

INGLÉS/ ENGLISH

Leyre VÁZQUEZ UNANUA

**LA TRADUCCIÓN COMO
RECURSO PARA LA ENSEÑANZA
DEL INGLÉS**

***TRANSLATION AS AN ENGLISH
TEACHING RESOURCE***

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Facultad de Ciencias Humanas y Sociales
Giza eta Gizarte Zientzien Fakultatea

Grado en Maestro de Educación Primaria
Lehen Hezkuntzako Irakasleen Gradua

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Trabajo Fin de Grado
Gradu Bukaerako Lana

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UNIVERSIDAD PÚBLICA DE NAVARRA
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Preámbulo

El Real Decreto 1393/2007, de 29 de octubre, modificado por el Real Decreto 861/2010, establece en el Capítulo III, dedicado a las enseñanzas oficiales de Grado, que “estas enseñanzas concluirán con la elaboración y defensa de un Trabajo Fin de Grado [...] El Trabajo Fin de Grado tendrá entre 6 y 30 créditos, deberá realizarse en la fase final del plan de estudios y estar orientado a la evaluación de competencias asociadas al título”.

El Grado en Maestro en Educación Primaria por la Universidad Pública de Navarra tiene una extensión de 12 ECTS, según la memoria del título verificada por la ANECA. El título está regido por la *Orden ECI/3857/2007, de 27 de diciembre, por la que se establecen los requisitos para la verificación de los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de la profesión de Maestro en Educación Primaria*; con la aplicación, con carácter subsidiario, del reglamento de Trabajos Fin de Grado, aprobado por el Consejo de Gobierno de la Universidad el 12 de marzo de 2013.

Todos los planes de estudios de Maestro en Educación Primaria se estructuran, según la Orden ECI/3857/2007, en tres grandes módulos: uno, *de formación básica*, donde se desarrollan los contenidos socio-psico-pedagógicos; otro, *didáctico y disciplinar*, que recoge los contenidos de las disciplinas y su didáctica; y, por último, *Practicum*, donde se describen las competencias que tendrán que adquirir los estudiantes del Grado en las prácticas escolares. En este último módulo, se enmarca el Trabajo Fin de Grado, que debe reflejar la formación adquirida a lo largo de todas las enseñanzas. Finalmente, dado que la Orden ECI/3857/2007 no concreta la distribución de los 240 ECTS necesarios para la obtención del Grado, las universidades tienen la facultad de determinar un número de créditos, estableciendo, en general, asignaturas de carácter optativo.

Así, en cumplimiento de la Orden ECI/3857/2007, es requisito necesario que en el Trabajo Fin de Grado el estudiante demuestre competencias relativas a los módulos de formación básica, didáctico-disciplinar y practicum, exigidas para todos los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de la profesión de Maestro en Educación Primaria.

En este trabajo, el módulo *de formación básica* nos ha permitido enmarcar a los autores relacionados con las teorías de aprendizaje vistas a lo largo de los cuatro años de carrera universitaria.

El módulo *didáctico y disciplinar* se concreta en las metodologías, relacionadas con las teorías de aprendizaje, así como en las puestas en práctica de unidades didácticas.

Asimismo, el módulo *practicum* se desarrolla en las numerosas observaciones realizadas, las cuales permiten realizar unidades didácticas más enriquecedoras y realistas al estar en contacto directo con la realidad docente.

Por último, el módulo *optativo* se desarrolla también en las unidades didácticas. Éste ha permitido mejorarlas y llevarlas a cabo en una asignatura en concreto: La de Lengua Inglesa.

Por otro lado, la Orden ECI/3857/2007 establece que al finalizar el Grado, los estudiantes deben haber adquirido el nivel C1 en lengua castellana. Por ello, para demostrar esta competencia lingüística, se redactan también en esta lengua los apartados “ANTECEDENTES, OBJETIVOS Y CUESTIONES” y “CONCLUSIONES”, así como el preceptivo resumen que aparece en el siguiente apartado.

Resumen

El propósito de este trabajo es el análisis del uso de la traducción en los procesos de enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera, con especial referencia a su utilización como recurso en la Educación Primaria. Se intenta demostrar que la traducción puede ser un instrumento didáctico útil en la enseñanza de una lengua extranjera, siempre que se la considere como complementaria de otros ejercicios y actividades. En consecuencia, se ofrece un pequeño experimento para probar su efectividad en la ayuda a la adquisición de nuevo léxico.

Palabras clave: traducción; recurso educativo; Método Gramática-Traducción

Abstract

The purpose of this work is the analysis of the use of translation in the processes of English language teaching and learning, and especially, in relation to its use as a Primary Education teaching resource. The aim is to show that translation can be a useful instrument in the teaching of a foreign language, provided that it is regarded only as an adjunct to other tasks and activities. Consequently, it is offered a small experiment to test its effectiveness to help in the acquisition of new vocabulary.

Key words: translation; teaching resource; Grammar-Translation Method

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1. ANTECEDENTES, OBJETIVOS Y CUESTIONES

1.1 Antecedentes

El estudio de un idioma como segunda lengua ha sido una constante inquietud a lo largo de la historia de la humanidad, ya que desde siempre ha existido la necesidad de comunicarse en otras lenguas diferentes de la materna. De esa búsqueda constante por encontrar la metodología o enfoque más adecuado para la enseñanza de lenguas, surgen los diferentes métodos con los que nos podemos encontrar (sobre todo a partir de la segunda mitad del siglo XIX).

Cuando en el siglo XVIII comenzó el interés por el estudio de lenguas extranjeras en Europa, se tomó como patrón para su enseñanza la técnica empleada tradicionalmente para el estudio de las lenguas clásicas, fundamentalmente latín y griego.

Como es sabido, el latín era la lengua de prestigio para la educación, la cultura, los negocios, el comercio, etc. A partir del siglo XVI las lenguas vulgares fueron adquiriendo mayor categoría y relegaron gradualmente al latín tanto en el uso oral como en el escrito, aunque esta lengua seguía teniendo la categoría de una asignatura imprescindible como base para cualquier conocimiento. Por ello cobró una nueva dimensión: el análisis de la gramática y la retórica latina se convirtieron en el modelo de estudio para las lenguas extranjeras durante los siglos XVI, XVII y XVIII.

De este modo, cuando las lenguas modernas comenzaron a incluirse en el currículo de las escuelas europeas a lo largo del siglo XVIII, la metodología adoptada fue la misma que se usaba para el latín: los manuales (*colloquia*) estaban compuestos por listas de vocabulario, reglas gramaticales abstractas y oraciones o pequeños textos para traducir (diálogos, cartas, textos religiosos, comerciales y principalmente textos literarios). Como se puede observar, el objetivo de este sistema no era el de conseguir hablar la lengua meta, sino el de conocer sus reglas gramaticales con todo detalle y ser capaz de traducir oraciones y textos.

Este modelo de enfoque de la enseñanza de segundas lenguas se plasmó y se conoció con el nombre de método gramática-traducción. Aunque surge en Prusia en el siglo

XVIII, es heredero desde el siglo XIX de la práctica académica alemana y tiene como principales representantes a Johann Seidenstücker, H. S. Ollendorf, Karl Plötz y Johann Meidinger. Para sus teóricos, la lengua es concebida como un sistema de reglas que tiene que ser aprendido con relación a la lengua materna. A pesar de que no exista una teoría científica concreta sobre este método, existen una serie de características o rasgos que lo definen y que son las siguientes:

- El estudio de la lengua consiste básicamente en la memorización de reglas y vocabulario con el fin de entender y manipular su morfología y su sintaxis.
- Las principales destrezas con las que se trabaja son la comprensión y la producción escritas; apenas se incide en la comprensión y producción orales.
- El léxico se enseña a través de la memorización de listas de vocabulario bilingües.
- La oración es la unidad básica que se utiliza para traducir textos a y desde la lengua objeto (la práctica central de este método).
- El alto grado de corrección es el elemento más importante en la enseñanza.
- Se enseña la gramática de manera deductiva, esto es, a través del estudio directo de las reglas gramaticales.
- Se utiliza la lengua materna durante la clase para las explicaciones gramaticales y para las comparaciones entre los dos idiomas.

Esta metodología de la gramática-traducción alcanzó su máximo desenvolvimiento en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras desde 1840 a 1940 aproximadamente.

Desde 1950 a la actualidad, la época más activa en la que se dan los grandes cambios de enfoques, este método tradicional cae en desuso y surgen muchas voces críticas que lo desprestigian; no obstante, es un modelo que aún se continúa usando en algunas partes del mundo. En este sentido, si se hace una reflexión sobre la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en el Estado Español, podemos ver cómo algunas de las características de este método todavía se siguen aplicando en muchas escuelas, institutos y universidades: muchos de nosotros hemos tenido que memorizar en más de una ocasión listas de vocabulario y de verbos, reglas gramaticales abstractas, etc., en detrimento de la práctica oral... Entre las diversas razones para explicar que todavía, hoy en día, existan muchas reminiscencias del método gramática-traducción se

encuentra la obsesión por valorar más la enseñanza centrada en aspectos teóricos que en los prácticos, la resistencia o la tendencia continuista del profesorado frente a nuevos enfoques y, evidentemente, el propio peso que el modelo de enseñanza del latín y otras lenguas clásicas ha tenido hasta hace muy poco tiempo.

Por todo ello, el profesorado de lenguas extranjeras no sólo debe formarse en las nuevas corrientes didácticas (enfoques de tipo comunicativo), sino también llevarlas a la práctica en el día a día del aula para poder conseguir en el alumnado un aprendizaje significativo y motivador.

Ideas tomadas en LOIS, S. *“El método gramática-traducción en la enseñanza de lenguas”*.

