TRANSLATION AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

por

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To my parents,
José Índio and Eva Maria
with all my love
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The use of translation in second language teaching has been a debatable matter for a long time. In the context of this research, translation is seen as a mental process which may lead to awareness of linguistic features of the input text. By taking into consideration that translating involves an intense elaborate linguistic processing, it was hypothesized that the translation process may establish linguistic traces in memory which may, then, be used in language production, as in the case of this study - summary writing. In order to verify this hypothesis, the summaries produced after the activities of reading and translating were compared with summaries produced after a simple reading comprehension activity. Twenty-seven advanced undergraduate Brazilian students, from the English departments of two Brazilian universities (UFSC and UFRGS), participated in the study. Data were collected in two sessions. In the first session learners read a text in English, translated into Portuguese and wrote a summary in English (T1). In the second session learners read a text in English and wrote a summary in English as well (T2). In both tasks learners produced summaries without having access to the original text. The results provide ground for a reappraisal of the role of translation in foreign language acquisition. Despite the small differences, the data allows us to conclude that the translation activity produced different results in the summaries than the reading
activity. It appears that translation leads learners to articulate more their language system, and makes them notice some features of the input material and include these features in the summaries. However, more studies are needed before generalizations can be made in relation to the results of this research.

Key-words: translation process - learning - language production

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RESUMO

TRADIÇÃO COMO PROCESSO DE APRENDIZAGEM DA LÍNGUA ESTRANGEIRA

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O uso da tradução no ensino de língua estrangeira tem sido uma questão muito debatida há tempo. No contexto desta pesquisa, a tradução é vista como um processo mental que pode levar à consciência de elementos linguísticos do texto original. Considerando-se que a tradução envolve um intenso e elaborado processamento linguístico, levantou-se a hipótese de que o processo tradutório poderia estabelecer importantes traços linguísticos na memória, os quais poderiam ser utilizados na produção linguística, no caso desta pesquisa, nos resumos escritos. Para verificar esta hipótese, resumos produzidos após atividades de leitura e tradução foram comparados com resumos produzidos após uma atividade de leitura. Vinte e sete alunos brasileiros da graduação, considerados avançados, dos cursos de inglês de duas universidades brasileiras (UFSC e UFRGS), participaram deste estudo. Os dados foram coletados em duas sessões. Na primeira, os alunos leram um texto em inglês, traduziram o mesmo para português, e fizeram o resumo do texto em inglês (T1). Na segunda sessão, os alunos leram um texto em inglês, e fizeram o resumo em inglês (T2). Em ambas sessões os alunos produziram os resumos sem ter acesso ao texto original. Os resultados forneceram subsídios a uma reavaliação sobre a função da tradução na aquisição da língua estrangeira. Apesar da pequena diferença entre resultados nas duas tarefas, os
dados nos permitem concluir que a atividade de tradução produziu diferentes resultados nos resumos do que a atividade de leitura. Parece que a tradução tende a levar os alunos a articular mais o sistema linguístico, o que faz com que eles notem alguns elementos do texto original e os incluam nos resumos. Entretanto, mais estudos são necessários antes que possamos generalizar os resultados obtidos nesta pesquisa.

Palavras chave: processo tradutório - aprendizagem - produção lingüística

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Chapter One

Introduction

There has been a growing amount of research on the different phenomena involved in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) recently. The results of such research have brought important insights on how language is comprehended and produced. Most studies are directed towards cognitive interpretations in an attempt to explain how languages are learned. From these perspectives, there is evidence that language acquisition may be accomplished through various ways, and that input plays a fundamental role in this process. However, how input should be provided for learners to acquire the foreign language efficiently still remains a vexed question.

One of the positions is to provide learners with input quality and quantity (written or spoken forms), that is to say, exposing them to meaningful and comprehensible second language input through formal or natural means (Krashen, 1981). However, recent researchers have advocated that simple exposure to the second language (L2) is not the most efficient way to help learners to develop second language competence (Schmidt, 1990, 1995; Sharwood Smith, 1993; Skehan, 1998).

It is claimed that instruction does play an important role in the development of foreign language competence. Second language acquisition research should, therefore, work in consonance with pedagogical issues. The trends upheld by the latter researchers are that, in the classroom domain, teachers also need to encourage learners to focus on form, and not only on the communicative values of the language. The paradox is that the teacher should focus on the communicative meaning of the input as well as draw
learners’ attention to language. There are surely no rules to be followed; rather, there is a challenge to be faced. Skehan (1998) is amongst the proponents of this advanced cognitive approach to SLA. He believes that there is a need to equate attentional resources to the communicative values of language as well as the form at a general level, in a way that neither prevails the cost of the other. In a similar vein, Ellis (1994, in Schmidt, 1995) recognizes that there are various ways to integrate exposure to input and communicative practice with focus on form and consciousness-raising.

In what concerns the way input should be provided for learning to take place, there is a wide range of disagreement among researchers. On the one hand, some researchers believe that learners do not need to be consciously paying attention to language in order to develop linguistic competence (e.g. Krashen, 1981). On the other hand, there are others who point out the importance of consciousness-raising in SLA (e.g. Schmidt, 1990). Likewise, Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) regard consciousness-raising as “a potential facilitator for the development of linguistic competence” (p.280).

Grounded by the tenets that language learning requires some degree of consciousness-raising, as long as it is aggregated in a meaningful communicative context, translation, as defined in this research, fits into this discussion.

Of the literature surveyed, some researchers (e.g. Harley, 1994; Jourdenais, 1995; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Skehan, 1998) admit that there are various ways to raise learners’ consciousness of features of the target language, other than through form-oriented instruction. The present research was triggered by one of these alternatives. It is an attempt to verify whether translation, because of the cognitive elaborateness involved, can be used as a learning activity in the development of foreign
There is lack of research in what concerns the use of translation in second language learning, and among the few sources that exist, most stigmatize it as a hindrance for language learning. However, translation, as a process, should not be simply rejected. Indeed, it may be a rather important aspect of the L2 comprehension process (Kern, 1994).

Unlike traditional uses of translation analysis, which imply the different models of translation\(^1\), here, translation is deemed as a mental processing of L2 words, phrases and sentences which are then encoded into first language (L1) written forms.

The value of the present study is to extend the use of translation in foreign language acquisition to a different domain - in this case as a learning process. It is my view that through the translation process the learner becomes more aware of the language, and therefore, noticing the linguistic features of the target language (TL) becomes easier. According to H.I. Bohn (personal communication, September, 1998), "learners might create a mental representation in long-term memory of the linguistic information entertained during the translation task. This information can then be used in language production".

In order to verify this, summaries produced after the activities of reading and translating will be compared to the summaries produced after a simple reading comprehension activity. It is predicted that translation, as a learning process, can help to establish a stronger linguistic and meaningful representation of the text in long-term memory, and develop readiness for language use by facilitating memory retrieval of language, content, and structural information included in the text, thus contributing to

\(^1\) Bell (1991) refers to some of the models as free translation (meaning-by-meaning) and literal translation (word-by word).
the improvement of the summary writing.

It seems important to expand this introduction and define some of the concepts which underlie the present research. They include the notions of translation as a process and as a product, issues on second language writing, summary writing, and a model of second language acquisition - the consciousness-raising hypothesis.

In essence, translation involves the decoding of linguistic forms from the source language text and encoding them into new forms to create a new text - the target language text (TT). That is to say, translation entails a process (the translation activity) and the product of this activity (Bell, 1991). In this research, the focus is on translation as a process. The translation process involves a wide range of linguistic and extra-linguistic decisions to be taken in order to convey the meaning of the original text. These decisions involve, among others, choice of vocabulary, syntax forms, style, structure, cohesion, coherence, and readership. Bell (1991) renders the process of translation in the context of human information processing, which entails various processes from reading the original text to the writing of the translation.

When relating translation to SLA, the 'elaborateness of processing' yielded by the psycholinguistic processes should be brought into light (Hummel, 1995). Two sets of information structures are involved in translating: the structures from the first language and the structures from the second language that are formed to match the original information, resulting in an elaborated set of memory traces. Elaboration entails interconnections or associations among pieces of information. These associations are referred to as elaborations. It is upheld by the elaboration processing view in memory research that translation may prompt a more elaborate and durable memory encoding (Anderson, 1995).
Although the focus of this research is not on the composing process as such, it is important to present some issues concerning second language writing, as well as summary writing. Through writing, the results will be monitored to check whether the translation activity leads to distinct language products when compared to the reading comprehension activity.

Nowadays, the view of writing has shifted from the final product to the process that writers use as they write. Flower and Hayes (1981) have done some pioneering work in this direction and have presented a model of writing in which the active role of the writer is emphasized. They have advanced a process-centered model which is composed of three major units: task environment, the writer's long-term memory and the writing process. The model shall be further discussed in Chapter Two (Section 2.2).

When focusing on L2 writing research, one of the main controversies relates to the use of the writing ability in the mother tongue (L1) in second language text production. Some researchers claim that the use of L1 in L2 text production is negative (Friedlander, 1990), while others envisage similarities between L1 and L2 writing. This forwards the hypothesis that writers can benefit, to some extent, from transferring knowledge across languages (Mohan & Lo, 1985; Zamel, 1983). In fact, there have been research reports of advanced learners using translation in their L2 writing process (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Whalen & Ménard, 1995; Zamel, 1982).

Writing entails various genres, and summary writing is among the many examples presented in the literature. It is hypothesized that summary writing requires much mental effort, and researchers (Hare, 1992; Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991) point out that several variables may affect the production of a summary. These variables will be discussed in the Review of the Literature (in Section 2.3 see 2.3.1).
One of the issues related to analyzing summaries concerns the way they should be assessed. Various researchers (Brown & Day, 1983; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Kozminsky & Graetz, 1986; Winograd, 1984) have adopted Kintsch and Van Dijk's (1978) macro-rules model to assess summaries. This model consists of mental operations which interact with the propositions of the material in order to identify the important ideas, which form the macrostructure of the text. The macrostructure is essential for the concept of main idea (Hare, 1992; Williams, 1988). Correspondingly, Hare and Brochardt (1984) emphasize that summaries require students' sensitivity to identify and represent main ideas in a reduced manner by identifying unimportant information and eliminating it.

In addition to this, summarizing is a highly cognitive and demanding task, which requires some degree of consciousness from the learners. There are different processes involved in the summarization task depending on whether learners read to comprehend, select and delete information and make plans of the structural features of the text. They then choose the language and content to be used which clarifies the text to the reader.

