than I thought I would" (students 1, 2, 3, 9, 6, 8). "I would like to learn even more about the differences between the languages

(Hebrew and English) and more about history of the languages” (student 10). “I was surprised to learn things I hadn't thought about before” (student 3). “I learned, for example, about the cultural voids between the languages that cannot always be overcome in translation and about the difficult choices that the translator needs to make (like) in order to find the 'mot juste'.” “I’m sorry the course was so short. I think it should have started in eighth grade” (student 4). “I learned more than I had expected but thought we would learn the 'right' way to translate. But then on second thought, we learned that there really is no 'right' way – that's what makes it so hard – or easy” (student 5).

Question 3

What subjects of the course seem relevant for you in real-life situations?

Student 1 mentioned a conversation with a friend, in which the friend kept using the word "sad" to describe something. The student told her friend that she didn't really mean "sad", she meant something else. She opened the thesaurus and found the word "upset." She said, "That was it! That was the word I was looking for. Before the course, I would not have realized the subtle differences between words, and I certainly wouldn't have taken the time to look them up in a thesaurus – I didn't even know what a thesaurus was! It may seem silly to most people, but there is a great feeling when you are able to find the right word to express yourself – in any language."

Student 8 said that it would take some time till she could read for pleasure again. Every translated book that she reads, she unintentionally back-translates and analyzes why she finds the passage awkward. She also stated that she feels more confident when criticizing translated literature because she has more of an understanding and a means to express herself in this field.

Students 10, 11 and 12 stated that realistically, unless they were to pursue a career in translation, the skills they had learned were not relevant to their daily lives. However, all three added that anything learned in life is useful, and they were sure that they would see that later. Students 1 - 9 said there was no doubt – they already felt that the skills they learned were relevant to the way they speak, read literature, and write. Student 5 mentioned the fact that learning about pragmatics had made him more aware when he wrote in both Hebrew and English. He also said he hadn't

realized how carefully he had begun to listen to the way people speak, and to analyze intensifiers and hedgers.

Student 13 said she had never paid much attention to the subtitles in movies and on television. Now that she has studied translation skills she understands why there are mistakes.

Question 4

Did the course affect your English (L2) reading comprehension? How?

Many of the students did not relate only to the question of reading comprehension. Some students expressed the need to talk about the effect the course had on their Hebrew even though this was not part of the question. All fourteen students said that they believed they had a better ability to comprehend texts in English. Students 3, 5, 6, 8 and 9 stated that perhaps their immediate comprehension was not better, but they were aware of how to address a text properly in order to understand what it really meant.

Students 11 and 12 claimed that the course had no effect on their Hebrew or their English. The others mentioned specific aspects of both languages that were affected by the course: Students 1 and 8 mentioned that the course had affected their appreciation of translated literature, and that prior to the course, they had not realized how difficult it was to translate a text, or the amount of time one could spend deliberating over a single word. They said they had been made aware that "synonyms are never really synonymous," that spoken Hebrew is a relatively "new" language, borrowing so many words from other languages, especially English, which made them aware of false cognates.

Student 8 mentioned that she tended to use more metaphors in writing and even when speaking. She said that she had begun to pay more attention to the "beautiful Biblical expressions we have in Hebrew," and even looked up their origins while before the course she took them for granted. She said it had never occurred to her that there were reference materials to use for this purpose.

Students 3, 5 and 9 said they were more aware of the richness of English and the many voids in both languages. Student 3 mentioned that she now pays more attention to the differences between the languages and noticed that she was making more of an effort to speak Hebrew more correctly. She said that she knew this,

ironically, because her friends had mentioned that she sounded different when she spoke, and used less Israeli slang than she used to. Student 14 mentioned that because of his better understanding of the analysis of English and Hebrew he could understand English texts better due to his ability to pick out certain polysemic words.

Students 2, 5 and 14 said they were more aware of collocations and translationese when describing the effect that the course had had on reading comprehension.

Question 5

How did you feel about translating the text given to you at the beginning of the year? At the end of the year? Explain the difference in the process. (This question is related to in detail in section 6.2.2)

Most of the students stated that they couldn't remember how they had felt about the process they went through when translating the text at the beginning of the year because it had been a long time ago and they had not been aware of the fact that there was indeed a process. Students 6 and 9 stated that it took them longer to translate the text the second time because they were more aware of the different items they had had to relate to. For example, there were slang terms for "cigarettes" in the text (See Appendix III). In the first translation, one student made up names in Hebrew, and now she realizes they made no sense, and another student just omitted them and made no reference to their existence, which she realized was not such a bad way to address the problem.

All of the students except student 12 said it had been more difficult to translate the text the second time because of their awareness of the detailed process, but on the other hand, they made more use of reference materials to help them out, and were less daunted by the task.

Student 12 apologetically and honestly said that he hadn't been "into the course" and he had been so glad it was the end of the year, that he just translated the text as fast as he could, "off the top of his head," in order to hand it in (Both the qualitative and quantitative data support this).

Question 6

What did you actually learn in the Translation Skills Program? What will you take with you?

In order to present the findings of this question, students' answers are presented individually. Although many of the students related to the same aspects of the course, each student also specified a number of different issues. The answers, like the previous ones, have been translated from the Hebrew by the researcher:

Student 1 – I notice bad translations in the media. Even if it's not really a *mistake*, you know, like **binary and non-binary**, but the sentence just doesn't seem right.