1.2 Objetivos y cuestiones

Como acabamos de mencionar en el apartado anterior, durante los años 60 del siglo pasado, comenzaron a desarrollarse diferentes métodos de enseñanza de lenguas. Entre ellos, el más novedoso que es el Enfoque Comunicativo. En realidad, este no es un método sino un enfoque que entiende el aprendizaje de lenguas como un proceso donde lo más sustancial no son las formas lingüísticas, sino las intenciones comunicativas (el aspecto funcional). En definitiva, esta metodología se orienta al logro de la competencia comunicativa.

El problema, o la cuestión principal en la que se centra este trabajo es el cuestionar si el rechazo provocado hacia la traducción, debido al surgimiento de este nuevo enfoque, está justificado o no.

Es decir, ¿puede la traducción ser una opción metodológica efectiva, con sentido y justificación, para la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras?

Como bien explica M. Rosario Hernández en *“La traducción pedagógica en la clase de E/LE”*, University College Dublín, *“El mero hecho de mencionar la palabra traducción entre los profesores de lenguas provoca, generalmente, una reacción negativa. Una mirada al pasado, concretamente a los métodos de enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras, nos proporciona la evidencia necesaria para mantener ese rechazo hacia la traducción. Además, muchos estudios sobre adquisición de segundas lenguas se han centrado en*

los efectos negativos o interferencia entre la L1 y la L2, lo que ha contribuido a reforzar dicha creencia. Sin embargo, hay investigadores (Ellis, 1985 o Brey-Vroman, 1989) que ven la lengua materna como un filtro de la L2 y afirman que no hay ruptura total entre la L1 y la L2. El aprendiente de lenguas extranjeras no es una tabula rasa donde entra el conocimiento. Dicho aprendiente viene con una experiencia previa de otros aprendizajes y, lo que es más importante, posee una lengua materna L1 independientemente de la edad a la que comience el aprendizaje de la L2 (...)

Si hacemos un repaso histórico de la enseñanza de las lenguas vemos que la traducción ha sido el método por excelencia en el aprendizaje de lenguas clásicas y, en cierta medida, de lenguas modernas hasta los años sesenta e incluso setenta. La traducción como método de aprendizaje ha recibido duras críticas, pero como dice Peter Newmark el gran defecto no es que fuera un mal método sino que no dejaba espacio para nada más y en conjunto lo que se enseñaba era mala gramática y mala traducción (p. 183), con largas listas de memorización de palabras y uso de materiales didácticos que no guardaban ninguna relación con las necesidades del aprendiente”

En el presente trabajo se pretende analizar la faceta traductora, bien reivindicarla o bien desecharla, para su utilización como un recurso educativo para la enseñanza del inglés como L2 en la Educación Primaria.

El fin último es intentar catalogarla como otro instrumento didáctico más y valorar su efectividad. En este proyecto en concreto se evaluará su efectividad para la enseñanza de nuevo vocabulario.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, BASIS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

2.1 Theoretical Framework and Basis

In the following lines, the different methods and approaches used in language teaching (its characteristics and its pros and cons) will be explained.

2.1.1 *The Grammar Translation Method*

Howatt in his book, *“The Empirical Evidence for the influence of L1 in Interlanguage”* (1984:98) points out that the Classical Method (Grammar Translation Method) was originally associated with the teaching of Latin and –to a much lesser extent- ancient Greek.

The aim of teaching Latin and Greek hasn’t been that learners are able to speak them. Instead, the aims have always been to develop:

- Logical thinking.
- Intellectual capacities to attain a generally educational and civilizing effect.
- An ability to read original text in the languages concerned, at least in the best learners.

Interestingly, Howatt (1984: 131) also states: “Grammar and Translation are actually not the distinctive features of GT, since they were already well-accepted as basic principles of language teaching. What was new was the use of invented, graded sentences rather than authentic literary texts in order to make language learning easier”

1. Key features.

According to Patror and Celce-Murcia in *Teaching English as a Second Foreign Language* (1979:3), the key features of the Grammar Translation Method are as follows:

- a. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- b. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- c. Long elaborated explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- d. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- e. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
- f. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
- g. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.

2. Typical techniques

Diane Larsen-Freeman, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (1986:13) provides expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with the Grammar Translation Method.

- a. Translation of a literary passage: translating from the target language into the native language.
- b. Reading comprehension questions: finding information in a passage, making inferences and relating them to personal experience.
- c. Antonyms/Synonyms: finding antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of words.
- d. Cognates: learning spelling/sound patterns that correspond between L1 and the target language.
- e. Deductive application of rules: understanding grammar rules and their exceptions and then applying them to new examples.
- f. Fill-in-the-blanks: filling gaps in sentences with new words or items of a particular grammar type.

- g. Memorization: memorizing vocabulary lists and grammatical rules.
- h. Using words in sentences: students create sentences to illustrate that they know the meaning and use of new words.
- i. Composition: students write about a topic using the target language.

There are some disadvantages of this method that should be explained.

First of all, it is important to say that the Grammar Translation Method may make the language learning experience uninspiring and boring.

Furthermore, the Grammar Translation Method may also leave the students with a sense of frustration when they travel to countries where the studied language is spoken (they can't understand what people say and have to struggle to express themselves at the most basic level).

Finally, it is important to say that this method neither approaches nor encourages the students' communicative competence.

Why, then, is it still used?

The Grammar Translation Method is still common, even popular in many countries. Brown in his book *Incremental Speech Language* (1994) attempts to explain why the method is still employed by stating:

"This method requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers".

"Grammar rules and Translation Tests are easy to construct and can be objectively scored".

"Many standardized test of foreign languages still do not attempt to test communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations and other written exercises".

In conclusion, the Grammar Translation Method was developed for the study of “dead” languages and to facilitate access to those languages’ classical literature. That is the way it should stay, as English is not a dead language.

2.1.2 The Direct Method

(Also known as Reform Method or Natural Method -different from the Natural Approach- or Phonetical Method or Anti-grammatical Method).

All reformers were vehemently opposed to the teaching of formal grammar and aware that language learning was more than the learning of rules and the acquisition of imperfect translation skills.

Vietor, in his book *“Die Sprachunterricht muss umkehren”* (1882) says: *“This study of grammar is a useless torture. It is certainly not understood; therefore it can have no effect as far as the moulding of the intellect is concerned and no-one could seriously believe that children could learn their living German tongue from it”*.

Instead, grammar should be acquired inductively by inducting the rules of how the language behaves from the actual language itself.

The Direct Method is based on the belief that:

- Knowing a language is being able to speak it.
- Second language learning must be an imitation of first language learning, as this is the natural way humans learn any language, and so MT has no place in FL lesson, babies never rely on another language to learn their first language.
- Printed word must be kept away from second language learner for as long as possible (same as first language learners, who don’t use printed word until they have good grasp of speech).
- The written word/ writing should be delayed until after the printed word has been introduced.

-
- The learning of grammar and translating skills should be avoided because they involve the application of the MT.
 - All above items must be avoided because they hinder the acquisition of a good oral proficiency.

Some considerations about the Direct Method:

- The major fallacy of the Direct Method was the belief that a second language should be learned in the same way in which the first language was acquired -by total immersion technique-. Yet, there is far less time and opportunity in schools, compared with a small child learning his mother tongue.
- It is doubtful whether the first language learning process is really applicable to the second foreign language learning at a later stage. First, language learning is an essential part of the child's total growth of awareness of the world around him. He starts off with blank sheet, then starts collecting/selecting, organising the experiences of a totally new world, perceived through his senses, by formulating a variety of pre-verbal concepts. There are obvious differences between learning a mother language and a foreign/second language.
 - A first-language learner has no command of another language before learning the target language, whereas a foreign/second language learner has command of another language before learning the target language.
 - A first-language learner is neurologically immature thus, his mother tongue is not fixed. However a foreign-second language learner is neurologically mature and, thus, his mother tongue is fixed.
 - A first-language learner learns to recognize and cope with reality through the target language, but a foreign/second language learner learns to recognise and cope with reality through the mother tongue, not through the target language.
 - A first-language learner requires a high contact-frequency with the target language to learn that all things have names, while a

foreign/second language learner already knows that all things have names.

- He requires a high contact-frequency with the target language to recognise the meaning of sounds representing the names of things, because he is neurologically immature as his range of experiences with the outside world is limited and he has no knowledge of the equivalent meaning of sounds from another language for the same things.

- The Direct Method rejects the use of the printed word –but this objection is illogical since the second language learner has already mastered his reading skills. However, does printed word interfere with FL pronunciation? In fact, experiments show that the printed word is of real help to consolidate the FL and, actually, reinforces retention.
- Later disciples of the Direct Method took it to extremes and refused to speak a single word of English in lessons. To avoid translating new words, they searched for an association between new words and the idea they stood for: “here is a book”. Extreme Direct Methodists had cupboards full of realia.
- A successful teacher of the Direct Method needed competence in his language, stamina, energy, imagination, ability and time to create his own materials.
- Also direct Methodists failed to grade and structure their materials adequately; no selection, grading or controlled presentation of vocabulary and structures. They plunged pupils into flood of living language (quite bewildering for them).

However, many teachers did modify the Direct Method to meet practical requirements of their own schools, implemented main principles, i.e., teaching through oral practice and banning all translation into target language. Obviously, compromise of the teachers was needed.

Direct Method did pave the way for more communicative, oral based approach, and, as such, represented an important step forward in the history of language teaching.

2.1.3 The Audio-Lingual Audio-Visual Method

In the mid 1960's, two new technological aids came into general use in the classroom or language laboratory: the portable tape-recorder and the film-strip projector. Both of them were greeted with euphoria in all modern language departments.

The extensive use of tapes and equipment was revolutionary for language teachers. Instead of buying sets of books to equip a class, teachers demanded more expensive boxes of film-strips and sets of tapes. Blackout facilities and electric points had to be installed.