Schmidt (1990) argues that both conscious and unconscious processes are related to language learning, and that 'noticing' is important for learning to take place. When learners notice, they are attending to linguistic features in the input, no matter whether these features are going to be reported immediately or not. Through the development of linguistic awareness, language acquisition will become a meaningful restructuring and rearticulation of knowledge. Schmidt claims that 'noticing' is essential for acquisition to take place, but it is not a sufficient condition for input that has been noticed in order to become intake. There are other factors which interact in this process and which are going to be discussed in Chapter Two (in Section 2.4 see 2.4.2).
All in all, the main objective of this research is to verify, through the comparison of the summaries produced after two different tasks, whether translation, as an elaborate linguistic process, can improve language performance of advanced undergraduate students. This comparison is based on the assumption that translation, as opposed to a reading comprehension activity, will create a stronger structural, linguistic, content representation in long-term memory, which may be then useful for the summarization.

This research is based on data obtained from 27 Brazilian advanced undergraduate students. The data were collected in two sessions. In the first session students read a text in English, generated a written translation into Portuguese and wrote a summary in English. In the second session, students read a text in English and then summarized the text in English as well.

Accordingly, this study aims at investigating the following research questions:

**General research question:**

1) Can translation, as an elaborate linguistic activity, contribute to language learning, and as such, to the improvement of language performance?

**Specific research questions:**

1) What are the similarities and differences between the summaries produced after the activities of reading - translating and a reading comprehension activity, in relation to their structure?

2) What are the similarities and differences between the summaries produced after the activities of reading - translating and a reading comprehension activity, in relation to their content and language?

3) In what ways does translation seem to influence foreign language production?
This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one addresses the scope of the topic to be investigated, presents a brief description of the work carried out, and introduces the research questions to be pursued.

Chapter two rounds off the review of the relevant literature, which is considered fundamental for the understanding of this research. This chapter is divided into four main sections: 1) the product and process of translation; 2) issues in second language writing; 3) summary writing; 4) a model of second language acquisition - the consciousness-raising hypothesis.

Chapter three sets forth the methodology used in the research. It presents the profile of the subjects, the kind of material used for data collection, the procedures followed in data collection, and the description of the data analysis.

Chapter four presents the results of the study, discusses them, and relates the findings to the literature. Chapter four also answers the three specific research questions stated.

The closing chapter - chapter five - embodies the final remarks of this work. This concluding chapter presents a tentative answer to the general research question, the limitations of the research, suggestions for further studies, and pedagogical implications of the findings.

In this research, the reader will be faced with various acronyms, which are identified below:

SLA - Second Language Acquisition

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

L1 - First language or mother tongue
L2 - Second or foreign language
C-R - Consciousness- raising
FL - Foreign or second language
TL - Target language
SL - Source language
TT - Target text
ST - Source text
T1 - Task one (reading, translation and summarization)
T2 - Task two (reading and summarization)

It also seems important to highlight the fact that, in this research, the term SLA is regarded as a term that relates to both untutored and tutored language acquisition (Ellis, 1997). The terms second language acquisition and foreign language learning are used indistinctively.
Chapter Two

Review of Literature

This chapter is a review of the literature related to this research, and is divided into the following sections: the process and the product of translation; issues in second language writing; summary writing; and a model of second language acquisition - the consciousness-raising hypothesis.

2.1. The process and the product of translation

This research approaches translation as a methodology to provide input for second language acquisition (SLA). It is therefore of great relevance to bring to the reader some basic concepts and pertinent information on translation studies as well as on the interface between translation and second language acquisition - tenets which are fundamental for the understanding of this study.

Translation involves the transference of meaning from one linguistic system (the source text) to another to create a new text, that is, the target text (henceforth, ST and TT). In this respect, there appear to be two important issues to be assessed: the process of transference of meaning and the product of this transference.

In light of this, Bell (1991) tries to enlarge the scope of translation by proposing three unique trends for translation as process (translating), as product (translated text) and as concept, which holds both the process and the product.

Translation as a product is a textual entity, and as such, it is unique (House, 1981). Similarly, Costa (1992) considers the TT as an “autonomous entity”, which is at
the same time connected to the ST (p.134). It is claimed that, in spite of the autonomy of the TT, it should be linked with the original text. This similitude is identified as equivalence\(^2\). Following the idea of “autonomous entity” and “uniqueness”, it may be posed that there will never be two exact translations of one text, even if they are produced by the same person. Every translation is open to change. Bell (1991) comments that rather than having the notion of a ‘perfect’ translation, the term “threshold of termination” should be more emphasized, since it refers to the writer’s feeling about the adequacy of the text with set goals.

According to several scholars, there is no complete equivalence in translation between ST and TT (Bell, 1991; Catford, 1967). These authors share similar ideas regarding equivalence. Catford (1967) remarks that it is unusual to have a full replacement by equivalents in the TT. By the same token, Bell (1991) contends that each language has its own particular characteristics of expressing meaning and culture. That is to say, translation from one language to another entails the modification of the forms of the target text. The fact that the translator is involved with two cultures and two languages is noteworthy (Bell, 1991). Bassnett (1980) points out that equivalence between two different languages cannot exist. Hence, it is just not possible to transfer aspects such as lexical, grammatical, syntactical and semantic to another system in which these peculiarities are distinct.

To some extent, when referring to non-equivalence between languages in translation, it deems the fact that translation also entails gaining and/or losing information from the original language (Bassnett, 1980; Bell, 1991). The translator is frequently faced with concepts and ideas which are particular to the source language,

\(^2\) In this research, the 'equivalence' term will not be discussed.
and difficult to render in the target language. Indeed, the translator should take into consideration 'the issue of translatability' of the text. Catford (1967) distinguishes two types of translatability, which he terms linguistic and cultural. Cultural translatability refers to the lack of the appropriate TL culture which may relate to the relevant situational feature of the SL text. The linguistic untranslatability, he claims, is related to the lexical or syntactical differences between the source language and the target language.

The translator is challenged to write a message to a different group from the ST trying to produce a new text, but carrying the meaning of the original text (Bell, 1991; Coulthard, 1992). Therefore, the translator is creating a new text. In other words, he/she is re-textualizing the ST (Costa, 1992; Coulthard, 1992) for an “ideal reader” (Coulthard, 1992, p.11). In light of this, House (1981) asserts that “translation is a creative process” (p.21).

The process of translation is viewed by Bell (1991) in the context of human information processing. In the course of translating, various processes are involved, from the act of reading and comprehending the source text to be translated to the writing of the translation. Bell posits that translating a text entails physical processes including sensation and the reception of stimuli provided by the senses along with the psychological processes of perception and memory.

In essence, the model of human information processing consists of three major storage systems: the sensory information store, the short-term store and the long-term store. The first step in the process is instigated by the sensory system, more specifically by sight, which receives the information. After that, the information is filtered, selected and very briefly held in a sensory store. At this time, that sensation becomes perception.
Afterwards, the perceived image is passed onto the short-term store, that is, the working memory, which analyses the features of the information and organizes them into a coherent pattern. It is only then that the information enters long-term store (Bell, 1991).

Figure 1 shows an adapted version of the model of the translation process. It reveals the transition of a SL text into a TL text which occurs within memory by means of "(1) the analysis of one language-specific text (the source language text) into a universal (non-language specific) semantic representation and (2) a synthesis of that semantic representation into a SL specific text (target text)” (Bell, 1991, p. 20).

Figure 1: Translation process: outline model (adapted from Bell, 1991)

So far, the reader has been catered with concepts of translation and perspectives of translation as a product and process - the process that the translator goes through, in order to achieve the product. Therefore, throughout the translating process, the
translator is involved in an intensive language elaboration which includes lexical, syntactical, structural, cultural processing, among others, of the source and the target languages. The intensive linguistic activity that the translator engages in may lead to the establishment of useful linguistic and structural information traces in memory, which may then be used in language production.

Following there are some considerations about the role of translation in second language acquisition.

2.1.1. Translation and second language acquisition

Translation, as a complex crosslingual activity, has an extensive account in SLA. In the last two decades, translation has been largely dismissed from the foreign language learning domain. Historically viewed over the last decades, translation has received little explicit support and much explicit condemnation in the L2 teaching literature.

From the 17th to the 19th century, translation was used to teach Latin Grammar. Even later, methodologists employed translation to teach foreign languages. At the beginning of the 19th century, the Grammar-Translation method became the basic approach to study a foreign language. A common exercise was to translate sentences from the L2 into the students' native language. From the 1900's through the 1950's, the Direct Method was popularly predicated into the language teaching field, and translation activities were not included. In the early 1950's and along the 1970's, with the appearance of the Audiolingual Method, translation was banned from language teaching/learning. Ever since, translation has been precluded from foreign language learning, and criticized by many scholars. However, in the 1970's, cognitive approaches
began a new trend of thought in the literature of second language acquisition. It was a direct reaction to the Audiolingual Method, which overemphasized mechanical drills, and repetition (House, 1981).

Therefore, cognitive psychology provided some theoretical and experimental support for a new approach, emphasizing mental processes and strategic learning in the development of linguistic knowledge. Learning models in cognitive psychology rejected behavioristic views. The mind was no longer viewed as a “blank slate” that could be estimulated by mechanical stimulus/response chains. On the contrary, the mind started to be regarded as an active agent in the acquisition and storage of knowledge (Hummel, 1995).

It seems very important to highlight here that the intention of this research is not to re-establish Grammar - Translation methods to our present discussions in SLA, but to generate positive cognitive insights for the use of translation in foreign language learning yielded by psycholinguistic paradigms. But before introducing these insights into cognitive theory, several aspects of the relation between translation and second language acquisition must be brought to the consideration of the reader.

There has been opposition along the 2nd half of this century (Friedrich, 1967; Goller, 1967, in House, 1981) to the use of translation in SL instruction. It is referred to as an artificial activity which has no relation to the acquisition of the four basic skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). However, Catford (1967) poses that it is not translation itself which is dangerous but rather the misuse of it.