Student 2 – I notice specific words in English and I try to figure out their origin, especially **idioms and metaphors**, so if I were to translate them, I would know exactly what they mean, and then it would be easier for me to find an equivalent in Hebrew. I also notice the different tenses in English more, especially the perfect [sic] and the **grammatical nuances** between Hebrew and English.

Student 3 – I mostly notice translations more when I read. It never occurred to me to find out who translated a book, and to give the translator credit for their hard work. By the way, their name should be on the front of the book, right along with the author. Now I appreciate the amount of work that is put into translations. I also learned all sorts of terms that I had never heard of before. I feel like it has opened up a whole new world for me.

Student 4 – I pay more attention to the way I speak. I must say - it can be very frustrating. I didn't used to pay attention to masculine and feminine in Hebrew. Now I find myself asking my friends, "Wait – is such and such masculine or feminine?" I'm losing my friends slowly (giggle).

Student 5 – I have become much more pedantic towards my use of language, both in Hebrew and in English, even though before the course I took the trouble to write properly (or so I thought), now I am even more careful.

Student 6 – I notice things like **false cognates**. I don't think I really know yet what I will "take with me" as the year has just ended. Maybe if you ask me next year I will have a more honest answer for you.

Student 7 – I always thought that I knew Hebrew really well. I mean, it's my **mother tongue**. But now I know that I had (and have) a lot to learn. I won't even get into the English! My mother says I put her to shame.

Student 8 – I pay attention to everything relevant to **adjectives, tenses, gridding, vocabulary, idioms, syntax or punctuation**. I learned so much; I can't even remember it all.

Student 9 – I learned how **cohesive devices** can change the whole meaning of a sentence, or a **conjunction**, like although, or but, or in spite of the fact... I learned new expressions, and loads of translation terms whose existence I wasn't even aware of. I learned about the subtleties of the past tense in English that we don't have in Hebrew. I know I was supposed to have learned all this in the lower grades, but for some reason, in the translation course it became much clearer.

Student 10 – I learned the definitions of different problems that arise in translation, like **idioms**, for instance

Student 11* – I learned professional expressions, and I became aware of different types of errors and the reason behind them. When I studied about the many types of translation errors, I never thought I would be able to notice them in subtitles or advertisements.

Student 12 – I am really sorry, but I can't honestly say what I learned. I missed a lot of classes, and I really was so bogged down with my other subjects. I'm sure I could have gotten more out of the course if I had applied myself, but you know me... I think that if I ever attempted to translate anything I wouldn't feel very sure of myself.

Student 13* – Throughout the course I had the chance not only to translate, but also to learn general information about the subjects (topics) of my translations and about both languages. I mean, we learned about so much stuff.

Student 14* – I learned all kinds of expressions and grammatical structures such as **voids, gridding**, etc.

* The student spoke in English and the answers were recorded verbatim.

6.4 Findings from quantitative post-course questionnaire

The following are the findings from a post-study questionnaire administered to the students at the end of the year (See Appendix VIII). The questionnaire included questions regarding Hebrew proficiency, English proficiency and translation skills. Findings related to Hebrew were not included in this study as they were not relevant. Questions were rated on a scale of 1 – 5; 1 = not at all and 5 = very much.

Questions related to English proficiency were:

1. My reading comprehension has improved.
2. I am more aware of grammatical structures.
3. I have increased my vocabulary.
4. I read faster.
5. I have fewer spelling errors.
6. I speak more correctly.
7. I can understand spoken English better.
8. I can speak English with more ease.
9. I make more use of reference materials.

Table 10 shows the number of students who answered each question regarding English proficiency and the mean score.

Questions 1 – 3 received the highest average rating, bearing in mind that seven students (50% of the class) believed that their reading comprehension had improved considerably and six students (42% of the class) believed that they had become more aware of grammatical structures.

Table 10

Students' responses to post-course questions referring to English proficiency

Scale	Number of responses for each question								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
=1	0	0	0	3	3	1	2	2	3
=2	2	1	2	4	5	4	4	4	1
=3	4	5	5	4	0	5	4	4	3
=4	7	6	4	3	4	4	4	4	4
=5	1	2	3	0	2	0	0	0	3
Mean	3.5	3.6	3.6	2.5	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.2

Table 11 shows the number of students who answered each question regarding translation skills and the average of all of the students' answers to the respective question. Questions related to translation skills were:

1. I am more aware of the types of errors I am likely to make.
2. I make fewer errors when translating.
3. I know where to find vocabulary I need when translating.
4. I am more aware of the differences between English and Hebrew.
5. I understand why there are translation errors in the media.
6. I would like to pursue a career in translating.
7. I make more use of reference materials.
8. I will make use of my translation skills in the future.
9. I learned more than I thought I would in the course.

Table 11
Students' responses to post-course questions referring to the
Translation Skills Program

Scale	<i>Number of responses for each question</i>								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
=1	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	0
=2	1	1	0	0	0	4	2	1	0
=3	3	1	2	3	1	6	3	3	4
=4	5	7	7	1	9	1	5	6	7
=5	5	5	5	9	4	0	3	4	3
Mean	4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	2.4	3.5	3.9	3.9

Except for question 6, regarding the pursuit of a translation career, all of the questions concerning translation competence received high ratings. Nine students (63% of the class) gave the highest rating to question 4, which relates to awareness of the differences between English and Hebrew, showing that the students' perception of their metalinguistic awareness is high. Question 5, relating to translation errors in the media, also received a high score. Students perceived that they had a better

understanding of why there were translation errors in the media, which also indicated a higher level of metalinguistic awareness.