The potential offered to language teaching by tape-recorders was enormous as it was possible to bring native speaking voices into classroom. Editing and self-recording facilities were, then, available too. Tapes could be used with tape recorders or in the language laboratory. The early audio-visual courses consisted of taped dialogues, accompanied by film (strips which were designed to act as visual cues to elicit responses in the foreign language).

It is true that technological changes pushed the audio lingual method, but it was based on behaviourism. From a behaviourist perspective, language is a type of behaviour and it should be learnt as such, following a stimulus-response pattern. Behaviourists assumed the following principles about language learning:

- Language is learnt only through use or practice. The more the learner is exposed to the use, the better the chances of learning it.
- The production of language depends on the situation, which makes its use necessary. Language cannot be taught in divorce from the situation; the teacher has to introduce each new pattern of language in a meaningful situation.
- Producing the correct linguistic response also requires effort. If the teacher is not called upon to make this effort, there is no learning.

- Producing the correct response also requires attention. Attention is bound to slacken after a time to prolong. Consequently, prolonged practice is less useful than spaced practice.
- The spoken language comes earlier than the written, and the receptive (passive) experience of language is necessary before any productive (active) use can begin.
- Learning takes place faster if the correct response towards stimulus is confirmed. The learner must know at once if his effort is right or wrong (rewarded).
- Learning is still faster if the learner is placed to the situation where they can produce only the correct response. Each incorrect response builds up a faculty behaviour pattern, which interfere with the process of conditioning.
- Every new item learnt must be reinforced by further practice before further learning begins.

Most audio-lingual courses consisted of short dialogues and sets of recorded drills. This method was based on a behaviourist approach, which held that language is acquired by habit formation. It is based on the assumption that a foreign language is basically a mechanical process and it is more effective if the spoken form precedes the written form. The stress was on oral proficiency and carefully-structured drill sequences and on the idea that quality and permanence of learning are both in direct proportion to the amount of practice carried out.

But early enthusiasm for audio-visual materials and language laboratory soon cooled as teachers gradually recognised limitations of this approach.

Disadvantages of Audio-Visual/Audio-Lingual Method:

- The basic method of teaching is repetition, speech is standardised and pupils turn into “parrots” who can reproduce many things but never create anything new or spontaneous.

- Pupils became better and better at pattern practice, but were unable to use the patterns fluently in natural speech situations.
- The mechanical drills of the early Audio-visual approach were criticised as being not only boring and mindless, but also counter-productive, if used beyond the initial introduction to new structures.
- Audio-Visual materials were open to the same sort of misuse. There was a tendency to regard audiovisual materials as a teaching method in themselves, not as a teaching aid.
- Soon became clear to teachers that the audio-visual approach could only assist in the presentation of new materials. More subtle classroom skills were needed for pupils to assimilate materials and use them creatively. This final vital phase was often omitted by teachers.
- The new materials needed extensive use of equipment with all associated problems of black-out, extension leads, or carrying tape-recorders from classroom to classroom. Some schools set up specialist language rooms, but teachers still had to set up projectors and find places on tape. Equipment could break down, projector lamps exploded and tapes tangled. Besides, hardware involved extra time, worries and problems and, for this, its use gradually faded away.
- Series of classroom studies threw doubt on the claims made for language laboratories. Those things showed that this expensive equipment did not improve performance of 11+beginners, when compared with the same materials used on single tape-recorders in classroom.

But the Audio-Lingual/ Visual approach did mark a start of the technological age in language teaching and it did introduce important new elements. It emphasised the need for visual presentation and the possibility of eliciting language from visual cues. It placed far more weight on the use of foreign languages in the classroom by both teachers and pupils, and the language used was of far greater practicality.

More gifted and energetic teachers used new courses with great success, as they moved forward to open-ended question, answer work and extended dialogue and designed their own supplementary materials, exercises and worksheets.

However, teachers were generally disillusioned and dissatisfied with the new methods, at a time when the whole secondary education was being reorganised with the advent of comprehensive schools.

2.1.4 Designer Methods and Humanist Methods

The designer methods emerged in the 1970's, a period of great enlightenment as many would describe. People felt more liberated and ESL teaching methods followed the movement. The designer method brought the issue of teaching further by looking at some variables that might have an influence on the learning process, apart from the contribution of the teacher and the students. Each of these methods captured the attention of teachers and experts in the domain. However, they mostly remained confined to isolated regions of the world, and none of them has ever been recognized as being the current state of the art, even during its most popular time. Nonetheless, the originality of some of these methods has brought new ideas that are currently used today in the Communicative Approach. Although we could include Suggestopedia or Community Language learning, we will just mention Total Physical Response and the Silent Method.

2.1.4.1 Total Physical Response (TPR)

The method was developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, in the 1960's. The Total Physical response method (TPR) incorporates theories of developmental psychology, humanistic pedagogy, as well as the dramatic or theatrical nature of language learning. The main idea behind TPR is based upon the principle of establishing psychomotor associations to facilitate language learning. The teacher presents the language in the form of commands which are demonstrated and modelled by the teacher and fulfilled by the students, individually and in groups. The meaning is made clear through demonstration. The

emphasis is on developing comprehension skills, before the learner is required to produce in the target language. Although the language is presented and taught in the form of imperatives, Asher claims that most of the grammatical structures of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skilful use of the imperative by the instructor.

The idea of employing the imperative drill in language teaching and developing comprehension skills before production is not new and can be traced back to 1925, to the teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in their textbook of English *“English Through action”*, a comprehensive collection of oral drills and exercises for the classroom. Palmer used the term *“incubation period”* which is a necessary prerequisite for the learner to absorb and cognize the language in all its aspects. Therefore, he suggested that language teaching should be based on the natural basis and active production (speaking and writing) should never be encouraged or expected until the pupil has had many opportunities of cognizing the language passively (through listening and reading).

TPR is most effective in the early stages of language learning and Asher himself has stressed that TPR should be used in association with other methods and techniques. And, indeed, TPR represents a useful set of techniques which are compatible with other approaches to teaching.

We can approach to it by two theories:

Theory of language: the approach is based upon structuralism or grammar-based views of language. The verb in the imperative is considered to be the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized. The commands employed in the classroom are used to teach anything beginning with focusing on prepositions, to the conditional and subjunctive moods (e.g., *“Henry, would you prefer to serve a cold drink to Molly, or would you rather have Eugene kick you in the leg?”*). Since second language learning is considered as a parallel process to child language acquisition, the language contents are based on real nouns and imperative verbs, i.e. nonabstractions,

the immediate surrounding in the classroom. Abstractions should be delayed until students have internalized the language code, as they can be introduced and explained in the target language. Although the syllabus of TPR is structure-based and grammar-focused, the emphasis is on meaning rather than on form. Language is presented in chunks so that it would be internalized as wholes rather than as single lexical items. In the early stages teachers, similarly to parents, should refrain from too much correction in order not to inhibit learners.

Theory of learning: TPR takes its grounding in behavioural psychology. Asher bases his language teaching pedagogy on the stimulus-response view. To reinforce memorization TPR combines motor activity (fulfilling the commands after the teacher) and verbal rehearsal (listening to the teacher's model and speaking out when one is ready to produce). Such combination can be labelled as an action-based drill in the imperative form. To justify the development of the listening comprehension before expecting any production from the student, Asher uses the facts from the process of first language acquisition, when children respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands. Only after a long silent period (from several months to two or three years) the child's speech-production mechanism begins to function. Asher also believes that second language teaching should be directed to the right brain hemisphere, which is responsible for motor activities, while the left hemisphere (responsible for verbal processing) watches and learns. To sum up this theory in one sentence, TPR is based on recreating the first language learning process in the second language classroom, because the human brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language in a particular mode. The sequence develops listening comprehension before production skills and the mode synchronizes language with body movements.

Goals:

The general objective of TPR is to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Another sub-goal of the method is to let students enjoy their experience in learning a foreign language, to reduce the stress that people feel when studying foreign languages and,

thereby, encourage them to persist in their study beyond a beginning level of proficiency.

Principles:

- Stimulating memory with psychomotor associations: language in the form of the teacher's commands is synchronized with body movements. According to Asher, this is the way to recreate the process by which children learn their first language. Beginning a foreign language instruction should address the right hemisphere of the brain, the part which controls nonverbal behaviour.
- Comprehension before production: students are not required to produce in the second language until they decide that they are ready. Therefore students are allowed a silent period and often a lengthy period during which learners do not try to speak, but they internalize the language by listening and comprehending it. Input (the new language material) is made comprehensible through listening and watching the teacher's modelling of commands and, later, fulfilling these commands.
- Lowering the students' anxiety and stress reduction: This is achieved through the following:
 - Students are not required to produce in the new language before they feel ready.
 - The teacher's commands are often funny and humorous in order to make language learning as enjoyable as possible.
 - Students first perform the commands together with the teacher and in groups.
 - Early error correction is very unobtrusive and mistakes are allowed in the classroom at the beginning period.
- Inductive teaching of grammar: the target language is presented in chunks and the focus is on meaning rather than on form.
- Unobtrusive error correction in the early stages: Asher believes that it is more important to let the students just talk in order to lower their anxiety about making mistakes. Once their confidence in speaking is high, they can be fine tuned to produce the subtleties of speech that approximate them to the native speaker. Moreover, Asher states that the emphasis on error-free production

and correct form is risky and if done so most children and adults will give up before reaching even the intermediate level.

- Selection of grammatical features and vocabulary items from the immediate classroom surroundings: these are the imperatives in the first place and specific nouns. With imagination, almost any aspect of the linguistic code of the target language can be communicated by using commands. e.g., the future and present sentences can be embedded into a command as “When Luke walks to the window, Marie will write Luke’s name on the blackboard!” Abstract nouns are presented at the later stages, once the students are ready to decode the grammatical structure of a language.