It is very important to consider the L2 level of learners when dealing with translation and language acquisition (Hummel, 1995; Muskat-Tabakowska, 1973; Titford, 1983, 1985). It is said that beginners do not have sufficient linguistic
competence to perceive details in the foreign language. Researchers claim that this kind of activity fits best with advanced learners (Catford, 1967; House, 1991; Hummel, 1995; Muskat-Tabakowska, 1973; Titford, 1983). Catford (1967) admits that translation can be “an important means of refining one's knowledge of a foreign language at an advanced stage of learning” (p.17). Likewise, House (1981) suggests that it may develop both the receptive and productive aspects of learners’ communicative competence. The communicative competence of advanced-level students enables them to acquire, through translation, an overview of the equivalent relations between the two languages and cultures. With advanced pupils, translation may serve as a consolidating mechanism (Catford, 1967; Kern, 1994; Titford, 1985) of previous knowledge, and, as House (1981) remarks, “as a building stone for the acquisition of the foreign language” (p.224).

Translation is thus “an extension or alternative realization of what the learner already knows” (Titford, 1983, p.52). In L2 acquisition research, O’Malley, Chamot, Stewer-Manzares, Kupper and Russo (1985) interpret the use of translation in language acquisition as an activity in which L1 information may be used for the production of L2. Moreover, translation is considered as very advantageous if used in moderation (Muskat-Tabakowska, 1973).

Hence, translation should be used as appropriately as possible in language learning. House (1981), for instance, points out the importance of using contextualized texts. Hummel (1995) claims that if the material used by the learners is meaningful, that is, in accordance with learners’ needs and interests, it will tend to be learned more easily and more likely to be remembered for longer periods of time.

The skill of translating is different from the other basic linguistic skills. In fact,
Muskat-Tabakowska (1973) defines it as a "bilingual skill". Correspondingly, Campbell (1998) asserts that translation is essentially a bilingual act “when both languages are simultaneously in play” (p.22). By the same token, the direction of translation from L1 into L2 is acknowledged by this author not as a problematic, but as a means of acquiring the second language.

The direction to which it is being approached is another relevant feature of translation in the foreign language domain. Some scholars have been concerned with translation from the L1 into L2 (Hummel, 1995; Smith, 1996). Similarly, Goller (1967, in House, 1981) argues that translating from L2 to L1 involves a passive knowledge of the foreign language and reduces the influence of any active use of that foreign language. Nevertheless, there are others (Catford, 1967; Kern, 1994; Sweet 1964) who favor the direction into the native language. Catford (1967) claims that since learners are usually predisposed to transfer L1 habits into L2 which they are learning, translating back from L2 into the L1 seems to be less fraught with danger. Sweet (1964) poses that translation into the foreign language should be utilized only if and when the learner has already developed a thorough knowledge of the foreign language.

Basically, this sub-section has presented a short historical context of translation and some background considerations on its use in second language instruction.

To a great extent, there is not much explicit literature regarding the relation between translation and SLA. However, if translation is to be related to language learning, it should be brought into light by the analysis of psycholinguistic processes associated with translation and SLA (House, 1981; Hummel, 1995). This shall be the topic of the next sub-section.
2.1.2. Elaborateness of processing and the process of translation

Hummel (1995) proposes that the 'elaborateness of processing' view (Anderson, 1995) in memory research, supports the suggestion that translation may lead to a more elaborate, and therefore, more durable memory encoding than a single presentation of facts with unrelated information. It is claimed that the way material is studied can have a strong effect in how much it is going to be remembered (Anderson, 1995). Thus, the elaboration view is particularly relevant to an examination of the role of translation in language learning.

The model suggests that more elaborate encoding can lead to better memory. When the learner is required to formulate an equivalent sentence in another language, one is simultaneously creating a paired set of elaborations. It is said that the effort in processing information together with the eagerness in finding an 'equivalent' term, may additionally contribute to allowing the translation equivalent to be committed to memory. Therefore, an elaborated trace is characterized by additional information which allows the formation of an increased number of interconnections.

During the decoding process from the source language text and recoding into the target language text, the translator is involved in an intrinsic set of linguistic processes. Therefore, during these processes, a large amount of information (content, linguistic and structural) is being articulated, and tends to stay longer in memory. Information is stimulated for a longer period of time in working memory until the translator generates the appropriate linguistic form to be conjugated into the new text. This topic will be brought back in section 2.4, where the focus is on the consciousness-raising issue.

Thus, in this study, the usefulness of translation in the production of written
summaries will be tested. Although the focus of the study is not on writing theory as such, it is relevant to examine three issues concerning second language writing.

2.2. Issues in second language writing

The following section comprises three main issues in writing: 1) the writing process; 2) the effect of L1 on L2 writing; 3) some evidence of translation in L2 writing.

2.2.1. From the product to the process

In the past, writing research focused on the product. The processes of thinking, outlining, obtaining ideas, writing and rewriting were of no particular interest to researchers. The issues of the specific processes writers use in text production were ignored by researchers. (Connor, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1982). Emig (1971, in Zamel, 1982) described these past assumptions about writing as "naive". She conceived writing as a thinking and discovering process. After the first questioning of the research approach used, other researchers (Zamel, 1976 and Raimes, 1979, in Krapels, 1990) started to investigate how writers process information as they create their work.

Recently, writing has been seen as a recursive, problem-solving process (Zamel, 1983) - a process in which writers not only write, outline, select ideas, elaborate and rewrite with the readers in mind, but they also become readers of their own texts. They continuously compare the text produced with the one they had originally planned for their readers. Zamel comments that composing is "a non-linear exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (1983, p.165).
By conceiving writing as a dynamic routine, Flower and Hayes (1981) have advanced a model based on cognitive theory which focuses on the mental processes of the learners. This process-centered model is composed by three major units: task environment, the writer's long-term memory and the writing process. The task environment includes the space outside the writer, but which may influence the writing process. The writer's long-term memory is where the writer maintains stored knowledge, that is, declarative knowledge\(^3\) (Gagné, Yekovich C. & Yekovich F., 1993). The writing process contains three major fundamental elements: planning, translating and reviewing. These three parts of the process relate to procedural knowledge\(^4\), while the conceptual understanding of language, audience and topic of the subject matter concerns declarative knowledge (Gagné et al., 1993).

Planning is the part of the process in which the writer sets the goals for the task, generates ideas, and organizes them. Translating refers to the transformation of the ideas that are in the writer's mind into visual prints on paper. Reviewing is the step in which the writer becomes the reader of his own text, evaluates and revises the generated text to see if it fits the previously set goal. When it does not fit the goal, the writer tries to improve the inappropriate parts of the text in progress by going back and forth in his/her writing. These decisions of moving from one process to the other is done with the help of a monitor, which according to Flower and Hayes (1981) works as a "writing strategist"(p.374).

Writing has, therefore, been considered as a discovery and knowledge generator, in which goals and ideas set at the beginning of the process are changed, reordered, and

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\(^3\) Declarative knowledge refers to the information which we consciously know about.

\(^4\) Procedural knowledge is the knowledge of things we know how to do but which are not consciously known.
reorganized as the composing process develops (Connor, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1983).

2.2.2. The effect of L1 on L2 writing

By analyzing the findings of second language composition research (Lay, 1982; Zamel, 1982), it becomes clear that first language composition research sheds light on the second language composition research. That is to say, that second language composition specialists have found correlation between first and second language writing.

Nevertheless, this relationship is controversial. For example, traditional EFL writing instructors considered the use of L1 in L2 text production as negative. It is claimed that “L1 inhibits acquisition of L2 structures, and interferes with the generation of L2 structures” (Friedlander, 1990, p.109). This negative perspective of the effects of L1 on L2 acquisition might have its routes in the Audiolingual method, which tried to exclude L1 from SLA.

However, several studies (Cumming, 1989; Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990; Mohan & Lo, 1985; Raimes, 1982 and Jones, 1982 in Zamel, 1983; Zamel, 1983) have shown that there are similarities in the L1 and L2 composing process. They point out that learners, to some extent, may be prone to transfer writing knowledge, as well as language abilities and strategies, whether proper or inadequate, across languages.

Research has shown that learners experience similar difficulties when composing in L1 and L2 (Jones, 1982, in Zamel, 1983; Whalen & Ménard, 1995). Indeed, there are also some positive factors brought into light by some researchers (Cummings, 1989; Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1982; Zamel, 1983; Whálen & Menard, 1995).
which evidence that writing abilities in L1 may favor L2 writers.

Lay (1982) observed that her Chinese subjects used their native language strategies to accomplish the English task. However, for her, the use of L1 should be reduced as learners acquire linguistic knowledge. Although Edelsky's study (1982) was directed to the final product itself, it revealed that learners' knowledge about writing in their L1 may help rather than interfere in L2 text production. For Zamel (1982), L2 composing processes indicate that L1 learners process-oriented writing instruction might also be effective for teaching L2 writing, and that L2 learners compose like L1 learners. In a latter study, Zamel (1983) concluded that “ESL writers who are ready to compose and express their ideas use strategies similar to those of the native speakers of English” (p.203).

Therefore, there is evidence that writers, excellent or weak, experience transfer of writing abilities and strategies from their L1 to L2. However, it is not easy to define whether writing problems can be referred to as a result of L1 writing shortcomings or the influence of the interlanguage of the writer.

2.2.3. Some evidence of translation in second language writing

Research on the use of L1 when composing in the L2 becomes even more interesting when related to interlingual translation5 before or during the writing process. There are various studies which report subjects making use of translation using the different purposes that are involved in composing.

Cumming (1989) reported that his basic writers used L1 to integrate content rather

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5 According to Jakobson (1966, in Bassnett, 1980, p.14), interlingual translation or translation proper is “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language”.

than the ‘language topic’, while the expert writers employed translation to generate content and verify the appropriate word. So to speak, there was evidence of students’ native language interfering in their usual processes of decision-making while producing the text. Likewise, Zamel (1982) found her most proficient ESL writer translating into English during her L2 writing process. Similarly, in Whalen and Ménard’s (1995) study, two of the most strategically proficient writers translated from one language to the other. They translated in order to accomplish pragmatic and textual objectives, while maintaining the processing of information at the three levels of discourse (linguistic, pragmatic and textual). The less strategic proficient writer was not able to concentrate on upper-level processing. He/she translated in order to generate adequate linguistic structures.

Research developed by Swain and Lapkin (1995) envisaged that production in the learners’ second language could lead learners to noticing gaps in their interlanguage system. Some of the research participants, classified as the most proficient, applied translation in their draft phase of an article. Friedlander (1990) has pointed out that learners use of translation from L1 into L2 might be positive when the topic knowledge is in the L1. These researchers remark that, the way in which students unfold their doubts while producing the target language text may foster language learning.