Overall, the students' self-assessment of their achievement in the Translation Skills Program is high, which may indicate that their level of metalinguistic awareness, according to their own perception, had increased.

6.5 Reading comprehension skills

Hypothesis 2: *The study of translation skills and the collaborative linguistic analysis of the translation classroom will improve reading comprehension skills in English.*

Below are the individual quantitative findings from both reading comprehension exams: The first one given at the beginning of the year and the second text given at the end of the year, following the Translation Skills Program.

Tables 12 and 13 show that for each of the students in Group A the number of errors they produced in the first reading comprehension exam either remained unchanged or decreased and they produced (including those students who made no errors at all). They produced 64% fewer errors on the first exam than Group B, but only 40% fewer errors on the second exam. Group A produced 62% fewer total errors than Group B.

Table 12 – Group A

Reading comprehension test results

Group A text A			Group A Text B	
<i>Beginning of the year</i>	<i>Errors</i>		<i>End of the year</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	2		1	1
2	0		2	0
3	1		3	0
4	0		4	0
5	0		5	0
6	0		6	0
7	1		7	1

Table 13 – Group B

Reading comprehension test results

<i>Group B text A</i>			<i>Group B Text B</i>	
<i>Beginning of the year</i>	<i>Errors</i>		<i>End of the year</i>	<i>Errors</i>
8	1		8	0
9	2		9	1
10	1		10	0
11	2		11	1
12	3		12	2
13	1		13	0
14	1		14	1

Results show that all of the students either maintained the same number of or produced fewer errors on the second text.

Group A produced 50% fewer errors on the second exam, and Group B produced 45% fewer errors. For the two groups together, the total number of errors of the first exam was 15 as opposed to 7 errors in the second exam, showing a 47% improvement. Twelve out of the fourteen students (92%), including those who made no errors at all, improved their scores, and two students (14%) maintained the same score (1 error). In addition, answers to question 4 in the quantitative questionnaire showed that most of the students believed their reading comprehension in English had improved.

These findings lead us to conclude that every student's reading comprehension in English improved after taking the Translation Skills Program.

6.6 Results from matriculation exam in Translation Skills

Table 14 shows the students' scores on the Translation Skills exam 2008 (See appendix IX) and how they correspond with the mean number of errors recorded by A1 and A2 that each of the students produced in Test II. The mean number of errors recorded on Test II correlated with the scores the students received on the matriculation exam in 86% of the results.

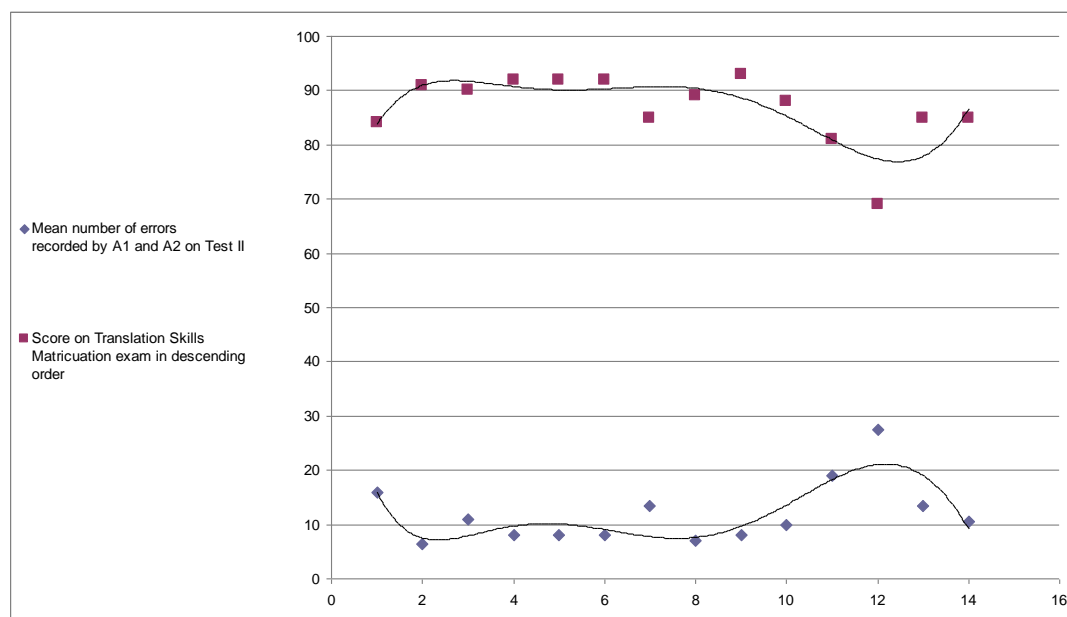
Table 14

Comparison of the number of errors recorded by Assessor 1 and 2 of Test II in relation to results of their scores on the Translation Skills matriculation exam

<i>Student</i>	<i>Mean number of errors recorded by A1 and A2 on Test II</i>	<i>Score on Translation Skills Matriculation Exam (in descending order)</i>
9	8	93
5	8	92
4	8	92
6	8	92
2	6.5	91
3	11	90
8	7	89
10	10	88
14	10.5	85
7	13.5	85
13	13.5	85
1	16	84
11	19	81
12	27.5	69

Graph 5 below shows the correlation (-0.951) between the mean scores of both Assessor 1 and 2 on Test II and the students' scores on their matriculation exam following the Translation Skills Program in 2008. The graph shows that the fewer the number of errors, the higher the score on the matriculation exam for 86% of the students.