Syllabus:

The TPR syllabus is sentenced-based with grammatical and lexical criteria being principal in selecting teaching items. Grammar structures and vocabulary are selected according to their frequency of need or use in the classroom (not in target language situations) and the ease with which they can be learned. Advocating the use of the imperative, Asher states that it should be used in combination with many other techniques. A TPR course begins with about ten to twenty hours of training in listening comprehension. Only after it, the students are invited (but not pressured) to reverse roles with the teacher and speak out the commands in the target language.

TPR lessons are structured in the following way:

- Demonstration: the students sit in a semicircle around the teacher, they listen carefully to the commands and do exactly what he does.
- The routine is repeated for three or four times until individual students indicate that they are ready to try it alone without the instructor as a model. Each repetition of a routine is never an exact duplication of the previously done sequence.

- The instructor recombines the previously learned material to form commands. When some of the students are ready to produce in the target language, they give commands to the teacher and the other students.

Teacher and learner roles:

The teacher plays an active and direct role in TPR. He decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. The teacher usually initiates the interaction, even when learners interact with each other. According to Asher, the instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors.

At first, learners are listeners and performers of the teacher's commands. When they are ready to speak there is a role reversal and students themselves speak out commands. Yet, they have little influence over the learning process: the content is predetermined by the teacher.

Techniques:

1. Using commands in action sequences: *"The use of command is the major teaching technique of TPR"* (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The teacher models the commands and performs the corresponding actions to make the meaning clear. Students fulfil the commands (action-based drills) with the teacher, individually and in groups. When they begin to speak they direct commands to the teacher and to each other.

Commands are presented in a sequence but, as Asher suggests, there should be no exact repetition of the same sequence and the teacher should, each time, vary the routine to avoid memorization of a fixed sequence of behaviour. Commands should be funny and humorous to make the learning process enjoyable. E.g., "Rose dance with Samuel and stick his tongue out at Hilda. Hilda, run to Rose, hit her on the arm, pull her to her chair and you dance with Samuel!" The teacher should also plan sequences of commands in advance to keep the pace of the lesson lively.

Commands are used, as Asher claims, to communicate all grammar features and hundreds of vocabulary. Commands can be subdivided into the following groups:

- a. Moving whole body or parts of body: stand, walk, sit, jump, run, touch your feet, head, shoulders...
- b. Moving things (manipulative): put the book under the chair, point to the purple paper, pick up the eraser and put it on your feet...
- c. Moving abstractions or pictures: put the picture of the cookie on the table, put the picture of the principal in the picture of the office, give the card labelled "Sunday" to Juan, etc.
- d. Action sequences (series of commands or operations): action sequences are based on numerous everyday activities, like writing a letter, cleaning the house, eating breakfast, etc., that are broken down into separate commands, *e.g. eating grapes*:

- *Look at the grapes*
- *Turn on the water*
- *Put the grapes under the water*
- *Wash the grapes*
- *Don't use soap*
- *Shake the grapes dry*
- *Pick a grape*
- *Give it to a friend*
- *Pick another grape*
- *Chew it*
- *Chew it some more*
- *Swallow it*

2. Role reversal: when students are ready to speak, they command their teacher and classmates to perform some actions.

3. Conversational dialogues and role plays: these are delayed until after about 120 hours of instruction, when students achieve an advanced internalization of the target language. Role plays centre on everyday situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, etc.

4. Slide presentations: these are used to provide a visual centre for teacher narration, which is followed by commands and questions to students such as, “which person in the picture is the salesperson?”

5. Compiling language experience stories: a language experience story is a group-authored story written about a shared experience. Students participate in an experience such as a cooking activity and, then, retell or dictate the story to the teacher who writes it down on the blackboard. The students read the story and act out the written sentences.

2.1.4.2 The Silent Way

This method begins by using a set of coloured rods and verbal commands in order to achieve the following:

- To avoid the use of the vernacular.
- To create simple linguistic situations that remain under the complete control of the teacher to pass on to the learners the responsibility for the utterances of the descriptions of the objects shown, or the actions performed.
- To let the teacher concentrate on what the students say and how they are saying it, drawing their attention to the differences in pronunciation and the flow of words.
- To generate a serious game-like situation in which the rules are implicitly agreed upon by giving meaning to the gestures of the teacher and his mime.
- To permit, almost from the start, to switch from the voice of the teacher using the foreign language to a number of voices using it. This introduces components of pitch, timbre and intensity that will constantly reduce the impact of one voice and, hence, reduce imitation and encourage personal production of one's own brand of the sounds.

- To provide the support of perception and action to the intellectual guess of what the noises mean, thus bring in the arsenal of the usual criteria of experience already developed and automatic in one's use of the mother tongue. To provide duration of spontaneous speech upon which the teacher and the students can work to obtain a similarity of melody to the one heard thus, providing melodic integrative schema from the start.

2.1.5 Communicative Language Learning

It is not a highly structured method of teaching, rather a broad assembly of ideas from a range of sources which have come to be accepted as "good practice" by many contemporary teachers.

In the 1960's and 70's foreign language learning was widely extended with the establishment of comprehensive schools. It led to the teaching of a foreign language to, virtually, all children. It created pressure for a change in teaching methods and curricula to suit the needs of non-traditional groups of learners. It caused the recognition of the inadequacy of traditional grammar/translation methods and also of "structural" methods with emphasis on meaningless patterns and repetition.

New syllabuses took into account the needs of different pupils. Traditional academic syllabuses had assumed that the learner's goal was the mastery of a target language. But for less academic pupils a more immediate "pay-off" was necessary in terms of usefulness for practical purposes.

The result was the Communicative Language Learning Method; not a highly structured method of teaching, but a broad assembly of ideas from a range of sources which have come to be accepted as "good practise" by many contemporary teachers.

Characteristics of the Communicative Method:

1. It focuses on language as a medium of communication. It recognises that all communication has a social purpose (learners have something to say or find out).

2. Communication embraces a whole spectrum of functions (e.g., seeking for information, apologising, expressing likes and dislikes, etc) and notions (e.g., apologising for being late, asking where the nearest post office is and so on).

3. New syllabuses based on the communicative method offered some communicative ability from early stage.

Graded Objectives in Modern Languages –movement which flourished in the 1970's and 80's- raised pupils' motivation through short-term objectives and through teaching language appropriated to a range of relevant topics and situations (shopping, hobbies, etc.)

4. Hitherto, languages were taught in a vacuum -language for the sake of language and passing exams- rather than language for true communications.

At this point, it is important to distinguish between language as a 'medium' level of communication and as a 'message' level of communication:

a. The teacher is teaching pupils to say how old they are ("How old are you?"). They are merely practising the pattern in the foreign language for the sole purpose of mastering the construction –the teacher actually knows the age of the students- pupils also know that the teacher knows their age. They are all performing at 'medium' level, i.e., practising how to say it in the language, but with no added purpose.

b. Suddenly a curious member of the class raises his hand and asks the teacher "How old are you?" This is language being used at a totally different and higher level, i.e., 'message' level. The pupil doesn't know the teacher's age but, actually, uses the construction practised at the 'medium' level for a specific purpose, namely, that of finding out the teacher's age.

One has to practise language at 'medium' level first, in order to be able to exercise it at 'message' level. The problem is that a great number of teachers never go beyond

'medium' level and used the language for true purposes of sending and receiving 'messages'. They were teaching pupils about the language, about its patterns and rules, rather than using it actively for real purposes.

5. Classroom activities maximise opportunities for learners to use the target language in a communicative way for meaningful activities. Emphasis on meaning (messages they are creating or tasks they are completing) rather than form (correctness of language and language structure), as in first language acquisition.

6. The use of target language as a normal medium for classroom management and instruction reflects the naturalistic language acquisition.

7. The communicative approach is much more pupil-orientated, because it's dictated by pupils' needs and interests.

8. The accent is on functional and usable language. Learners should be able to go to a foreign country prepared for the reality they will find there. They need to be able to cope and survive in a variety of everyday situations.

9. A classroom should provide opportunities for the rehearsal of real-life situations and for real communication. Emphasis on creative role-plays, simulations, surveys, and projects all produce spontaneity and improvisation, not just repetitions and drills.

10. More emphasis on active models of learning, including pair work and group work, often not explored enough by teachers fearful of noisy classes.

11. Primacy of oral work. There is an emphasis on oral and listening skills in the classroom, not just on hearing the teacher, but on having personal contact themselves with language, practising sounds themselves, permutating sentence patterns and getting chance to make mistakes and learn from doing so.

12. Errors are a natural part of learning a language. Learners trying their best to use the language creatively and spontaneously are bound to make errors. Constant

correction is unnecessary and even counter-productive. Correction should be discreetly noted by the teacher who lets them talk and express themselves, this way the form of the language becomes secondary.

13. Communicative approach is not just limited to oral skills. Reading and writing skills need to be developed to promote pupils' confidence in all four skills areas. Using elements encountered in a variety of ways (reading, summarising, translating, discussion or debates) makes language more fluid and students' manipulation of language more fluent.

14. Grammar can still be taught, but less systematically, in traditional ways alongside with more innovative approaches. It is important to recognise that communication depends on grammar. Disregard of grammatical form will virtually guarantee breakdown in communication.

15. Language analysis and grammar explanation may help some learners, but extensive experience of target language helps everyone. Pupils need to hear about the topic in the foreign language at regular and recurrent intervals, so they are exposed to the topic and can assimilate it (not mere acquisition of certain lexical items).

16. Communicative approach seeks to personalise and localise language and adapt it to the interests of pupils. Meaningful language is always more easily retained by learners.