Concerning language proficiency, Cumming’s (1989) finding does not seem to corroborate with some other studies. For him, second language proficiency was only an additive factor for writing performance, and it did not directly affect the writing process. Kirkland and Saunders (1991) and Johns and Mayes (1990), for instance, claim that second language proficiency plays a major role in second language writing.

Nevertheless, Kirkland and Saunders (1991) and Cumming (1989) agree in respect to
the influence of the amount of cognitive load required for the tasks. Cumming's (1989) results also showed that cognitively demanding tasks (summary tasks) produce significantly different behaviors from a less cognitively demanding one (letter task). In this study, summary writing is used as a task related to language processing and memory storage.

2.3. Summary Writing

Summarizing, as a writing activity, is a cognitively demanding task (Cumming, 1989) different from many other composing tasks. Most other writing tasks require careful planning of content and structure, generation of core ideas and related details, and continuous shifting between these processes. Summary writing involves transformations of ideas based on already planned and organized discourse. Kirkland and Saunders (1991) define summarizing as a "highly complex, recursive reading-writing activity involving constraints that can impose an overwhelming cognitive load on students' information processing" (p.105), which should be evaluated through its structure and content. The following section will address firstly, the factors which might affect summary writing, and then it will present different ways of assessing it.

2.3.1. General factors affecting summarizing

Kirkland and Saunders (1991), Hare (1992), and Hidi and Anderson (1986) claim that external and internal variables interact, facilitating the task of summary writing or making it more difficult. According to Johns and Mayes (1990) and Kirkland and Saunders (1991) language proficiency is one of the internal constraints that might
influence summarizing. The question of whether and how L2 proficiency might influence L2 writers' discourse does not seem to be explicit in the literature.

Besides L2 proficiency, there are also other internal elements that might constraint writers in their production of a summary task, such as schemata, affective barriers, cognitive abilities and metacognitive skills. Some researchers reveal that students must have appropriate content schemata (prior knowledge of the topic) and formal schemata available (knowledge of the organizational pattern of the task) in order to be able to comprehend the material. Prior knowledge assists comprehension and facilitates the summarizing activity (Hare, 1992; Hare & Brochardt, 1984; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991).

Among the external hindrances, which include purpose and audience of the task, characteristics of the task, the features, discourse community conventions, nature of the material to be summarized, time constraints, as well as the working environment can impose an overwhelming cognitive load on students' working memory, thereby affecting the performance (Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Kirkland & Saunders, 1992). Hare (1992) specifies these constraints as both text and task variables.

According to Hare (1992) and Hidi and Anderson (1986), text variables include length of the text, genre and complexity of the material to be summarized.

The first of these text variables is related to the length of the original text. Research in summarizing reveals that the length of the original material appears to have a significant role in determining the operations that must be done to develop a good summary. It is posited that longer texts require higher processing demands from the summarizer in both evaluating and deciding which are the important ideas and which is the irrelevant information, among other operations. In fact, shorter texts are usually
easier to summarize, because the ideas are usually more related one another than in longer texts.

Concerning to what extent genre of the original text can affect summarization, it was found that it is easier summarizing a narrative than summarizing an expository text since the latter carries more complex and abstract ideas, and is also frequently not as linear and not as organized as the former (Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Taylor, 1982, in Golden, Haslett & Gauntt, 1988).

The complexity of the target material makes reference to “low-frequency vocabulary, elaborate sentence structure, abstractness, unfamiliarity of concepts and ideas, and inappropriate or vague organization” (Hidi & Anderson, 1986, p. 476). As a whole, all of these variables should have a binding on the methodology or choice of text to be translated. For Brown and Day (1983) complex texts require more conscious selection of the important information and more operations are involved, which makes them more difficult to be condensed.

Other variables that can influence the production of the summary are task procedures. They are related to students' access to the text to be summarized, restrictions on the length of the text to be produced and the purpose for summarizing.

In relation to the purpose of the task, Hidi and Anderson (1986) identify two distinct types of summaries: reader-based and writer-based summary. The former refers to those produced for an audience, and the latter is the summary produced for the summarizer him/herself. Hidi and Anderson (1986), Hare (1992), Kirkland and Saunders (1991) pose that the audience can have an effect on the way the writer approaches the text. In this present research, learners will produce a reader-based summary.
Concerning the availability of the text, it seems to be a rather dubious matter. Summarizing with access to the text appears to give the writer more freedom to go back and forth to the reading, both to strengthen comprehension and to evaluate ideas more elaborately. Besides this, summarizers also have a reduced load on memory. Nevertheless, having access to the text might tempt the summarizer to copy from the original more than actively processing the information.

When the task of summarizing is done without learner's access to the text, students are summarizing from memory, that is, all propositions have to be retrieved from it. This procedure leads to a very active and deep mental activity of information processing. Therefore, chunks of language are formed, and may interact with prior knowledge, and after entertained in working memory, may be stored in long-term retention.

The results of Hidi's first study (1984b, 1985 in Hidi & Anderson, 1986) also revealed that summaries which are written without the access to the text, may lead to a more active type of cognitive performance. Consequently, it increases long-term storage, although it may also cause forgetfulness of ideas. The absence might also lead to a reduction of transformations and reorganization of content (Hidi & Anderson, 1986).

Kleiman and Terzi (1985) carried out a study in which one group of students had access to the original text and the other did not. In the research, the students who had access to the text showed certain inconsistency in selecting detailed material in the text, and as a consequence, they did not delete correct irrelevant information. These students, when condensing the texts were dependent on the originals, following the paragraphing order or the structural pattern of the text. Conversely, the group who did
not have access to the text, tried to establish a topic sentence which helped them integrate information from the different paragraphs, and organize it differently from the original.

In relation to length restriction, it is claimed that nonrestricted summary length facilitates the cognitive demands required for summarizing. Restricting the length of the summaries might influence the summarizers' processes of selecting and condensing ideas. Hare (1992) comments that length restriction seems to require more from students in order to select the appropriate information and reduce it correctly.

Hidi and Anderson (1986) comment that when learners receive space limitations to produce the summary, more operations like condensation, transformation and integration are involved in order to produce an adequate summary. In other words, when space for producing the summary is restricted, learners are forced to higher levels of cognitive processing.

Based on the above information, the analysis of the data for this research will concentrate on the length, paragraphing, sequence of ideas, and titling of the summaries. In the following sub-section, the different ways of analyzing summaries will be presented.

2.3.2. Summarization Assessment

Summarizing involves a variety of cognitive basic processes. Kintsh and Van Dijk (1978) developed a model which describes the mental operations involving summary production. This model consists of four major rules (deletion, selection, generalization and construction) that operate interactively on the propositions of the input text (microstructure) in order to identify the important ideas, which form the macrostructure
of the text. Therefore, the macrostructure is said to be developed during comprehension processes. This model suggests that readers move on through various cycles in attempting to identify the different levels of importance in a text, and thus, build a macrostructural representation. Overall, the macrostructure is fundamental for the concept of main idea (Carriedo & Alonso-Tapia, 1996; Hare, 1992; Williams, 1988). It may be relevant now to envisage that titles can also express the macrostructure of a text because they orient the reader to the relevant information of the text (Guimarães, 1990).

Van Dijk (1983, in Golden et al, 1988; Seidlhofer, 1995) has also developed two other categories which reflect superstructures of orientation and contextual information. **Orientation** provides “a general statement of purpose” brought by the writer, usually at the beginning of the text. **Context** provides background information about a particular issue.

In attempting to build the macrostructure, readers abstract the explicit propositions from the text, and then infer propositions which are necessary to perceive cohesion in the text. Concerning cohesion, Halliday and Hasan (1976, in Kaplan & Grabe, 1996) characterize it as a network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text. These relations organize and, to some extent create a text. Cohesion is the means available in the surface forms of the text to signal relationships that exist between sentences of clausal units in the text (Kaplan & Grabe, 1996). The following five main cohesive devices are identified: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. For the purpose of the analysis of this research, we focuses on the use of conjunctions in the summaries.

Kintsch and Van Dijk’s (1978) macro-rules have been widely used to assess summaries, and many researchers (Brown & Day, 1983; Johns & Mayes, 1990;
Kozminsky & Graetz, 1986; Winograd, 1984) have adapted their scoring procedures on Kintsch and Van Dijk’s model.

Brown and Day (1983), for instance, identified six basic rules of summarization: deletion of trivial and redundant information, substitution of a superordinate term for a list of items and actions, selection of a topic sentence, and invention of one if none is available.

Later, Winograd (1984) adapted Kintsch and Van Dijk’s (1978) macro-operations into four broad categories: reproductions, combinations, run-on combinations and inventions. Assessment of these transformations was based on punctuated sentences. *Reproductions* - instances where subjects reproduced individual sentences of the original in produced text; *combinations* - instances where subjects combined two or more sentences in the original passage into one sentence in the summary; *run-on combinations* - transformations in which elements from several sentences in the original had been included in the protocol but in a less organized fashion than those transformations scored as combinations, and *inventions* - where subjects produced individual sentences which conveyed the meaning of a paragraph, several paragraphs or the whole passage.

Although there is a lack of precise definition about the structural quality of summaries, there seems to be some similarities across researches. According to Sherrard (1989), Brown and Day’s (1983) mature strategy and Kintsch and Van Dijk’s construction rules echoed in Winograd’s combination and invention transformations, respectively. By the same token, Garner and McCaled (1985, in Sherrard, 1989) have found that their integration criterion is similar to Winograd’s combinations and therefore, akin to Brown and Day’s mature strategy.
Kozminsky and Graetz (1986) have also applied Kintsch and Van Dijk’s macro-rules. They have divided the rules into sub-categories: selection - copy and paraphrase; abstraction - generalization and combination; cohesion - organization and coordination; addition - specification and evaluation. Cohesion concerns the organization of the text. 

*Organization* is related to the use of words and phrases to signal the structure of the text. It describes the structural features of the text, for instance: “The first part describes...the second part describes...”. *Coordination* is related to the use of words and phrases such as “the writer says...” that maintain the flow of the summary and its cohesion. Kozminsky and Graetz (1986) use words, phrases and sentences to identify their categories.