Graph 5 - The correlation between the mean number of errors recorded by A1 and A2 on Test II and the final scores on the Translation Skills Program matriculation exam



7. Conclusions

7.1 Conclusions of qualitative findings

7.1.1 Interviews prior to Translation Skills Program

Interviews prior to Translation Skills Program were repeated immediately following the course; the students' memories of their experience were supposedly fresh and the subject matter was supposedly easy to retrieve. The qualitative section of this research clearly shows that most of the students perceived that they had increased their metalinguistic awareness to some degree. Their answers also present the students' attitude towards their own capability and their ability to describe their own translation experience using terms taught in the Translation Skills Program. Eight of the fourteen students (Students 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14 = 56%) used these terms to express their knowledge (See terms in bold Section 6.3, Question 6).

One conclusion may be that prior to the course, the students had little or no metalinguistic awareness, nor did they have the tools with which to articulate this. One especially interesting comment is from Student 4 (Question 2:5) who said that they should learn translation skills from the eighth grade.

7.1.2 Interviews after Translation Skills Program

The most conclusive evidence shown in this study seems to be the difference between the students' first description of their translation process prior to any instruction and the second, after completing the Translation Skills Program, in which they provided specific information concerning the translation process, expressed understanding and internalization of translation terms used in class, and addressed specific items that were difficult and provided solutions and explanations.

Of the eleven students, six (55%) mentioned that they had noticed the passive voice, which correlates to the lower number of errors in the Passive category in both Assessor 1's and Assessor 2's findings. Assessor 1 found that students produced 75% fewer errors regarding the passive voice. Assessor 2's findings show that the students made 25% fewer errors in use of the passive.

Students (35% of the class, 45% of the 11 students who wrote about the process) also mentioned difficulties with slang terms, some of which they simply deleted.

The interviews were conducted in person, which perhaps forced the students to produce more positive responses than they might normally have done (See Methodological Limitations, section 5.8). However, except for student 12, whose progress all along the way had been sporadic, the students seemed to give an honest account of the experience they had undergone and to feel at ease using linguistic jargon.

Despite misgivings towards self-assessment (Moritz, 1996), the post-course quantitative questionnaires show that the students believe they have increased their metalinguistic awareness, improved their reading comprehension skills and become aware of reference materials. Four students mentioned that they had purchased both the Hebrew and English thesauruses and the *Hebrew-English Thesaurus of Idioms and Phrases*, showing that their awareness towards reference materials had increased.

As shown in the literature review, there is a great deal of controversy over whether or not learning translation skills can be an effective method of teaching English, or any foreign language. Clearly, one needs to have some level of proficiency in the L2 before beginning to learn translation. However, the evidence presented in this paper - which includes responses to the post-course questionnaire, students' descriptions of the translation process and the interviews, as well as quantitative

evidence from the reading comprehension exam and the three assessments from professional assessors – points to a positive effect that the Translation Skills Program has on students' metalinguistic awareness; e.g. the realization that language transcends the level of word-to-word equivalence, and entails the cultural, sociological, and historical aspects.

The literature review supports the evidence presented in this paper: Even though translation cannot be taught as a sole method of language learning, it can be and should be taught in tandem with the other methods of language learning.

7.2 *Conclusions of quantitative findings*

Assessor 1 and Assessor 2, found a distinct overall improvement in the students' ability to translate and in their awareness of such points as syntax, grammar, voids, register, etc.

Both assessors' recorded errors of both tests indicated that students seemed to have the most difficulty finding the correct word or phrase. This may indicate that the students either were unaware that they were not using the correct word or that they did not make full use of "resource exploitation" (Mackenzie, 1994; Malmkjær, 1998). These findings may also support one of the drawbacks mentioned in the literature review (Section 2.11.1) stating that teacher-based assessment does not always enable students to be aware of their lack of knowledge or of the existence of certain lexical items (Shlesinger, 1992).

Although both assessors found an improvement in the test scores in Test II, Assessor 2 recorded many more total errors on both Test I and Test II than Assessor 2. These findings may be explained by a number of factors:

1. The assessors' interpretation of the criteria according to which the errors were recorded was different; fidelity in translation assessment depends on the human element, which cannot be ignored (Gile, 1999). (See section 5.8).
2. Error analysis should not be the only method of pedagogic translation assessment (Ebrahimi, 2007; Gile, 1999).

The comparison of the tests (by Assessor 3) which showed that 85% of the second translations (Test II) were preferred over the first ones (Test I), is also indicative of the students' increased metalinguistic awareness.

8. Further conclusions

This study, as in many studies dealing in the field of translation is representative of a small number of subjects over a relatively short time. Using high school students as subjects presents a number of drawbacks (See section 5.8). Even though the human element in assessment plays an integral role throughout the research process (Gile 1999), findings in this study provide evidence of the possible benefits of using translation in the EFL classroom in general, and indicate and support the value of the Translation Skills Program in Israel in particular. The quantitative results of Test I and Test II from all three assessors indicates students' possible increased metalinguistic awareness, and points to the students' increase in their ability to translate a specific text.

Quantitative and quantitative results of students' self assessment indicate that most of the students believed that they had increased their ability to translate and were more aware of the differences in both their L1 and L2. They were also able to elaborate on, discuss and describe these differences using specific terms taught throughout the Translation Skills Program. Quantitative results of the reading comprehension exam also indicate an increase in their level of reading comprehension in the L2.

Both quantitative and qualitative findings provide evidence of the possible metalinguistic benefits of using translation in a foreign language classroom in general, and support the metalinguistic value of the Translation Skills Program in Israel in particular.