17. Use of idiomatic and everyday language (even slang words). This is the kind of language used in real communication between people, not a 'medium', grammatical, exam-orientated or formal language.

18. Make use of topical items with which pupils are already familiar in their own language (it motivates pupils, arouse their interest and lead to more active participation).

19. Avoid age-old texts. Materials must relate to pupils' own lives and be fresh and real. Furthermore, changing texts and materials regularly keeps teacher on toes and pupils interested.

20. Language needs not to be laboriously monotonous and 'medium' orientated. It can be structured, but also spontaneous and incidental. Language is never static. Life isn't like that, we are caught unaware, unprepared...Pupils need to improvise in an unrehearsed but natural manner.

21. Spontaneous and improvised practice helps to make minds more flexible and inspire confidence in coping with unforeseen or unanticipated situations.

22. Communicative approach seeks to use authentic resources, resources which must be interesting and motivating. In a foreign language classroom, authentic texts serve as a partial substitute for the community of native speakers. Newspapers and magazine articles, poems, manuals, recipes, news bulletins...all can be exploited in a variety of ways.

23. It is important not to be restricted to textbooks. Teachers never feel that textbooks have to be used from cover to cover. They are only a tool-starting point. With a little inspiration and imagination, textbooks can be manipulated and rendered more communicative. Teachers must free themselves from it and rely more on their own command of language and their professional expertise as to what linguistic items, idioms, phrases, words, need to be drilled/exploited/extended.

24. Use of visual stimuli e.g., flashcards. It is important to provoke practical communicative language what is developed in 3 stages: presentation, assimilation and reproducing the language in a creative and spontaneous way. Visual resources can be exploited at whatever level one wishes. It always helps to motivate and focus pupils' attention.

2.2 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATONS

Translation has been usually researched since it is a crucial variable that affects the learning of a second or foreign language.

Today there are many reasons for the use of translation in the field of foreign language teaching and these are some of them:

“La traducción suele ser más determinante -y no por ello exclusiva- en los estadios iniciales del proceso de aprendizaje, puesto que, a medida que se progresa hacia niveles superiores, el alumnado avanzado relega la traducción a un segundo plano, siempre que sea utilizada como método de aprendizaje. En efecto, en los niveles elementales nos encontramos con casos concretos en los que dar una explicación, recurrir a gráficos o representar gestualmente una palabra puede crear más dificultades –además de la inevitable pérdida de tiempo (Ettinger, 1989: 210)– que ofrecer directamente la traducción del vocablo en su L1. En estas primeras etapas del aprendizaje el docente debería trabajar con un léxico que tuviera una equivalencia total con la L1 o, dado el caso, muy leves diferencias que previamente habrían sido aclaradas”. Alfonso Corbacho Sánchez Universidad de Extremadura in “Notas sobre la traducción en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras con especial referencia al alemán empresarial”.

It is somewhat obsolete to discredit the use of translation as a teaching tool in the teaching of foreign languages, but it still suffers from some reluctance because of the enormous impact it reached in earlier times the known grammar-translation method. This method from the nineteenth century based its teaching-learning process only on translation, faithfully following the guidelines set by the Latin and Greek languages. The modus operandi of this classic system placed emphasis on the development of reading comprehension, mastery of the rules of grammar and memorizing vocabulary, believing that their procedures were applicable to any language. The bottom line resulted in an artificial language acquisition as it used decontextualized sentences and carefree methods of the communicative function.

This type of translation was everything but pedagogical. Its use was made with no educational objective.

For this reason, it is very useful to start talking about 'pedagogical translation', term which was first used by Jean-René Ladmiral, a French philosopher and translator of German: *"El término 'traducción pedagógica' se utiliza de manera general a partir del trabajo, ya clásico sobre nuestro tema, de Elisabeth Lavault (1985: 9): "La traduction en didactique des langues étrangères, que l'on appellera la traduction pédagogique". A la obra de esta autora corresponde la difusión del término, pero no la acuñación, que ella atribuye a Ladmiral". In "La traducción en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras: una aproximación polémica" Jorge J. Sánchez Iglesias*

2.2.1 Pedagogical translation versus real translation

Following the ideas of Albert Vermes, pedagogical and real translations differ from each other on three things: the function, the object, and the addressee of the translation.

'As regards function, pedagogical translation is an instrumental kind of translation, in which the translated text serves as a tool of improving the language learner's foreign language proficiency. It is a means of consciousness-raising, practising, or testing language knowledge...'

'The object of real translation is information about reality, contained in the source text, whereas in pedagogical translation it is information about the language learner's level of language proficiency.'

There is also a difference concerning the addressee of the two kinds of translation. In real translation it is a target language reader wanting some information about reality, while in pedagogical translation the addressee is the language teacher or the examiner, wanting information about the learner's proficiency.'

"Translation in Foreign Language Teaching: A Brief Overview of Pros and Cons". Albert Vermes.

The translation should not be the focus in the learning of foreign languages, but it could be considered as a resource or support activity. But it is really important to think

about this question: What criteria should be taken into account when using translation as a learning activity?

Firstly, it is important to take into account the command of the mother tongue of the learners. Of course, young students need to control the items which are going to be translated, if not, the use of translation has no point. And secondly, it is important that the items which are going to be translated must have a direct equivalence in the L2, so as not to make this process more complicated.

2.2.2 Translation in the classroom: pros and cons

As Albert Vermees explains in his studies, there are a lot of pros and cons of the use of translation in the teaching of a foreign language. In the following lines I will explain the ones that I consider more important.

Newson (1998: 64) provides a summary of the main objections in the following way. Translation, he writes, *“does not allow or make easy the achievement of such generally accepted foreign language teaching aims as:*

- *Fluency in spoken language.*
- *The controlled introduction of selected and graded structures and lexical items.*
- *The controlled introduction of communicative strategies. Translation leads to no observable learning effect, either of new vocabulary or structural items, and does not foster communicative language use”.*

Malmkjær (1998: 5) also lists a number of further general objections to school translation, which are the following:

- *“Translation is independent of the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening.*
- *It is radically different from the four skills.*
- *It takes up valuable time which could be used to teach these four skills.*
- *It is unnatural.*

- *It misleads students into thinking that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one.*
- *It produces interference.*
- *It prevents students from thinking in the foreign language”.*

However, there are many reasons in favour of using translation in the classroom, cited in García-Medal, J. (2001) “La traducción en la enseñanza de lenguas”. *Hermēneus: Revista de Traducción e Interpretación* Num. 3. Universidad de Valladolid.

1. En los métodos de enseñanza de las LL2 suele haber una ausencia temática, la de los conocimientos adquiridos de los aprendices sobre sus propios países de origen. Sin embargo, los aprendices tienen que emplear una L2 mediante explicaciones de lo que conocen. Pero hay que aceptar que no hay modo de esquivar la interferencia de la L1 a la hora de expresarnos en otro idioma (interferencia o transferencia negativa). Es más, tales interferencias demuestran que la conciencia lingüística sobre la L1 no puede ni debe eliminarse de un plumazo (Süss, 1997).

2. La traducción obedece a los imperativos de la comunicación. No es una mera comparación y búsqueda de correspondencias entre L1 y L2, sino que es la búsqueda del sentido último de los mensajes (Thomas, 1995). Así que la traducción requiere algo más que aptitudes lingüísticas.

3. Según Gibert (1989), la traducción plantea nuevas exigencias al aprendiz para ampliar su competencia comunicativa en una L2, porque se enfrenta a textos de otro autor, a conceptos que pueden serle ajenos y a ideas y acciones que pueden resultarle desconocidos. Como consecuencia de todo ello, amplía su léxico (en L2 y en L1) y estimula recursos y búsquedas poco usados en la propia lengua.

4. Para Valero Garcés (1996) la traducción es actividad comunicativa por antonomasia, aplicable a muchas más situaciones de aprendizaje de las que imaginamos.

5. La traducción pedagógica es un medio más para enseñar la L2, porque está a caballo entre la lingüística, la traductología y la didáctica de una L2 (de Arriba García, 1996a; 1996b).

6. De acuerdo con Arbuckle (1990) no hay que olvidar el valor de la traducción directa en clase de L2, porque exige del alumno precisión, uso adecuado de la gramática, conocimientos de fraseología y de estilo. Ha de ser una técnica más en la enseñanza de una L2. Lleva de modo natural al contraste de las lenguas en su uso. Por otra parte, la traducción inversa (de L1 a L2) es una actividad humilde y reveladora, que no tiene el prestigio de la competencia oral pero es esencial para observar las idiosincrasias de la L2 y para mejorar en su competencia.

7. Según Pegenaute (1996) la traducción también es un punto de encuentro entre la enseñanza de L2, la lingüística descriptiva y la lingüística contrastiva, aparte de constituir, por sí misma, una sólida herramienta de formación intelectual.

8. En opinión de Viqueira (1992), que sigue a Titford (1985) la traducción ha de ser una actividad post-comunicativa, un tercer nivel en un programa de enseñanza, porque se ha enseñando a destiempo, cuando el alumno aún no ha alcanzado suficiente nivel lingüístico como para sacar ventaja de su esfuerzo. Además, la traducción evita muchas pérdidas de tiempo en la enseñanza de una L2.

9. De acuerdo con Rivers & Temperley (1978) la traducción es útil tanto de L2 a L1 (traducción directa) como de L1 a L2 (traducción inversa): de L2 a L1 (traducción directa) es útil para aclarar el significado de conceptos abstractos, de palabras funcionales y de conectores lógicos, así como de expresiones idiomáticas. En las primeras etapas del aprendizaje el estudiante se familiariza con los distintos niveles y registros del lenguaje: (a) Good morning, Peter. How are you?; (b) Hi, Pete. How's it going? De L1 a L2 (traducción inversa) hay dos técnicas básicas útiles: (a) traducción de oraciones aisladas; (b) la traducción de textos dirigidos. La traducción de oraciones aisladas ha sido muy criticada por la desvinculación que tiene de situaciones comunicativas reales, pero es útil para familiarizar al alumno con estructuras propias de la L2.