Johns and Mayes (1990) have also adapted Kintsch and van Dijk’s classification of operations, and also Winograd’s transformation operations. The scale they developed consisted of two general categories: correct replications and distortions. Replications were further divided into reproductions, combinations and macro-operations. Distortions were further divided into distortions at the idea unit level, distorted combinations, and personal comments about the subject. In order to code these categories, these researchers applied Kroll’s (1977, in Johns, 1985) concept of idea-unit in order to determine boundaries between main ideas. The idea-units will be the coding system for analyzing some categories in this present research, therefore they will be presented again in the coming chapter. But before moving to Chapter Three, a model of second language acquisition will be addressed in the following sub-section. This model will review perspectives in second language acquisition research which are fundamental for the understanding of the purpose of the study - how translation, as a learning process, may lead to foreign language learning and then be used for the improvement of language production.
2.4. A model of second language acquisition - a consciousness-raising hypothesis

This section consists of the following sub-topics: role of consciousness in SLA; the noticing hypothesis; automatic and controlled processing of information in language production.

2.4.1. Role of consciousness in second language acquisition

Research in second language acquisition has sought to investigate what sort of input can help foreign language learners to develop language and communicative competence in the target language. Thus, the role of input and manner of providing it have been among the main challenges of FL teachers.

A central issue in the FL teaching debate lately has been the consciousness-raising issue (hereafter, C-R). It is claimed that there is insufficient data to conclude that SLA occurs with or without awareness. Indeed, there is a great controversy concerning the role of conscious and unconscious processes in SLA.

Some researchers take the stance that learners do not need to be consciously paying attention to linguistic forms in order to acquire them. Krashen (1981) for instance, dismisses the importance of grammar instruction for the development of L2 fluency. In fact, Krashen believes that language acquisition can occur either through conscious processes (learning) or unconscious processes (acquisition). According to his conception, acquiring and learning a language are two totally independent types of knowledge. ‘Learned knowledge’- grammar instruction - requires explicit instruction, where the learner is directed towards the formal features of the L2. However, this knowledge can not be converted into ‘acquired knowledge’.
By favoring a purely communicative approach (Fotos, 1993; Schmidt, 1990), Krashen (1981) advocates that receiving large amounts of 'comprehensible input' and getting involved in communicative settings which are focused on meaning are the basic conditions for acquisition to take place. It seems that Krashen believes that comprehensible and communicative input are the only and necessary conditions for input to become intake (input which is actually helpful for the learner).

Although not dismissing the importance of communicative activities for L2 learning, other researchers have proposed that formal instruction as C-R on SLA confers advantages over implicit learning (Ellis, 1997; Fotos, 1993; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 1995; Sharwood Smith, 1993; Skehan, 1998; Van Patten, 1990, 1994; Van Patten & Cadierno, 1993).

Skehan (1998) makes important comments concerning implementing consciousness-raising as an activity in the classroom. It is posited that "although it is unlikely that new language will be introduced through C-R activities, they will make restructuring more likely, could mobilize and recycle language, and might also change the processing load that the task contains (p.139)". He contents that C-R activities can be used in several ways to reduce cognitive complexity. What is needed therefore, is to consider approaches which, in the context of meaningful communication, draw attention to form, in more inductive ways, or raise consciousness.

In this respect, Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985), Harley (1995) and Jourdenais (1995) agree with Skehan (1998) suggesting that noticing might be triggered through different ways, and therefore, established in storage which contributes to the acquisition process. One of the ways to encourage learners to noticing the features of the target language is through form-oriented instruction. But various other techniques of
input enhancement have been developed in an attempt to promote noticing of the target forms. Jourdenais (1995) for instance, proposes that textual enhancement\textsuperscript{6} promotes noticing of the target forms. Harley (1994) presents that the written language input is a rich source of information for awareness-raising. He considers the importance of stimulating learners with different kinds of consciousness-raising activities.

Another way of raising learners' awareness of input is through the methodology employed in this study, that is, translation. In this research, translation might be considered as another way of manipulating input, and therefore, facilitate noticing of features of the target language. In the process of translating, learners will be processing information in short-term memory and long term memory through decoding the source text and encoding the text into the target language.

According to Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985), C-R seems to facilitate the development of linguistic competence leading learners to increased awareness of features of the target language. The term 'consciousness-raising' adopted by Sharwood Smith (1985), is replaced by 'input enhancement' (1993), which he considers a safer expression that avoids the misleading concept of 'consciousness'. Sharwood Smith (1993) shows that 'input enhancement' refers to "teacher-induced or externally induced input enhancement" (p.176). 'Input enhancement' implies that the teacher cannot control learners attention or consciousness, but he/she can manipulate the linguistic input by enhancing it in various ways. That should therefore encourage learners to focus on form and notice some particular feature. Hence, the claim is that such manipulation of the input may, though not directly nor automatically, permit changes in the developing of the interlanguage system.

\textsuperscript{6} Textual enhancement is related to manipulation of input through typography and typographic cues in written texts (Jourdenais, 1995).
Towards a more communicative perspective, Long (1991, in Alanen, 1995) has considered the effect of a focus on form in SLA. He has suggested that instruction that brings learners' attention to language forms within a communicative setting might have an advantageous result on the rate of acquisition. It might also improve the level of the learner's SL proficiency. Previously, Long (1988, in Skehan, 1998) had already advocated that focus on form is important. He had suggested that "form needs to be important in the instructional material, and in the learner's mind, and that without these considerations, fossilization and slower progress tend to be found" (p.124).

Following a similar vein of thought on the consciousness-raising issue as a pedagogical device for language study, Ellis (1997) favors the position that formal instruction on language acquisition leads to learners' awareness of particular features of the target language and formation of explicit representations of what they are taught. Once C-R has been raised through formal instruction learners continue to remain aware of the feature and notice it in a subsequent communicative setting. Fotos and Ellis (1991) content that when learners know the grammatical features of the language they are more likely to notice them and use them implicitly. It is assumed that the acquisition of materials taught occurs only if learners are ready to integrate the L2 feature into their interlanguage system.

Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) view input processing as involving "those strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension" (p.226). Their study suggests that form-focused instruction that emphasizes input processing may be very effective. Processing instruction may help L2 learners with their comprehension and production. Van Patten (1990) has investigated to what extent it is possible to pay attention to form during input processing and
comprehend the input. The results suggested that humans have a limited capacity of paying conscious attention to syntactic and semantic processing simultaneously. Van Patten (1990) agrees with Schmidt (1990) by saying that second languages are acquired by raising learner’s awareness of linguistic forms in the input.

The role of learner’s awareness in SLA has been seen in a different viewpoint by Schmidt (1990, 1994, 1995). Schmidt (1994) claims that both conscious and unconscious processes are related to second language learning. While acknowledging the existence of implicit knowledge, he rejects the assumption that new forms can enter long-term memory (LTM) even when learners are not paying attention.

If learners focus attention to the formal features of language input and perceive the gaps between these features and those of their interlanguage, they may develop linguistic competence (Schmidt 1990). That information may enter in the long-term system.

In an opposite position to Krashen (1981), Schmidt (1990) argues that language learning requires some degree of consciousness. This means that awareness of the form of input at the level of ‘noticing’ is necessary before material can be incorporated into a developing interlanguage system and subsequent SLA. It is argued that awareness might enable more efficient solutions to the matching problem, noticing the gap between one’s current language system and the language one encounters. It is suggested that when learners go on to notice the feature in a subsequent communicative input, after formal instruction, acquisition of that feature may occur. In this case, noticing performs an interfacing function between the development of explicit knowledge of a feature through formal instruction and the eventual acquisition of that feature- the development of implicit knowledge. Van Patten (1994) has, however, claimed that explicit
instruction is more likely to facilitate L2 acquisition of some features more than others.

2.4.2. The noticing hypothesis

There have been claims that SLA requires noticing. It has also been suggested that instruction may lead learners to identify the differences between their interlanguage and the target language (Schmidt, 1990).

Although there is not enough evidence to affirm whether or not conversion of input to intake requires conscious registration and focal attention, there seems to be no disagreement that noticing, in the sense of being aware of certain features, requires focal-attentive processing (Jourdenais, 1995). McLaughlin (1990) comments that evidence from experimental psychology indicates that memory requires attention and awareness. Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (1995) states that “what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning” (p.20). It is claimed that learning requires awareness at the time of learning. It is important to stress that the absence of report is not evidence for a failure in noticing. For Schmidt (1990), noticing is somehow manifested by attention to linguistic features, which is important for storage in memory.

Working memory, which is the basis for attention allocation, must be the area in which noticing takes place. It is where knowledge is encoded and/or retrieved from LTM. That is to say, it is the place where language processing (comprehension and production) occurs, as well as other processes which benefit from consciousness in the sense of awareness. Hence, noticing enhances awareness and its outcome is available for rehearsal, modification, and establishment in long-term memory (Robinson, 1995).

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7 For Chaudron (1985), the notion of intake refers to “the mediating process between the target language available to learners as input and the learners'internalized set of L2 rules and strategies for second language development” (p.1).
According to Schmidt (1990), the noticeability of linguistic elements is a necessary condition for effective input processing to take place, however, it is not a sufficient condition. Noticing depends on several other factors among them: frequency of the elements in the system, perceptual salience, instruction, processing ability, readiness and task demands. Schmidt contents that the more frequent a form in the target language input the more likely it is to be noticed, and then becoming integrated in the interlanguage system. The second factor is perceptual saliency, which has to do with "how pertinent a form is in input" (Skehan, 1998, p.48). The third feature that influences noticing is instruction, in a way that it can make more salient the less obvious aspects of the input. The other three features are related to the learners' individual factors which might influence how input is processed. The processing ability concerns the learner's ability to deal with different forms in input.

Skehan (1998) asserts that "some people are more effective input processors than others and are more able to notice for given input new forms which may be then integrated into the language development" (p.50). For instance, Van Patten (1990) claims that since learners have a limited attentional capacity for processing information, it is unlikely that early and intermediate stage learners pay much attention to form in the input. Schmidt's fifth influencing factor on noticing is readiness to notice, which is the learner's prevailing condition of interlanguage system. The sixth feature is called task demands. For Schmidt (1990), task demands somehow determine what is noticed. Task demands might implicate in overloading the limited capacity system in a way that noticing is less likely.

Therefore, Schmidt (1990) has stressed that consciousness, in information processing theories, is associated in one way or another with the notion of a limited
capacity system. More about this topic will be discussed in the following sub-section.