9. Recommendations

As mentioned, this study was confined to a single Translation Skills Program in a single school by a single teacher; the class was taught in English. Investigating the results of a similar study in more than one school and/or the addition of a control group, as well as investigating results of a Translation Skills Program taught in Hebrew might contribute to this study.

Making the Internet available to the students during the matriculation exam may increase their ability to arrive at more reliable translations. Having access to a wider scope of reference sources might prevent some of the errors the students may produce.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Example of text used in Translation Skills Course

Cotton Candy

Cotton candy (American English), **candy floss** (British English), or **fairy floss** (Australian English) is a form of **spun sugar**. It was introduced to the world in 1904 at the St. Louis World's Fair with great success, selling 68,655 boxes at the then-high 0.25 USD (half the cost of **admission** to the fair). Modern cotton candy machines work in very much in the same way as **older** ones. The center part of the machine consists of a small bowl into which sugar is poured and food coloring added. Heaters near the rim melt the sugar and it is spun out through myriad tiny holes where it **solidifies** in the air and is caught in a large metal ring. The operator of the machine **twirls** a stick or a **cone** (or the more experienced ones use their hands) around the rim of the large catching bowl and picks up the candy.

Because cotton candy consists of mostly air portions, **servings** are large. A typical cotton candy cone will be a little bigger than an adult's head. Many people consider eating cotton candy and candy apples part of the quintessential experience of a visit to a fairground or circus.

The most popular color of cotton candy is pink, and it is also popular in a **trio** of pink, purple and blue. Eating cotton candy is often considered only part of its allure, the second part being the act of watching it being produced in a machine. It is sweet and sticky, and though it feels like wool to the touch it readily melts in the mouth. It does not have much of an aroma although the machine itself has a cooked sugar smell when in operation. Cotton candy is soft when dry, but when it comes in contact with **moisture**, it becomes sticky.

Appendix II

Chart according to Sainz (1993)

[illegible]

Appendix III

Text for Test I and Test II

Please read the questionnaire **before** you begin.

Please take note of the time you begin your translation (including reading time):

Circle word(s) that were difficult for you to translate.

Please do not forget to translate the title.

Up in Smoke

A cigarette is a product consumed via smoking and manufactured out of cured and finely cut tobacco leaves, which are combined with other additives, then rolled or stuffed into a paper-wrapped cylinder (generally less than 120 mm in length and 10 mm in diameter). The cigarette is ignited at one end and allowed to smoulder for the purpose of inhalation of its smoke from the other (usually filtered) end, which is usually inserted in the mouth. They are sometimes smoked with a cigarette holder. The term cigarette, as commonly used, refers to a tobacco cigarette but can apply to similar devices containing other herbs, such as cannabis. They are colloquially known as 'cigs', 'smokes', 'ciggies', 'cancer sticks', 'death sticks', 'coffin nails' and 'fags'.

Cigarettes are proven to be highly addictive, as well as a cause of multiple types of cancer, heart disease, respiratory disease, circulatory disease and birth defects.

A cigarette is distinguished from a cigar by its smaller size, use of processed leaf, and white paper wrapping. Cigars are typically composed entirely of whole leaf tobacco.

Please note the time you finished your translation completely and were ready to hand it in: _____

Appendix IV
Questions for Students in Translation Skills Course 2007-8

Dear Students,

The following information will be used for a thesis in Translation Studies. Your careful answers will be very helpful in attaining insights into the process of teaching and learning translation skills in high school. Please answer the questions honestly, and fully. This will absolutely not affect your grade in any way. Your translation, as well as this questionnaire will remain anonymous. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Personal information:

1. Age _____
2. Grade: _____
3. Gender: Male _____ Female _____
4. English proficiency (circle): native born native born level excellent
very good
5. Hebrew proficiency (circle): native born native born level excellent
very good
6. I read in English for pleasure: yes _____ no _____
7. I have had some training in translation skills. yes _____ no _____
8. I have translated:
 - ☐ articles
 - ☐ movies
 - ☐ video clips
 - ☐ letters
 - ☐ e-mails
 - ☐ none of the above

Text

1. Please describe the process you went through while translating the text.
Record a detailed account of what you did throughout the time used in translating the article. (thinking, writing, looking words up, eating, drinking, staring, etc.)

2. Write down the term(s) that posed difficulty for you. ("Difficult" means that you were stuck, confused or that you deliberated for more than a few minutes, excluding help from the dictionary).
3. Explain the difficulties that each of the above terms posed for you.
4. What sentences did you revise? Please write the original sentence, and the revision. What was your rationale?
5. How many times did you use the dictionary?
6. What dictionary did you use?
 - ☐ English – Hebrew
 - ☐ English – English
 - ☐ Hebrew – English
7. How many times did you use the thesaurus?
8. How long did it take you to translate this passage? ____ hour(s) ____ minutes

Appendix V

Progress Log

Mistakes	Possible Correction	Source of Mistake	Type of Mistake	Binary, non-binary

Appendices VI and VII
Reading Comprehension Texts

PART I: ACCESS TO INFORMATION FROM WRITTEN TEXTS (60 points)

Read the article below and then answer questions 1-6.

THE COLOR OF MUSIC

As a child, Julian Asher had a theory about the concerts he attended with his parents. "I thought they turned down the lights so you could see the colors better," he says, "the deep red of violins, the purple of piano music, and the golden honey color when the cellos play." Asher wasn't hallucinating. He is a synesthete — a person for whom one
 5 type of sensory input (such as hearing music) evokes another (such as seeing colors). Almost any two kinds of input can be combined: sights can have sounds, sounds can have tastes, and, more commonly, black-and-white numbers and letters can appear colored.