Another author who works with the pros and cons of the use of translation in classroom is Fernández (2005:3). Here are the main ideas he explains in his studies:

Against:

1. *La traducción implica sólo dos destrezas, leer y escribir.*
2. *No es interactiva (no hay comunicación oral).*
3. *Es inadecuada como ejercicio de clase porque es individual.*
4. *Se ha practicado de forma no sistemática, eventual y no planificada.*
5. *Es aburrida tanto para el estudiante como para el profesor que tiene que corregirla.*
6. *Está asociada a textos literarios y científicos, que no se ajustan a las necesidades del estudiante.*
7. *Requiere el uso de la lengua materna en clase y esto no es deseable.*
8. *Hace que el estudiante se apoye demasiado en la lengua materna.*
9. *Produce errores de interferencia.*
10. *Sólo puede utilizarse en contextos de clase monolingües.*

In favour:

1. *La traducción reduce la ansiedad en las etapas tempranas del aprendizaje (Stibbard 1998 en Fernández 2005).*
2. *Es la forma más rápida y sencilla de explicar el significado de un término nuevo (Baker 1998 en Fernández 2005).*
3. *Los estudiantes usan intuitivamente su lengua materna como estrategia de aprendizaje de una segunda lengua.*
4. *La traducción desarrolla la destreza de lectura (Boyandi 2003 en Fernández 2005).*
5. *Como actividad comunicativa, promueve la interacción entre estudiante y profesor y de los estudiantes entre sí (Boyandi 2003 y Mallikamas 1997 en Fernández 2005).*
6. *El material de traducción es auténtico y puede ser de gran variedad (Mallikamas 1997 en Fernández 2005).*
7. *La traducción desarrolla las competencias del estudiante y mejora su desempeño lingüístico (Mallikamas 1997 en Fernández 2005).*

8. *Como la traducción es práctica lingüística contextualizada, los estudiantes descubren los lazos entre la forma y el uso lingüístico (Mallikamas 1997 en Fernández 2005).*
9. *La traducción es la quinta habilidad lingüística (junto con escuchar, hablar, leer y escribir).*
10. *La práctica de la traducción es un fin en sí misma (Baker 1998 en Fernández 2005).*
11. *Los estudiantes "se arriesgan" más en su producción lingüística al traducir que al escribir sus propios textos (Mallikamas 1997 en Fernández 2005).*
12. *La traducción desarrolla la precisión porque no permite utilizar mecanismos de escape (Baker 1998 en Fernández 2005).*
13. *La traducción pone énfasis en las sutiles diferencias entre L1 y L2 y elimina la creencia de que hay un equivalente exacto para cada expresión (Baker 1998 en Fernández 2005).*
14. *Permite ver la relación entre expresión y cultura, elementos idiosincrásicos de las lenguas (Gabrielatos 1998 en Fernández 2005).*

As we can see, there are lots of opinions which either defend or criticize the use of translation in the classroom. So, from my point of view it would be wrong to choose one of them as if it were the optimal one, discarding the others.

Instead, we should know in depth these theories to develop an informed and based on scientific studies opinion to support it.

Therefore, it is important to know, later judge and ultimately decide. This dynamic should be followed in any facet of life. From the educational point of view we could say that every teacher should master various methodologies, know their strengths and weaknesses and choose the right one for the different educational purposes.

3. MATERIALS AND METHOD

3.1 Aim of the experiment

The below experiment is designed to shed light over the following points:

- To assess the effectiveness of two different methods or treatments to teach vocabulary (isolated words).
- To interpret through the results whether it is more powerful the input used, the effort put, the motivation or the influence and effectiveness of the methods.

With these objectives in mind, the experiment introduces two treatments (“Translation” and “No translation”) one for each teaching method.

3.2 Participants and context

The total number of participants, who were selected for this experiment, is 10. This sample was equally distributed among treatments (5 participants were allocated on the “Translation” treatment and the remaining 5 on the “No translation” one). Moreover, this allocation among treatments was made in a random way.

GROUP A “No Translation” Treatment

Y. R.

F. J. D.

D. L.

M. M.

A. M. B.

GRUPO B “Translation” Treatment

I. S.

S. B.

N. I.

I. V.

A. A.

- They are all studying first grade of primary in a state school.
- All of them belong to the same classroom.
- All of them had received the same time of instruction, trained by the same teacher.

These two facts are relevant for the correct interpretation of the results as they avoid the introduction of exogenous factors which may affect the performance of the students. In particular to be trained by the same teacher is a critical point, since it ensures certain comparability between treatments.

- None of them had previous background of the topic they were taught.
- None of the participants had received extra school classes at the time of data collection.
- The sample was selected by convenience, as some of the students hadn't acquired the necessary writing and reading skills in their mother tongue by the time this experiment was held. As a consequence, only the ones with a good command of their mother tongue participated.
- Although the majority of the participants come from other countries (they are immigrants) their mother tongue is Spanish, as when they started talking, they did it in Spanish.

This fact has nothing to do with the level of English they have. In other words, although all of the participants were selected taking into account their writing and reading skills (in Spanish), their level of English command was not taken into consideration.

- Both groups were motivated by telling them that there was going to be a prize at the end of it. Motivation on this framework is introduced to make sure participants are doing their best and, therefore, that the performance on each of the treatments is measuring the potential for each learning method. So, and assuming that the promise of a prize is motivationally equal for both groups, the experiment ensures participants in both groups are putting the same effort (the maximum) on the task to be performed.

3.3 Materials and instruments

For each treatment, the experiment was held in two sessions (during two consecutive days) of a quarter of an hour each one. Students had to learn seven new words in English during 15 minutes. One of the groups was taught the new vocabulary by using a translation method into their L1 (“Translation” treatment).

The other group was taught by using visual input (“No Translation” treatment).

ITEMS

The items were chosen taking into account that none of them were known by the students.

Number 1: Dress

Number 2: Shorts

Number 3: Shoes

Number 4: Boots

Number 5: Skirt

Number 6: Socks

Number 7: Scarf

Procedure followed with both treatments:

GROUP A “No Translation” Treatment

- Session 1

The teacher presented a Power Point. On it, students could see the picture of the new word. Seconds later, the teacher presented also the written form of it. This operation was repeated four times.

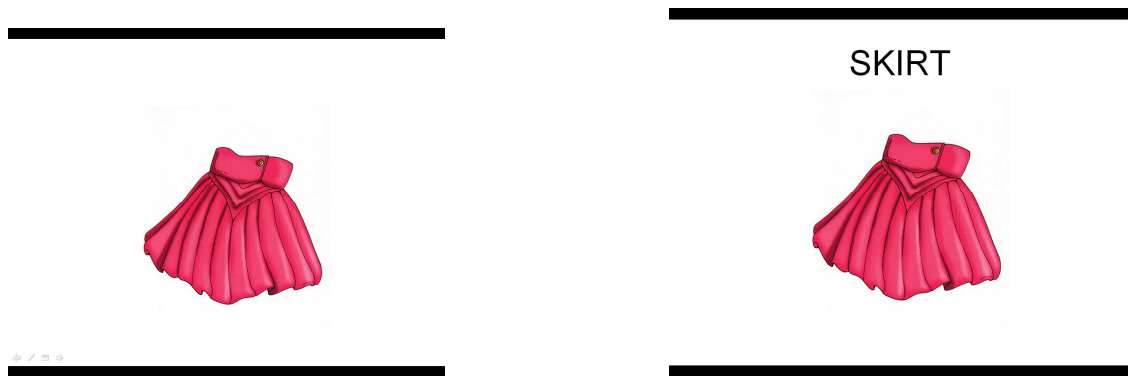


Image 1. Power Point used for the “No Translation” Treatment Group.

- Session 2

The following day, a time and topic-constrained written test was used for data collection.

First of all, they rehearsed the words, watching one more time the Power Point presentation. Learners knew during the rehearsal that there was going to be a small test at the end of the session.

Then, students had a maximum of 15 minutes to write on the sheet of paper the name of all the items they had learned the previous day. They were not allowed to ask questions or use dictionaries.

In this case, the test offered the same pictures used for the Power Point.

The teacher provided this visual support so as to make it easier for the students to write the words correctly (spelling).



Image 2. Visual Support used for the test.

GROUP B “Translation” Treatment

- Session 1

The teacher presented a Power Point. On it, students could see the word they were going to learn, first in English and then in Spanish.

This process was repeated four times.

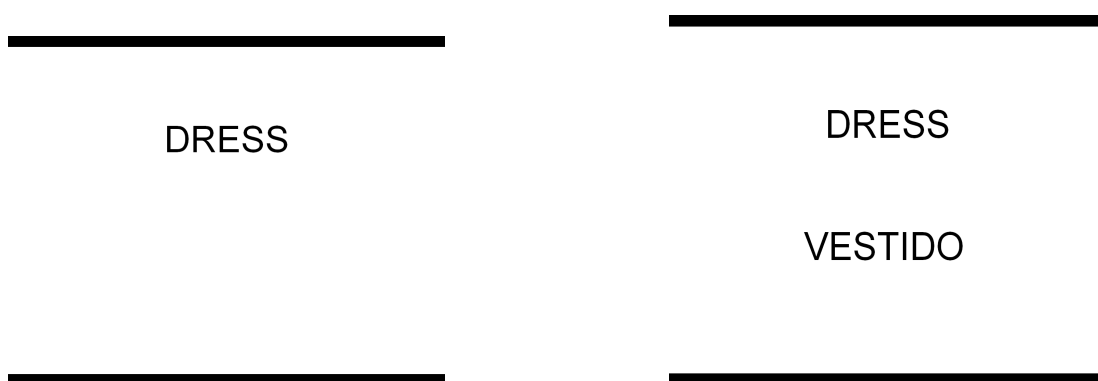


Image 3. Power Point used for the “Translation” Treatment Group.