2.4.3. Automatic and controlled information processing in language production

As it was mentioned in the sub-section above, noticing takes place in short-term memory (STM), which is considered to be of limited capacity, requiring conscious effort and control. STM is also likely to be serial in operation. The long-term memory (LTM) system, in turn, has a large capacity, can operate in parallel and does not always require conscious control. Recently, the concept of STM has been changed to working memory (WM), a system which contains "rehearsal loops, and also a central executive component which is concerned with the allocation of a limited amount of attention" (Skehan, 1998, p.44). Working memory also includes those informations from long-term memory that are 'currently in a state of high activation' (Anderson, 1995) and which may then relate to new material that has just been encountered.

Attention capacity is one of the fundamental factors for learning to take place. At least some of the learner's focal attention to specific structures of the target language must be seen as a necessary condition for SLA to proceed (Schmidt, 1990). Nevertheless, the source of attentional capacity is limited. Van Patten (1990) emphasizes that learners can only simultaneously process meaning and form if comprehension as a skill is automatized, thus releasing attention for a focus on form.

Humans are limited capacity information processors, that is, they have different processing capacities for various mental operations: either a task requires a relatively large amount of processing capacity, or it proceeds automatically and demands little processing energy. McLaughlin, Rossman and McLeod (1983), who prefer avoiding the terms conscious and unconscious processes, content that humans process their mental
operations through automatic and controlled processing.

Controlled processes demand attention, but are not always accessible to conscious perception. These processes command the transfer of information from WM (STM) to LTM systems. They may occur with or without awareness, depending on the learner's focus of attention. Moreover, because humans have a limited capacity of processing information, only so much attention can be given at one time to the various components of complex tasks (McLaughlin et al., 1983; McLaughlin, 1990).

Automatic processes are linked to long-term memory systems, and take time to develop and become established. Not like controlled processes, automatic processes usually do not require attention, and are not available to consciousness most of the time, attention is then freed for other components of the tasks and a previously difficult task becomes possible (Mcloughlin, 1981; McLaughlin et al., 1983). Automatic processing is associated with "the activation of certain nodes in memory every time the appropriate inputs are present" (McLaughlin et al., 1983, p. 139). This utilizes a relatively permanent set of associated connections in long term store. As learners' language system develops, language acquisition will become a meaningful restructuring and rearticulation of this knowledge system. The continuous restructuring is essential for achieving automaticity, which in turn is associated with gaining mastery of the language (McLaughlin, 1981).

Furthermore, Hummel (1995) claims that information will be processed more effectively if the material is meaningful. It is claimed that if information is organized by the mind into meaningful units, it will tend to be learned and recalled more easily. The meaningfulness will create cognitive networks, memory traces and additional routes that help in the retrieval of information. These associations are referred to by Anderson
(1995) as elaborations, more explicitly as "elaborateness of processing".

Quoting Anderson (1995) "when subjects elaborate, they create additional ways of recalling from memory what they are supposed to remember" (p.207). He claims that the more elaborated the process of creating a long-term memory record to store information, the better the chance for it to be retained longer. The elaboration concept is important when considering the role of translation in language learning because it involves interconnections among information. In the translation process, structures from the one language and the structures of another language are interconnected to match the original information, resulting in elaborated set of memory traces.

To sum up, we may view both translation and writing, as complex processes of decision-making. Both processes require a great amount of cognitive effort in order to achieve the goal. Assuming that the greater the cognitive demand the better, we may hypothesize that subjects will produce different summaries after having translated the text into their native language as opposed to just reading for comprehension. They will have elaborated a large amount of information and linguistic structures. Subjects will go through a process in which they will use their mental representation of the text in order to elaborate their summaries. Translation can consequently help to establish a representation of features of the input text. This representation as well as the intense elaboration that the process of translating entails may favor memory retrieval and provide the appropriate language to be used in summary writing. In the present chapter important issues concerning the idea of this research were discussed. In the following chapter the methodology developed for this study will be described.
Chapter Three

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether translation as a learning process can assist SLA. The analysis is based on the comparison of data obtained from students who performed two different tasks (a reading-translation-summarizing activity and a reading-summarizing activity), in two sessions. This, as well as the profile of the subjects involved in the research, the materials used for data collection, adopted procedures, and data analysis are also presented in this chapter.

3.1. Subjects:

The subjects of this study were 27 undergraduate students from the English Language Department at Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina - UFSC and Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul - UFRGS. These subjects were selected from a group of 52 undergraduate students. Some of the subjects were excluded from the sample because they missed one of the sessions of data collection, others had traveled extensively to English speaking countries.

Participants were enrolled in 6th and 8th phase (two groups of each phase) in the two institutions mentioned above. The subjects were 23 female and 4 male Brazilian students. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the subjects by institution, courses and level. Students included in the study were considered by their institutions as advanced and had been exposed to from 450 to 520 hours of EFL instruction.
The advanced level was basically chosen for two reasons: firstly, translation requires advanced linguistic competence in comparing two languages, both semantically and syntactically. Van Patten’s study (1990), for example, has revealed that in the early stages of acquisition, subjects have difficulty paying attention to form and meaning at the same time when processing linguistic input. Secondly, according to Zamel (1983) beginners rarely utilize writing as a cyclical process of generating and integrating ideas. Hence, their lack of language competence might interfere in their writing production.

Table 1 - Distribution of subjects according to their institution, course and level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>COURSE AND # OF SUBJECTS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Licenciatura Inglês</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Licenciatura Inglês-Port.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bacharelado Tradução</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFRGS</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFRGS</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFSC</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The UFSC research students were the first ones to perform the tasks for the study. Since the activities fitted into the normal classroom activities, it was not disclosed that the data would be used in a research project. It was thought that this would improve the ecological validity of the survey. However, with the UFRGS students, the approach was different. Due to the singularity of the task and the instructor’s suggestion, the students were told they would participate in a research study. The researcher was flexible and adapted the research according to the available groups. The students reacted in a normal way towards the activities. Both groups were told they would be graded on their work.
The reason for including subjects from the two institutions was that, neither of the institutions had a significant group of advanced learners available. By using a larger group of students, the results would be more meaningful and they could have a better generalizability. All subjects of this study were accustomed to classroom writing activities, and some had already received direct instruction on summarizing. When first interviewing the lecturers about the students, they declared that the participants had been practicing writing since the first stages of their academic curriculum, and from phase 6 on, they increased their practice in writing, working with different genres, including summary writing.

3.2. Text materials and procedures:

3.2.1: Materials:

From a range of texts available, the researcher asked three judges, all graduate MA students, to select the most adequate texts for the two tasks taking into account some of the following criteria: 1) factual information of general interest; 2) the length of the texts; 3) adequate vocabulary and linguistic structure for the subjects performing the tasks. Two texts were then selected by the researcher: "The Search for a World Language" and "Friends of the Earth". They were taken from the Encyclopedia Our Wonderful World and from a leaflet distributed by Friends of the Earth, respectively. Both texts were photocopied from the original sources, and no adaptation was made in the texts neither in the format nor in their content. The texts had 299 and 261 words, respectively.

The students received the following materials in the first session: a text, and two answer sheets with instructions for the reading, translation and summarization tasks.
The instructions for the first session were the following: “You have received a text which you should read as carefully as possible and then translate it into Portuguese. When you finish, raise your hand and you will receive the next activity, related to the content of the text. If you have any questions about vocabulary or language structure, you may ask your teacher or the researcher for clarification” (Appendix A).

As students finished translating, the teacher collected the source text and its translation and gave the students the second part of the task. The instructions read as follows: “Now that you have translated the text, make a summary of the same text in English. Try to make a grammatically accurate summary, however remember that the meaningfulness and information of your text will be considered as the most important qualities in the evaluation. So, try to be as meaningful and complete as possible, as if you were writing a summary for someone who has urgent need of the information contained in the text but does not have access to it” (Appendix B).

The second session was a reading for comprehension and summarization task. Therefore, the material for this session consisted of a text which contained instructions for the first activity (reading), and the answer sheet with instructions for the second activity (summarization). The instructions for the first one read as follows: “The information in the text below will be the basis for the next activity. However, you will return the text to the teacher before you begin the activity. Thus, it is important that you read the text as many times as necessary for good comprehension, asking the teacher any questions you wish about vocabulary or language structure. As soon as you have finished reading, raise your hand and you will receive the next activity” (see Appendix C).

As subjects finished the reading activity, they returned the text to the instructor,
who would give them the answer sheet with the second activity, which read as follows:

"Now that you have read the text, make a summary of the same text in English. Try to make a grammatically accurate text, but have in mind that the meaningfulness and information of your summary will be considered the most important qualities in the evaluation. Therefore, try to be as meaningful and complete as possible as if you had to write this text to someone who needs the information, but does not have access to it" (Appendix D).

3.2.2: Procedures:

3.2.2.1: Pilot Study:

In order to develop an appropriate survey instrument for this research, the researcher conducted a pilot study. The tasks were performed by six students from the 7th semester. They were from the Secretariado Bilingüe Course at UFSC. The group was selected because they were considered quite advanced. The subjects had previous training in translation but it was not clear whether they had previous experience in summarizing activities.

In the first session, the subjects took about 50 minutes to complete the reading, the translation, and the summarization activity. In the second session, subjects took about 15 minutes to do the reading and the summarization activity. The pilot study followed the same procedures as the study itself, and subjects were aware that they were taking part in a study. Moreover, both sessions were held at UFSC by the researcher herself. As participants were volunteers, the researcher organized the sessions according to individual students’ availability. Consequently there were sessions of one or two students. After each subject had finished the task, to complete the pilot study, and as a
matter of control for the experimenter, each subject was asked a few questions to ensure task feasibility and validity. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix E.

The pilot study was a helpful exercise. It confirmed the adequacy of the content of the texts, the level of difficulty, the time available for the tasks and appropriateness of vocabulary. Other than vocabulary questions (though very few), it was not clear whether the summaries should be written in English or Portuguese. It was also noticed that pilot study participants started translating immediately, whether they had read the whole text or not. The above information contributed to improve the survey instrument.

3.2.2.2: The study:

The study consisted of subjects performing two different tasks in two classroom sessions. For the first session, subjects were required to read a text in English, generate a written translation into Portuguese and summarize it in English (T1, henceforth). After subjects finished the translation activity, the researcher collected the text and the translation and provided the next activity answer sheet.

For the second session, the participants were asked to read a text in English, and write a summary of it in English as well (T2, henceforth). Also in this session, the texts were collected as soon as the participants were ready for the following activity (summarization).