Synesthesia (from the Greek words for "together" and "perception") has been known for
 10 at least 300 years, but was generally dismissed as mere fantasy. It is only recently that scientists have started to rethink past attitudes. Using modern technology and ingenious testing procedures, they are seeking evidence that synesthesia is not simply the product of overactive imaginations. In one study, for instance, volunteers were shown a page of black-and-white 5s with a few 2s interspersed among them. Most people took several
 15 seconds to find all the 2s, but for the synesthetes they stood out immediately in a different color. Brain scans are providing further evidence of the phenomenon. Scans performed on people who claim that certain words appear to them in colors have shown that the area of the brain which processes color is indeed activated when they hear those words.

20 No one knows for sure why people develop synesthesia. Scientists are looking into various possibilities, from genetics to brain structure. One thing is clear, however: the condition seems especially prevalent among highly talented and creative people. Painter Carol Sheen, for example, paints the music she sees, and for author Patricia Duffy, five plus two equal green — her color for seven. In fact, in a recent survey of 84 synesthetes,
 25 26 were found to be professional writers, artists or musicians, and another 44 were seriously devoted to creative hobbies.

המשך בעמוד 3 /

- Estimates of the number of people with synesthesia range from one person in 300 to one in a few thousand, but precise numbers are hard to come by. One reason is that many synesthetes learn early in life not to mention their condition in public for fear of being regarded as peculiar. In addition, most of them feel no need to seek out professional help.
- 30 On the contrary, they appreciate having a unique gift which they believe stimulates creative instincts and improves memory. Medical student Walter Owen is one synesthete who wouldn't have it any other way. "Anatomy classes are a piece of cake thanks to my synesthesia," he says. "It's easy for me to memorize all those long words in biology and
- 35 anatomy. If I forget the letters, at least I remember the colors."

(Adapted from "Real Rhapsody in Blue," *Newsweek* (n.d.) and from "Why Some People See Numbers, Letters in Color", *abcnews.com*, March 28, 2002)

QUESTIONS (60 points)

- Answer questions 1-6 in English as instructed, according to the article.
In question 6, circle the number of the correct answer.

1. What information is presented in lines 1-8?

PUT AN X BY THE TWO CORRECT ANSWERS.

- i) A possible cause of synesthesia.
- ii) The personal experience of a synesthete.
- iii) The childhood problems of synesthetes.
- iv) The author's attitude towards synesthesia.
- v) Different forms of synesthesia.
- vi) A short history of synesthesia.

(2×6=12 points)

2. What was the purpose of all the research described in lines 9-19?

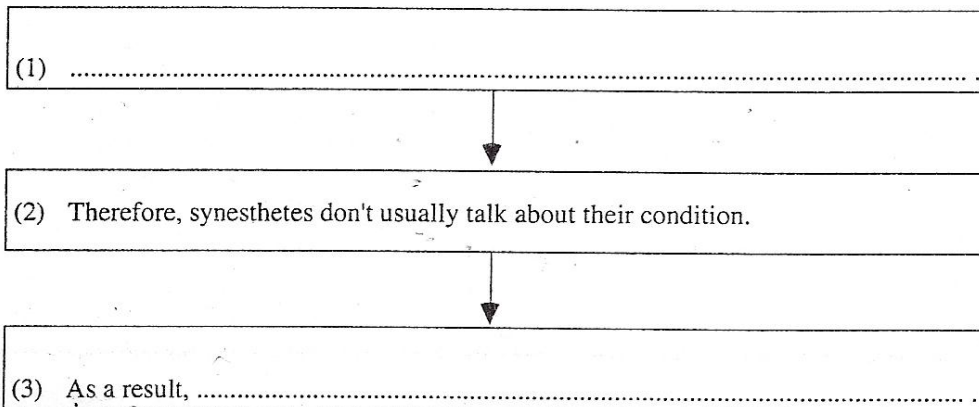
ANSWER:

(10 points)

3. According to lines 20-26, what do Carol Sheen and Patricia Duffy have in common with many other synesthetes?

ANSWER:
(5 points)

4. Complete the following sequence of cause and effect according to lines 27-30.



(2×8=16 points)

5. Why does the writer give the example of Walter Owen?

COMPLETE THE ANSWER.

To show that
(9 points)

6. Which of the following is mentioned both in lines 20-26 and in lines 27-35?

- i) An example of famous synesthetes.
- ii) The author's professional experience with synesthesia.
- iii) A disadvantage of synesthesia.
- iv) Something that is not known about synesthesia.

(8 points)

/המשך בעמוד 5/

B

PART 1: ACCESS TO INFORMATION FROM WRITTEN TEXTS (60 points)

Read the article below and then answer questions 1-7.

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

The name Cambridge brings to mind the famous British university with its brilliant teachers and academic excellence. This may be why another institution decided to use the name Cambridge as well -- the Cambridge School of English in New Delhi, India, a crumbling building consisting of only six tiny rooms. Despite its rickety chairs and
5 old second-hand books, this school and others like it are at the forefront of a global revolution in which hundreds of millions of people are learning English.

And no wonder. In the last few decades, English has become the universal language of science, commerce, and technology. Whether you are a Korean executive on business in China or a Brazilian psychologist at a conference in Sweden, you are probably
10 communicating in English. "Speaking English used to be just one of the important skills you needed to land a lucrative job," says Raghu Prakash, who runs the Cambridge School in New Delhi. "Today it is *the* skill, and our graduates' salaries attest to that."