- Session 2

The following day, a time and topic-constrained written test was used for data collection.

First of all, they rehearsed the words, watching one more time the Power Point presentation.

Learners knew during the rehearsal that there was going to be a small test at the end of the session.

Then, students had a maximum of 15 minutes to write on the sheet of paper the name of all the items they had learned the previous day. They were not allowed to ask questions or use dictionaries. In this case, the test offered all the words in Spanish and students had to write the corresponding word for each item in English.

The teacher provided the same visual support as the one for group A, so as to make it easier for the students to write the words correctly (spelling).

3.4 Results and differences between main variables

Chart 1. Results GROUP A. "No Translation" Treatment

	<i>Item 1</i>	<i>Item 2</i>	<i>Item 3</i>	<i>Item 4</i>	<i>Item 5</i>	<i>Item 6</i>	<i>Item 7</i>	<i>TOTAL=</i> 28
Y. R	✓	x	x	✓	✓	x	✓	4
M. M	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	6
F. J. D	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	✓	5
A. M. B	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	7
D. R	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	6

Chart 2. Results GROUP B. "Translation" Treatment

	<i>Item 1</i>	<i>Item 2</i>	<i>Item 3</i>	<i>Item 4</i>	<i>Item 5</i>	<i>Item 6</i>	<i>Item 7</i>	<i>TOTAL=</i> 27
I. S	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	7
S. B	✓	x	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	5
A. A	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	7
I. V	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	x	✓	5
N. I	✓	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	3

Results were analyzed through statistical techniques.

This experiment provides us with two variables to be analyzed:

1. Total grade obtained by each student.

2. Probability of getting right each item.

Differences between these variables may legitimate us to establish the superiority of one method over the other.

3.4.1 Total grade

Chart 3: Summary of Total Grade

Summary of Total Grade			
Treatment	Mean	Standard Deviation	Frequency
No Translation	5.6	1.140	5
Translation	5.4	1.673	5
Total	5.5	1.354	10

For this variable, the most suitable test of hypothesis is to perform an ANOVA (ANalysis Of the VAriance) over the total grade using the treatment as factor. This analysis tries to discern whether to be on a treatment or on the other has a systematic effect over the average final mark obtained by students. This test established two hypotheses:

1. H_0 (Null): The mean of both treatments are the same
2. H_a (Alternative): Not H_0 . The mean of both treatments are not the same.

<u>CHART KEY</u>
SS = Sum of Squares
Df = Degrees of Freedom
MS = Mean Square
F = F-ratio

Chart 4: Analysis of variance

Analysis of Variance					
Source	SS	df	MS	F	Prob > F
Between groups	0.1	1	0.1	0.05	0.8307
Within groups	16.4	8	2.05		
Total	16.5	9	1.833		

The relevant value on the chart above is the corresponding to $\text{Prob}>F=0.8307$ ¹. This value (called in econometrics the p-value) tells us that we can consider true the null hypothesis with a probability of 0.8307. Therefore, we reject the alternative hypothesis concluding that the treatment does not make any difference on this particular variable, i.e., both learning methods considered on this experiment have equal effectiveness.

3.4.2 Probability of getting right each item

While the overall probability to guess an item can be considered the same for both treatments (otherwise, we should find differences on the “total grade” variable), it may be well the case that some items are statistically more likely to be learnt by the students than others.

Intuitively, this result would be carried out by the visual input of the word through a bad choice of it. That’s it, if the visual support for a particular word is not clear enough, it may confuse the student and, thus, decrease the probability of getting right that particular item. In addition, this issue may be hiding a higher effectiveness of the “no translation” method over the “translation” one, given that the overall probability is almost the same for both.

¹ Although it varies across studies and there is no a formal threshold, in large scale applied works is considered that we cannot reject the alternative hypothesis when the p-value is lower to 0.05. Given the small scale of this study, this threshold could be set up to 0.1

In order to check this concern, I have compared all the seven probabilities of getting right (one per item) between treatments. For such comparisons I have used a Wald test for linear hypothesis whose hypothesis are:

- $H_0: P^{NT} = P^T$
- $H_a: \text{Not } H_0$

(Where P^{NT} and P^T are probabilities of getting right under “no translation” and “translation” respectively). Below, we can find the summary of the probabilities as well as the p-values corresponding to each test. As it can be seen, we reject H_a for all items (since $p\text{-value} > 0.1$) concluding that both methods are equally effective for all items considered on this experimental design.

Chart 5: Probability of getting right each item

Treatment	Probability of getting right							Total
	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6	I7	
No Translation	1.0	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.80
Translation	1.0	0.8	0.6	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.77
P-Value	-*	0.5428	0.5428	-*	0.5428	0.5779	0.3434	

* For I1 and I4 the analysis cannot be performed as there is no variability

3.5. Discussion

The analysis of the data obtained on this experiment seems to support the idea that both methods are equally effective. However, there are some limitations on the experimental designed that have to be taken into account:

1. The sample size. The sample size is critical in any experiment or applied work as long as it affects the reliability, external validity and robustness of the results. Obviously, a

sample size of 10 individuals is not the appropriate size and does not allow us to get a conclusive result. In addition, increasing the sample size helps the experimenter to achieve a balanced composition of the sample on each treatment. This leads us to the second limitation.

2. While the sample has been chosen in order to minimize possible anomalous results (excluding beforehand those students who do not master their mother tongue), not other criteria has been used to distribute the students among treatments. Thus, it is possible that the two subsamples (corresponding to each treatment) are not balanced in some relevant aspects as their ability. While with the actual design nothing can be done on this regard, a second phase of the experiment can avoid this problem.

3.6 Further experiments

3.6.1 A second phase

A second phase of this experiment would consist just on, with different words to be learnt, reverse the treatments applying the “no translation” treatment to those who have done the “translation” one and vice versa. With this extra step we could address whether the sample is balanced or not by following the next rule:

- If the results are the same, both subsamples were balanced and we gain on confidence over our previous results, since this would mean that the previous results are not driven by the ability of the students, but by the own educational methodology.
- If results change and, suddenly, one method seems to be superior to the other, we should suspect that the ability of each learner is the most important factor and that it influences the results (unbalanced samples).

In case of getting unbalanced samples, we can combine results of both phases of the experiment to draw two different scenarios and conclusions:

- Case in which the “no translation” treatment gets higher results compared to the “translation”: thus, we can think that on the original experiment we have applied

the “no translation” treatment to those students who have lower ability but that, precisely for having taught them through this treatment, they have equated the performance of the good students under the “translation” treatment. Therefore, we can conclude that the “no translation” treatment is more effective than the “translation” one.

- Case in which the “translation” treatment gets higher results compared to the “no translation”. The reasoning will be analogous to the one above, leading us to conclude that the “translation” treatment is more effective than the “no translation”.

3.6.2 Other approaches

A last experimental minimal concern is how much effort students put or how much focused they are on learning under each methodology. It is worth to note that the effort when learning has nothing to do with the effort when making the test and, thus, it has nothing to do with the motivation generated through the promised prize. Therefore, if students are not aware of an incoming exam on the topic, the effort put on learning may vary across treatments. On the other hand, it is assumed that the effort put on learning when they are aware of an incoming test is the same for both treatments.

A priori, the “not translation treatment” is likely to increase the effort as the visual impact may attract more their attention.

Since most of the time students are not aware about an incoming evaluation, this reflexion about how each method affects effort is a research question per se. In order to address this question, a modification of the original experiment is enough to get data about it. Assuming a balanced sample across all subsamples, we can introduce two different conditions:

- Aware: During the second session of the original experiment and before the rehearsal, it is announced that after this they will take an exam.

- Unaware: During the second session of the original experiment the incoming test is not announced.

This design gives us a 2X2 experiment (two treatments by two conditions) whose data and future analysis will answer the question about how effort in learning changes from one teaching methodology to the other. In particular, and using the total grade variable as variable of interest, we can compute the following measures:

- $\Delta^T = T_a - T_{na}$. Increase of effort in the “translation” treatment (Δ^T) computed as the difference between the total grade obtained by the “Translation/Aware” (T_a) condition and the “Translation/Unaware” (T_{na}) condition.

- $\Delta^{NT} = NT_a - NT_{na}$. Increase of effort in the “no translation” treatment (Δ^{NT}) computed as the difference between the total grade obtained by the “No translation/Aware” (NT_a) condition and the “No translation/Unaware” (NT_{na}) condition.

Making the, not very strong, assumption that when students are aware they pay the maximum attention (effort) on the rehearsal, the lower is Δ^T (Δ^{NT}) the higher is the effort the “translation” treatment (“no translation” treatment) generates on the student when they are not aware.

In other words, when students make the most of them (put a lot of effort), the method used is less important or has lower influence. On the other hand, when students are more relaxed because they don't know that there will be a final test, the methodology used gets much more importance in the results obtained.

Taking into account just this possibility (students unaware), this would be the expressions that would help us to decipher whether one method is more effective than the other.

-
- $\Delta^T - \Delta^{NT} < 0 \rightarrow$ The “translation” treatment generates higher effort when unaware ($\Delta^T < \Delta^{NT}$)
 - $\Delta^T - \Delta^{NT} = 0 \rightarrow$ Both treatments generate the same amount of effort when unaware ($\Delta^T = \Delta^{NT}$)
 - $\Delta^T - \Delta^{NT} > 0 \rightarrow$ The “no translation” treatment generates higher effort when unaware ($\Delta^T > \Delta^{NT}$)

CONCLUSIONES

A lo largo de este trabajo hemos podido conocer más exhaustivamente las diferentes metodologías utilizadas para la enseñanza de idiomas a lo largo de la historia moderna.