Therefore, for both summarization activities, subjects did not have access to the texts. The researcher wanted to check whether the summaries produced after translation would be different from the summaries produced after the reading comprehension activity. If learners have to produce a text after the input material has been taken away from them, all propositions have to be retrieved from memory; this most likely leads to
an active mental processing of information. It has been said that "chunks may have been formed, schemata retrieved or recreated, and, most importantly, both preceding and subsequent information related to any given idea may have been stored" (Hidi & Anderson, 1986, p.477).

In the present research, there was no restriction in terms of length of the summaries students should produce. Hare (1992) comments that non-restriction of length of summary writing may facilitate processing demands, while length restriction has a straight relation with the important ideas to include in the text and the transformations of these ideas.

The tasks were the same for all subjects, but the texts were different. The researcher was careful in distributing them randomly. Then, while one half of the students received Text A, the other half received Text B since this practice appears to avoid or reduce text type or content influencing the results. In order to have a better control over the distribution of the texts, the researcher prepared a chart, so that all subjects would work with two texts. This control was expected to be useful mainly in the second session, when the students would receive a different text to read. Thus, as students were handing in the translation activity, the researcher wrote down their names in the chart, and the appropriate text (see Appendix F).

Although the time for the tasks was not formally limited, the researcher could observe that students took an average of 50 minutes for the reading, translating and summarizing activities, and about 20 minutes for the reading and summarizing activities. It is extremely important to consider the time differential in this study. Surely it was expected that the translation task would take longer and that students would spend more time with the text than in the second session, when they only had to read
the text for comprehension. The researcher tried to minimize this variable, but alternative methodologies would either lead to other variables, or possibly to the elimination of more subjects.

The first session was held by the researcher herself, and the second one by the lecturers of the courses in both universities. Both sessions took place during the students' regular classes, so that the researcher could exhibit a larger control over the influential variables of text production. In class, subjects were asked to avoid using dictionaries during activities, though they were encouraged to ask vocabulary or language structure questions if they needed to.

3.3. Data Analysis:

The analysis of the data consisted of the examination of the 54 summaries produced by the subjects, twenty-seven summaries produced after the reading and translation activities, and twenty-seven summaries produced after the reading comprehension activity. The data was combined across texts for purposes of the analysis. Thus, in the first session (reading-translation-summarization), 11 subjects read "The Search for a World Language" and 16 read "Friends of the Earth", while in the second session (reading-summarization), 16 subjects read "The Search for a World Language" and 11 subjects read "Friends of the Earth". This unequal distribution occurred due to the elimination of subjects from the analysis, even after having completed the tasks.

For a better organization of the material, the completed data sets were generated (as originally written by the students) on the computer. No attempt was made to modify
their language. The typed texts retained all interlanguage traits of grammar, spelling, and vocabulary, among others. The summaries were analyzed by the researcher herself.

Due to the different outlooks of approaching summaries, this research is grounded in a set of categories of analysis predetermined by previous researchers (Halliday and Hasan, 1976 in Kaplan & Grabe, 1996; Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Kleiman & Terzi, 1985; Kozminsky & Graetz, 1986; Seidlhofer, 1995; Van Dijk, 1983, in Golden et al, 1986; Winograd, 1984). The categories chosen for this survey are helpful in order to establish possible relations between translation and summary writing.

According to Brown and Day (1983), summarizing is a complex task which involves the analysis of content and structural features, i.e. the use of students own words, ability to reduce information, to follow the sequence of ideas, and to create sentences that carry the meaning of whole sentences in the original.

The answers to the three specific research questions presented in the introduction, were based on the analysis of data obtained from the 27 subjects, with the aim of verifying whether the summaries produced after the translation task presented differences and/or similarities in terms of structure, content and language in comparison with the summaries produced after the reading comprehension activity.

The categories were established and then separated into two major areas: 1) structural categories; and 2) content and language categories. Although the criteria were separated, they are interwoven.

**Structure criteria:** The structure criteria, in turn, are divided into two sub-categories: general structure of the text, and text cohesion. General structure categories are concerned with length, paragraphing, sequence of ideas, and titling. Text cohesion concerns coordination, organization, and the use of conjunctions in the summaries.
Content and language criteria: The content criteria are related to the ideas included in the summaries, the way they are included, and the language which is used in these texts. The content criteria entail reproductions at the sentence level, which include copying and paraphrasing of idea units, combinations of idea units, main ideas, orientations included in the texts, and copying of lexical items.

Explanations concerning the categories used for the data analysis are presented in the Review of the Literature (Section 2.4). However, some comments seem important for the clarification of how some of the categories were used.

For the analysis of the transformations, that is, reproductions and combinations (adapted from Johns and Mayes, 1990), and main ideas included, the summaries were chunked into idea units. Two independent raters (graduate students) and this researcher divided the texts into idea units according to the definition of these units. After this, the researcher met with the two other raters to discuss the divisions on which no agreement was initially achieved. In the end a consensus was established.

As it was previously mentioned, the transformations, which consist of reproductions at the sentence level and combinations of two or more idea units, were organized as follows:

- Reproduction at the sentence level:

  *Copying*: accurate copying of idea units from the original (in terms of content and language), copying with language errors, and copying with minor content changes

  *Paraphrasing*: accurate paraphrase of idea units from the original (in terms of content and language), and paraphrased idea units with language errors

- Combination of two or more idea units from more than one orthographic sentence in the original into one orthographic sentence in the summaries.
The definition of idea unit was adapted from Carrell's (1992) and Johns and Mayes' (1990). Hence, each idea unit consists of a single clause or a subordinate one; a full relative clause or an adverbial clause; reduced clauses of various types including most gerundives and infinitival constructives; phrases which occurred in initial position followed by a comma or an implicit one, phrases that are set off from the sentence with commas; such as conjuncts, absolutes, appositives and time duration adjuncts in initial position.

It is important to justify the use of this scoring system of idea units in some of the categories of this research. Several different methods appear in the literature: propositions, T-units, idea units, orthographic sentences, and others. However, for this study, there was a need for a flexible unit which would relate chunks of the summary with the original. After the initial analysis, in which the orthographic sentence scoring system was used, it was realized that the data required a shorter chunking device which would be sensitive to the amount of lexical and grammatical work. By using some of the chunking methods cited above, much of the information contained in the data would be lost.

In order to find the main ideas of the texts, both original texts were distributed to 5 independent judges (graduate students) who were asked to identify the main ideas of the texts (see Appendix G). Based on their information, the researcher organized a table with the main ideas of the original texts and compared them with students' summaries. Then, the main ideas of the original texts were matched with the idea units in the summaries.

The last category, considered by this researcher as an adding element in the analysis of the results, was the copying of lexical items. Throughout the reading of the
summaries, the researcher found that there were some elements which were copied more frequently than others. Then, from each text, three lexical items were randomly selected and matched with the summaries to verify how these items were expressed in the students' texts.

As a whole, the summaries were analyzed following the categories below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure categories</th>
<th>Content and language categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*General structure categories</td>
<td>* Reproduction at the sentence level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ length of summaries</td>
<td>→ copying of idea units from the original text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ paragraphing</td>
<td>→ paraphrasing of idea units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ sequence of ideas</td>
<td>* Combination of idea units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ titling</td>
<td>* Inclusion of main ideas, orientations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Textual cohesion</td>
<td>* Copy of lexical items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ coordination</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ use of conjunctions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the data analysis are based on the categories illustrated above. The topic of the next chapter will include the presentation of the results of the study as well as the discussion of these results.
Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether translation as a learning process can improve written language production of Brazilian EFL students. The data from the 27 students who participated in this study come from written summaries produced by these students under two different conditions: 1) production of a summary after a reading comprehension and a written translation activity; 2) production of a summary after a reading comprehension activity without translation (T1 and T2, respectively). The results were compared to see whether the tasks produced under two distinct conditions present different and/or similar characteristics.

The data were analyzed under structural, content and language categories presented in the previous chapter. The results will be illustrated with excerpts of students' summaries. The examples will be preceded by the letters ‘a’ or ‘b’, where ‘a’ stands for T1, and ‘b’ stands for T2. The results are embedded in quantitative information, and then submitted to a qualitative reflection. The structural categories will be presented in section 4.1. Section 4.2 will unfold the results on the content and language categories. Each task was performed by the same number of subjects (27).

The objective of this research is neither to evaluate the kind of translation produced by the learners nor to grade the summaries as good or weak. However, a brief commentary upon the summaries seems to be relevant at this time, due to their
importance for the design of this work. First of all, the researcher observed that while producing the activities, none of the students attempted to make use of a draft or an outline of the ideas. Concerning the vocabulary and language questions, there were very few.

In relation to the translated texts, the researcher observed that learners followed the exact paragraphing of the originals. Very interestingly is the fact that the titles of the text ‘Friends of the Earth’ were translated word-by-word and ‘Search for a World Language’ received slight changes in some summaries’ titles. The translations are clear and well developed, although the researcher observed that many subjects started translating as soon as they read the instructions for the activity, and many times they had not even finished reading the text.

Concerning the summaries, there are spelling problems which seem to have occurred because of the absence of an outline, a draft, and a careful re-reading. But there are very good structural developments in some of them. Most of the summaries show correct usage of the present-perfect tense, which has appeared many times as difficult in the interlanguage of foreign language students. In addition to this, it seems that learners kept the instructions for the tasks in mind, which might have led them to provide the main information necessary for a good comprehension of the material.

In what follows, firstly the results of the analyses will be presented, together with commentaries about the categories. At the end of section 4.1 and 4.2, the results will be discussed in light of the three specific research questions presented in the introduction. The conclusion, Chapter five, will focus on the general research question.
4.1. Structural categories

The first research question is concerned with the structural differences and similarities of the texts produced after the performance of two activities: reading-translation and reading comprehension. Therefore, the summaries were analyzed in terms of general structure categories such as length of the summaries, paragraphing, sequence of ideas, titling, and in terms of textual cohesion which consists of the operations of coordination, organization, and the inclusion of conjunctions in the summaries.

4.1.1. General structure categories: length, paragraphing, titling and sequence of ideas

Table 2 presents the length of all summaries in both tasks, the mean of words in the summaries, the range, mode and bimode of words. It also presents the total number of idea units in the summaries, the mean and the range of idea units, as well as the total number of subjects.