For native speakers of English, this situation means huge economic opportunities, which they have been quick to exploit. More than 400 American language schools
15 are trying to break into the Chinese market, while Australia and Britain are promoting themselves as major destinations for learning English. And they are already reaping the rewards: Britain now boasts a £1.3 billion English-teaching industry. "Owning English is very big business today," says linguist Jennifer Jenkins.

To see that business in action, one need only walk down London's busy streets, where
20 above restaurants and clothing stores, dozens of English-language schools are packed with eager foreign students. Ben Beaumont, a 28-year-old Londoner, presides over a class that includes a Russian business manager, a nurse from rural Japan, and an Italian law student. "How much homework should I give you?" he asks. The response is unequivocal: "A lot!"

/המשך בעמוד 3/

25 Competition is fueling creativity. Last August, for example, the first "Immerse Yourself in English" camp was set up in South Korea. Built on a small island, it even has a fake bank and airport where the students practice conducting transactions in English. "We want to train capable global citizens," explains Sohn Kyu, the program's founder. With the same goal in mind, governments worldwide are promoting fluency at an increasingly early age. Schools in major Chinese cities have begun offering English in the third grade instead of the eighth, and Malaysia has recently decided to start teaching high-school math and science in English.

Some view the trend as potentially harmful. "Paris is already drowning in English-language signs," protests one French website. "What's next? Will we be hearing only English on our streets?" But others say such fears are unwarranted. "This is not about English eroding local identities," says David Gradol of the British Council in Paris. "It's about making everyone bilingual." Judging by the figures — non-native speakers of English now outnumber native speakers 3 to 1 — about half the world's population already is bilingual.

(Adapted from "Not the Queen's English," *Newsweek*, March 7, 2005)

QUESTIONS (60 points)

Answer questions 1-7 in English according to the article. In questions 1, 5 and 7, circle the number of the correct answer. In the other questions, follow the instructions.

1. We can understand that the Cambridge School of English in New Delhi chose its name in order to (—).

- (i) prove that it is part of the British university
- (ii) emphasize that it is well equipped
- (iii) attract only the best students
- (iv) stress the high quality of the school

(6 points)

2. What change is described in lines 7-12?

COMPLETE THE ANSWER.

The change in

(9 points)

/המשך בעמוד 4/

3. How do both the language schools and their graduates benefit from the revolution described in the article? Base your answer on lines 7-18.

COMPLETE THE ANSWER.

They all
(9 points)

4. What do we learn about students of English from the example of Ben Beaumont's class? Give TWO answers based on lines 19-24.

(1)

(2)

(2×7=14 points)

5. Which of the following is a suitable title for lines 25-32?

(i) Different places, different goals

(ii) The key to creativity

(iii) One aim, different methods

(iv) You're never too old to learn

(7 points)

6. COMPLETE THE SENTENCE.

We can understand that the French website mentioned in line 34 wants to

discourage

(7 points)

7. Which of the following claims would David Gradol probably support? (lines 33-39)

(i) Speaking English helps strengthen local identities.

(ii) People should speak English as well as their own language.

(iii) Speaking more than one language can be confusing.

(iv) Global English is a threat to local identities.

(8 points)

/המשך בעמוד 5/

Appendix VIII

Post-Study Questionnaire

HEBREW

	Not at all			Very much	
1. My proficiency has increased.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am more aware of grammatical structures.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have increased my vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I read faster.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have fewer spelling errors.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I speak more correctly.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I make more use of reference materials.	1	2	3	4	5

ENGLISH

1. My proficiency has increased.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am more aware of grammatical structures.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have increased my vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I read faster.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have fewer spelling errors.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I speak more correctly .	1	2	3	4	5
7. I can understand spoken English better.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can speak English with more ease.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I make more use of reference materials.	1	2	3	4	5

Translations Skills

1. I am more aware of the types of errors I am likely to make.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I make fewer errors when translating.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I know where to find vocabulary I need when translating.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am more aware of the differences between Hebrew and English.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I understand why there are errors in translation in the media.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I would like to pursue a career in translating.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I make more use of reference materials.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I will use my translation skills in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I learned more than I thought I would in the Translation Skills course.	1	2	3	4	5

For example: _____

Appendix IX

**Example of matriculation exam administered to the students
by the Ministry of Education in Israel at the end of the
Translation Skills Course**

הפקה מיוחדת באחריות הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית

מיומנויות התרגום

2 יחידות לימוד

הוראות לנבחן

- א. משך הבחינה: שעהיים.
- ב. מבנה השאלון ומפתח ההערכה:
- | | | |
|----------------------|---|------------|
| תרגום מאנגלית לעברית | — | 70 נקודות |
| דיון בבעיות | — | 30 נקודות |
| סה"כ | — | 100 נקודות |
- ג. חומר עזר מותר בשימוש: מילונים, תזאורוס.
- ד. הוראות מיוחדות:
- (1) כתוב את כל תשובותיך במחברת הבחינה.
 - (2) בתום הבחינה החזר למשגיח את מחברת הבחינה ואת השאלון.

ההנחיות בשאלון זה מנוסחות בלשון זכר ומכוונות לנבחנות ולנבחנים כאחד.

בהצלחה!

/המשך מעבר לדף/

(1) DINING IN THE DARK

There's a new restaurant in New York where you dine in darkness. The lighting there is not just dim or romantic – it's non-existent. After entering through a lighted bar, patrons descend to the basement, where waiters in night-vision goggles lead them through a heavy curtain into a (2) **pitch-black** dining area.