Además, hemos cuestionado el uso de la traducción, analizado su efectividad como cualquier otro recurso educativo.

Es importante aclarar que cualquier metodología, ya vaya enfocada al estudio y enseñanza de lenguas o se dirija hacia otro tipo de objetivos, siempre está supeditada a posibles modificaciones o reinterpretaciones. Las teorías de la educación evolucionan, son dinámicas, como la educación en sí misma. Es por ello que el maestro debe ser consciente de esta realidad en su práctica educativa. Debe conocer que toda metodología (pedagógica o no) está sujeta a cambios y que lo que un día puede ser lo más moderno y pionero, al tiempo puede ser sometido a estudios que pongan en entredicho su efectividad.

Después de realizar un análisis de las fuentes bibliográficas, he podido conocer mucho mejor los diferentes enfoques utilizados para la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras. Desde mi punto de vista, creo que el enfoque más acertado es el actual, el Enfoque Comunicativo (Communicative Approach). Con este modelo didáctico se pretende capacitar al alumno para una comunicación real -no sólo en el aspecto oral, sino también en el escrito- con otros hablantes de la LE. Con este objetivo, en el proceso educativo a menudo se utilizan textos, grabaciones y materiales auténticos y se realizan actividades que van encaminados a imitar con veracidad la realidad de fuera del aula.

"La comunicación no es un mero producto, sino más bien un proceso, que se lleva a cabo con un propósito concreto, entre unos interlocutores concretos, en una situación concreta. Por consiguiente, no basta con que los estudiantes asimilen un cúmulo de datos -vocabulario, reglas, funciones...-; es imprescindible, además, que aprendan a

utilizar esos conocimientos para negociar el significado. Para ello deben participar en tareas reales, en las que la lengua sea un medio para alcanzar un fin, no un fin en sí misma.

La LE es un vehículo para la comunicación en clase, no sólo el objeto de estudio. Por eso, se usa tanto en la realización de las tareas como para las explicaciones, aclaraciones, etc., reservando la L1 para casos especiales.

La presentación de la gramática suele ser inductiva, aunque también se dan algunas breves explicaciones gramaticales cuando se estima oportuno.

El libro de texto se considera un apoyo material valioso, pero no el eje de la instrucción. También se emplean otros tipos de materiales didácticos –por ejemplo, cartulinas para tareas de resolución de problemas en grupo- y auténticos -revistas, folletos turísticos, billetes de transporte público, etc.-, así como objetos de uso corriente: una cámara fotográfica, un reloj-despertador, etc. (si la ocasión lo requiere, con los manuales de instrucciones correspondientes).

El repertorio de papeles que desempeña el profesor es bastante amplio: analizar las necesidades de los alumnos, crear situaciones de comunicación, organizar actividades, asesorar, participar como un compañero más, observar el desarrollo de las tareas en el aula, elaborar materiales, etc. En definitiva, la función del profesor es facilitar el aprendizaje, fomentando, a la vez, la cooperación entre los alumnos, quienes son los verdaderos protagonistas; éste es, pues, un enfoque centrado en el alumno. En la evaluación de los alumnos se atiende tanto a la corrección como a la fluidez. La evaluación no se limita al producto, sino que abarca todo el proceso; se trata de determinar en qué momento o en qué sentido conviene modificar algún aspecto del proceso instructivo”.

En:

http://cvc.cervantes.es/ensenanza/biblioteca_ele/diccio_ele/diccionario/enfoque_nicativo.htm

A pesar de estar totalmente de acuerdo con esta visión u opción metodológica, también considero que la traducción no tiene por qué estar reñida con esta forma de enseñar.

De hecho, mi perspectiva antes de realizar este proyecto era totalmente contraria al uso de esta herramienta. Creía que la traducción era negativa en todos sus sentidos y este trabajo me ha ayudado a modificar mi pensamiento.

Considero que la traducción es un recurso educativo más, que puede ser utilizado siempre y cuando haya una intención pedagógica, un sentido educativo detrás de su uso.

Malmkjaer (1998: 8) argumenta que la traducción tiene mucha relación con las cuatro destrezas básicas (*listening, speaking, writing y reading*). Explica que los estudiantes de una lengua extranjera que traducen, estarán inevitablemente practicando estas cuatro destrezas también.

Por lo tanto, considero injusto pensar que la traducción es diferente de cualquier destreza del idioma ya que depende de éstas y las incluye a todas. No existe argumento que respalde el hecho de que la traducción es una pérdida de tiempo cuando se utiliza como herramienta para enseñar inglés; tal vez pueda ser cierto que enseñar por medio de la traducción consume más tiempo que enseñar por medio de otros medios, aunque yo no lo considero así. De hecho considero que para muchas facetas, utilizarla, es conseguir un resultado mucho más rápido que sin su uso. En el caso del experimento que realicé, observé como me costó el mismo tiempo material el dar la lección traduciendo que sin traducir. Puede ser que en apartado de gramática, por ejemplo, utilizar esta herramienta si que consume más espacio, pero en lo que a la instrucción de vocabulario se refiere, no considero que sea así.

Sí que es cierto que quizás los alumnos no desarrollen ciertas capacidades que sí desarrollarían utilizando un método de inmersión, pero creo que *“al traducir se requiere dominio tanto del idioma origen como del idioma a aprender; sin embargo, este dominio tampoco es suficiente para traducir. Por el contrario, se espera que el traductor tenga la habilidad de intercambiar y relacionar los dos idiomas y seleccionar los equivalentes apropiados a determinada situación, lo cual es otra destreza más de dominio de un idioma.”* En <http://www.moqap.net/pmt/AnaLauraEscobar.pdf>.

Si una actividad de traducción se contextualiza y se presenta con claridad y sentido, ésta perfectamente proporciona una oportunidad más para practicar el idioma en la

clase. Si en la clase de inglés se estimula el uso de la traducción tal y como sucede en la vida real con los traductores profesionales, los estudiantes del idioma extranjero entenderán que no existe la equivalencia palabra por palabra entre dos idiomas. Se darán cuenta de las diferencias entre textos y, por lo tanto, entre idiomas. Por supuesto que ante tales situaciones, los estudiantes tendrán que practicar el pensamiento crítico en ambos idiomas (Malmkjaer, 1998:8-9).

Por todo ello, considero que hay que encontrar un equilibrio entre métodos y técnicas de enseñanza de idiomas y tomar como punto de partida las necesidades de aprendizaje de los alumnos. Siempre que se tengan en cuenta todos estos aspectos, el uso de la traducción estará totalmente justificado y contextualizado: la traducción desde un enfoque comunicativo. Esto es, utilizar esta herramienta con una finalidad comunicativa, funcional y útil y no como una actividad descontextualizada y sin un objetivo concreto (el de la mejorar la competencia comunicativa de los alumnos).

En relación a este asunto, Duff (*Translation*, 1989) reflexiona y explica que la traducción es un recurso para el aprendizaje de otra lengua y no un fin en sí mismo. Duff especifica cinco argumentos que respaldan la utilización de la traducción e enseñanza-aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera:

“1. La traducción permite darnos cuenta de la influencia de la lengua materna en cuestiones como la elección de lexemas, el orden de palabras, etc., a la hora de comunicarnos en el idioma meta y posibilita corregir estos errores casi inconscientes, producidos por la fijación en la mente de ciertas estructuras lingüísticas de la lengua materna.

2. La traducción es una actividad natural que acontece cotidianamente en diversos contextos situacionales tales como aeropuertos, empresas, oficinas, comercios.

Este carácter natural de la actividad traductora puede aprovecharse en las clases de idiomas extranjeros.

3. La mejora de la destreza comunicativa ya que la competencia lingüística del estudiante de una lengua extranjera ha de ser bidireccional; es decir, se ha de

comunicar en y desde la lengua extranjera. La comparación entre ambos sistemas lingüísticos y culturales es imprescindible para una comunicación satisfactoria.

4. El carácter auténtico y no inventado de los textos que se eligen para traducir. La traducción de textos de temática, estilos y registros diversos permite al alumnado familiarizarse con un uso amplio del lenguaje real y cotidiano, no sólo con el discurso de los textos que se utilizan para el aprendizaje de un idioma extranjero.

5. La utilidad de la traducción que se desglosa en cuatro puntos:

a. El carácter polémico de la actividad traductora que invita al trabajo oral en grupo entre el alumnado al debatir las posibles respuestas y a practicar también la lectura.

b. La traducción desarrolla tres cualidades importantes para el aprendizaje de lenguas: exactitud, claridad y flexibilidad.

c. Los docentes pueden seleccionar material auténtico que ilustre algunos aspectos gramaticales conflictivos para los estudiantes. Al trabajar estos problemas, los alumnos pueden ver la relación entre la gramática y el uso.

d. El papel fundamental que ejerce la traducción en la difusión de manifestaciones culturales y políticas variadas (cine, literatura, reuniones internacionales, juegos olímpicos, etc.)”.

Duff (Translation, 1989) en <http://www.mogap.net/pmt/AnaLauraEscobar.pdf>

Así pues, y para concluir con este proyecto, diré que al analizar la bibliografía escrita recientemente sobre traducción pedagógica, me he dado cuenta de que una gran cantidad de autores parece estar de acuerdo en que la traducción debe recuperar su lugar en la clase de idiomas, aunque este lugar no sea exactamente el mismo que tenía en la metodología tradicional. Así mismo, y especialmente al revisar los resultados de experimento realizado en el apartado anterior, soy consciente de que este recurso, utilizado de manera inteligente y con un fin claro, puede ser tan efectivo como otras metodologías utilizadas en la enseñanza de lenguas.

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