Once they (3) **have shepherded** the diners to their seats, the specially trained staff offer tips on how best to tackle the food and drink. "The small glass is for wine, the tall one is for water," they may whisper, or "Let your fingers wander over the plate. When you hit something soft, eat it."

Since dining in the dark is not without its pitfalls – knives and forks might find an (4) **unintended** target – certain things are absolutely taboo. There is no sharp cutlery, for instance, and (5) **nothing terribly hot or solid is served**.

"(6) **It's all about experiencing** the meal through all your senses – except sight, of course," explains the owner, Jerry Chase. "Your sense of smell is heightened and your tongue works overtime, discovering fresh nuances even in simple, everyday foods."

And what do the customers think? Most seem to enjoy the adventure, although one was heard to remark: "It was okay, but (7) **normally** I like to know what I'm eating."

(מעובד על פי כתבה מ־ Jerusalem Post)

בהצלחה!

זכות היוצרים שמורה למדינת ישראל
אין להעתיק או לפרסם אלא ברשות משרד החינוך

תקציר

עבודה זו מתארת מחקר אורך שנערך בשנת הלימודים תשס"ח (2007-2008), במטרה לבחון את השפעת הוראת מיומנויות התרגום על המודעות המטה-לשונית, כמו גם על הבנת הנקרא בשפה שנייה של תלמידי תיכון בכיתה י"ב. העבודה מציגה הערכה-עצמית איכותנית וכמותית של ארבעה-עשר תלמידים (נשואי מחקר זה) וכן הערכה כמותית של אותם תלמידים על ידי ארבע מורות, וביניהן המורה למיומנויות התרגום, שהיא גם כותבת עבודה זו. מטרת העבודה הנה לקבוע את מידת תרומתה של הוראת מיומנויות התרגום למודעות המטה-לשונית של תלמידים ולהבנת הנקרא שלהם בשפה שנייה. עוד עוסקת העבודה בהשפעה החיובית האפשרית של לימודי תרגום על לימוד אנגלית כשפה זרה. בתחילת שנת הלימודים, טרם שקיבלו הכשרה כלשהי בתרגום, נתבקשו התלמידים לתרגם טקסט (מבחן 1); את אותו הטקסט התבקשו התלמידים לשוב ולתרגם גם בסוף השנה (מבחן 2). הטקסטים המתורגמים נבדקו על ידי שתי מעריכות בנפרד, על בסיס עמודת ניתוח שגיאות. תוצאות שני המבחנים הושוו זו לזו. מורה שלישית התבקשה להשוות בין שני התרגומים ולבחור באופן אינטואיטיבי את הטקסט המועדף עליה.

בנוסף, בתום כל מבחן, התבקשו המשתתפים לענות על שאלון המתייחס לבקיאותם הלשונית על פי הערכתם האישית ומתאר את תהליך התרגום שעברו; כלומר משך זמן התרגום, כיצד נהגו במונחים שלא היו בטוחים לגביהם ובאלו מקורות נעזרו. לאותם תלמידים נערכו גם שני מבחנים בהבנת הנקרא, אחד בתחילת השנה ואחד בסופה. מבחנים אלו אף הם נבדקו על ידי המורה למיומנויות התרגום. בתום השנה מילאו המשתתפים שאלון נוסף, אשר נועד לשקף את הערכתם האישית לגבי תרומת הוראת מיומנויות התרגום לבקיאותם באנגלית בכלל ולהבנת הנקרא ומודעות מטה-לשונית בפרט. לאחר מכן, רואיינו התלמידים באופן פרטני על ידי המורה למיומנויות התרגום. לבד מן הריאיון, בוצע המחקר בעילום שם. להלן אחדות מן המגבלות המתודיות של המחקר:

- כותבת העבודה היא גם המורה למיומנויות התרגום, ומכירה את התלמידים היטב.
- הערכת שני המבחנים בוצעה על סמך ניתוח טעויות בלבד.
- המחקר לא כלל קבוצת ביקורת.

התוצאות הכמותיות והאיכותניות של מחקר מצומצם זה מצביעות על כך שהוראת מיומנויות התרגום המוצעת לתלמידי תיכון בישראל תורמת למיומנויות הבנת הנקרא וכן למודעות המטה-לשונית של מרבית התלמידים. מחקרים מלמדים גם על קיום מתאם בין הנתונים האמפיריים של מחקר זה לבין ציוניהם של התלמידים בבחינות הבגרות בתרגום בשנת 2008.

הצעות למחקרים נוספים:

- מחקר דומה אך רחב יותר, שיכלול מספר רב יותר של תלמידים ויערך במספר תיכונים בישראל.

- השוואה בין כיתות שההוראה בהן בוצעה בעברית – ולא באנגלית.

תוצאות העבודה מהוות בסיס לקידום הוראת מיומנויות התרגום בבתי ספר אחרים במדינות אחרות.

**עבודה זו נעשתה בהדרכתה של פרופ' מרים שלזינגר מן המחלקה לתרגום וחקר
התרגום של אוניברסיטת בר-אילן**

אוניברסיטת בר-אילן

**הוראת מיומנויות התרגום בבית הספר התיכון והשפעותיה על מיומנות הקריאה
בשפה השנייה ועל המודעות המטה-לשונית**

רותי אלמוג

עבודה זו מוגשת כחלק מהדרישות לשם קבלת תואר מוסמך במחלקה לתרגום וחקר התרגום של
אוניברסיטת בר-אילן