Table 2 - Total number of words, mean (x) of words per summary, range, mode and bimode, total number of idea units in the summaries, mean (x) of idea units per summary, and number of subjects (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>total # of words in the summaries</th>
<th>x of words</th>
<th>range of words</th>
<th>mode/ bimode of words</th>
<th>total # of idea units in the summaries</th>
<th>x of idea units</th>
<th>range of idea units</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>3228</td>
<td>119,5</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>83/130</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>17,4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>3174</td>
<td>117,5</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in table 2, the total number of words in the summaries in T1 (3228) is slightly higher than in T2 (3174). The same is true for the mean number of words in the summaries in T1 (119,5) and in T2 (117,5). The difference between the central tendency (mean) of summaries length in T1 and T2 is rather small. In T1, the
closest scores to the mean are 113 and 121, while in T2, they are 114 and 119. In both tasks, most students wrote texts shorter than half of the length of the original texts (261 and 299 words).

The fourth column, in table 2 above, presents information about the range\(^8\) of the summaries. In T1 the range was 116, and in T2, 101. When we compare the difference between the range and the mean of words in T1, we have a 3.5 difference, while in T2, this difference is higher, 16.5. These findings indicate that length of the summaries varied more from the central tendency in T2 than in T1.

The fifth column shows the mode and bimode\(^9\) of words in both tasks. In T1, there were two summaries which contained 83 and 130 words (bimode), and in T2, three summaries contained 97 words (mode). Although the bimode in T1 is not very meaningful, there were two scores clustering the bimode 130. One summary had 129 words and another had 131. These occurrences did not happen with the other bimodal score (83), neither with the mode 97, in T2. As a whole, the scores reveal that in T1 students tended to write slightly longer summaries than in T2.

Concerning the number of idea units, according to the chunking made by three raters, there were 473 in T1, and 453 in T2. The mean of idea units per summary in T1 was 17.5 and 16.7 in T2. In T1, four subjects had 17 idea units in their summaries, and in T2, two subjects had 16 idea units in the summaries, and 2 subjects had 15 idea units. The difference between the mean of idea units found in T1 and in T2 is not important. The range of idea units in T1 (23) is slightly higher than in T2 (19).

---

\(8\) - According to Brown (1990), range is defined as the number of points between the highest score on a measure and the lowest score plus one. It provides some idea how individuals vary from the central tendency.

\(9\) - Mode is the score that occurs most frequently in a set of scores. When there are two modes in a set of scores, such a distribution of scores is termed bimodal.
A detailed table with the participants' scores concerning length of summaries in words and idea units can be found in Appendix H.

**Comments about the length of the summaries:**

Space limitation is considered as one of the variables that can affect the production of the summary (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Hare, 1992; Hidi & Anderson, 1986). On the one hand, space limitations may lead the summarizer to make more operations (condensation, selection, integration of ideas) which are of higher level processing (Hidi & Anderson, 1986). Conversely, while unrestricted length may facilitate processing demands but it may also result in a "recall-like outcome" (Hare, 1992, p.110). In fact, Brown and Day (1983) observed that the students, in their study, produced unconstrained summaries longer than the constrained summaries.

Hare (1992) asserts that there is a relation between the length of the summaries and the number of ideas included and transformations performed. Hare's assertion concerning length, together with the results of the length of summaries in this research may be related to the results concerning the inclusion of main ideas which will be presented in Section 4.2.

In the present research, students were not restricted on the length of the summaries they should produce. The similarity between the size of the texts produced in T1 and T2 might be related to the kind of instruction given. However, if we consider the individuals, there is a wide difference in their scoring. The mean varied more in T2 than in T1, as can be seen in Appendix H. In the case of my research, students were asked to write to someone who did not have access to the
original text. Having this purpose in mind may have directly influenced in the length of the summaries produced by the writers.

For Hidi and Anderson (1986), the reader-based summaries (written for an audience), require greater faithfulness to the original, and in the case of this research, students may have tried to include most information they remembered. Therefore, apparently, it is unlikely that translation influenced the length of the summaries, since the mean difference between the two tasks was only four words, which is not important.

Table 3 displays the categories of paragraphing, titling (copied and paraphrased), and sequence of ideas in the texts. It also reveals the number of paragraphs included in each task and the percentage of students who included such number of paragraphs. The text ‘Search for a World Language’ had 3 paragraphs and ‘Friends of the Earth’ had 10 paragraphs. Then, the second column shows the results of both texts in both tasks. As mentioned in the methodology chapter (p.48), the distribution of texts was unequal; and this fact was taken into consideration when analysing the results of paragraphing. Finally, the number of summaries which had a title (copied or paraphrased), and the number of summaries which followed the sequence of ideas in the original texts can also be observed in Table 3.
Table 3 - Number of paragraphs and percentage of subjects, titling, sequencing of ideas in the texts, and number of students (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paragraphing</th>
<th>Title inclusion</th>
<th>Sequence of ideas</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>copied</td>
<td>paraphrased</td>
<td>total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search...(3p.)</td>
<td>Friends...(10 p.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>1 (45%)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td>13 (48.14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>2 (45%)</td>
<td>3 (45%)</td>
<td>12 (44.44%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 3 above shows, in T1, 45% of the subjects who read 'Search for a World Language' wrote their texts in one paragraph, and 45 % wrote their texts in 3 paragraphs. In the same task, among the students who read 'Friends of the Earth', 37.5 % distributed their information in 3 paragraphs.

Concerning T2, among the students who read the text 'Search for a World Language', 50 % used 2 paragraphs, and among those who read the text 'Friends of the Earth', 45 % used 2 paragraphs as well. The results presented in table 3 indicate a tendency for learners in T1 to use more paragraphs than in T2. The results concerning the other frequencies of paragraphing can be found in Appendix I.

The third column shows the number of students who included titles in their summaries, either copied or paraphrased, and the parentheses indicate the percentage of subjects who included these types of titles.

There was no difference between the two tasks in this category. Both T1 and T2 are provided with the same number of summaries which contain titles (15 summaries with titles in each task). From the 55.54% of the titled summaries in T1, 48.14% were copied from the original, while in T2, from the 55.54% of the titled summaries, 44.44% were copied from the original. However, in T1, 7.40% of the summaries were paraphrased, and in T2, 11.11 % of the summaries produced
paraphrased. Hence, while T1 presented more copied titles than T2, T2 had more paraphrased titles than T1. It seems that translation did not have any effect on the learners’ decisions to include titles, but only a very small effect on the way they should be expressed.

The fourth column presents the number of summaries which followed the sequence of ideas from the original texts and the parentheses expresses the percentage of subjects who followed the sequence of ideas of the original texts. In T1, 33.3% of the 27 subjects followed the sequence of ideas of the original text, while in T2, 29% of the subjects behaved this way. Though this difference does not seem important, again, there was a tendency for learners in T1 to organize ideas according to the input material.

Comments on the results about paragraphing:

The results of Kleiman and Terzi’s (1985) study revealed that the students who had access to the input text followed the order of the paragraphs in the original and the structural pattern of the text. When the results of the present study are viewed across texts, we realize that while in T1 most students (82.5%) used 3 paragraphs, most students (95%) in T2 used 2 paragraphs (see Appendix I). For Guimarães (1990), opening a paragraph in textual production is related to the way the writer is building the text or mentally organizing the ideas.

In addition to this, taking into consideration Kleiman and Terzi’s findings and the fact that the students, in this study, did not have access to the original text while producing the summaries, there is some indication that the translation process might have influenced writers’ organization of the text in terms of paragraphing. Although
subjects were not necessarily following the order of the paragraphs from the original, translation might have led learners to establish a mental representation of the 'physical' structure of the original texts, and consequently, to follow this structure in the summaries.

**Comments about sequence of ideas:**

The results of this research concerning the sequence of ideas go in the same direction as Hidi's (1984b, 1985, in Hidi & Anderson, 1985) study, which revealed that subjects who wrote without the access to the input text deviated more from the original order of the texts.

In this research, most summaries deviated from the original order of the text. From 27 students in T1, only 9 (33,3%) summaries followed the sequence of ideas of the original and in T2, 8 (29%) summaries followed the original order. Despite the small difference between the tasks, T1 seemed to have produced a stronger representation in memory than T2.

**Comments about titling:**

Guimarães (1990) states that titles express the macrostructure of the text. For this author, titles can orient the comprehension of the message, guiding elements of the reading. In this study, more than half of the students in both tasks included titles. In this respect, it is unlikely that translation had any influence. Nevertheless, some titles were expressed differently in T1 and T2. The summaries in T1 presented higher percentage of copied titles, while T2 present higher percentage of paraphrased titles. It is also important to notice that none of the titles related to text 'Friends of the Earth' were paraphrased. In both tasks they were always copied,
while the title of text 'Search for a World Language' was both copied and paraphrased.

So far, there is no clear reason why all titles of the text 'Friends of the Earth' were all copied and not paraphrased. Though, we may advance that either the title was familiar to most of the writers, and it was easy to remember and include it in the summaries, or translating might have produced a more elaborate representation which led learners to recall easily this title as opposed to the other title.

Among the titles used in the paraphrasing were the following:

In T1: Searching for a common understanding; The necessity for a world language;

In T2: The need for a common language; Different ways of saying Hello all over the world; Searching for a common language;

4.1.2. Text cohesion: coordination and organization operations, and conjunctions

Table 4 displays the number of operations of coordination, and organization in the summaries, the total number of different conjunctions provided in both tasks, the conjunctions which are different from the original included in each task, as well as the conjunctions which are common to both tasks, and the ones which are exclusively in each task.
Table 4: Number of summaries which contain operations of coordination, organization, and number and % of different conjunctions included in the summaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th># of summaries with coordination</th>
<th># of summaries with organization</th>
<th>total # of conjunctions different from the original text</th>
<th>conjunctions which are common to both tasks</th>
<th>conjunctions exclusive in each task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>5 (18.52%)</td>
<td>1 (3.70%)</td>
<td>11 (73.3%)</td>
<td>9 (60%)</td>
<td>2 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excerpt 1a</td>
<td>Excerpt 2a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>2 (7.40%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13 (86.6%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 (26.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excerpt 1b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second column of table 4, the operations of coordination present in the summaries are displayed. As can be seen, they were more frequent in T1 (5) than in T2 (2). The operation of coordination is exemplified in the excerpts that follow:

Excerpt 1a: *It tells the difficulty in communicating needs and ideas among nations and tribes which don’t use the same language.*

Excerpt 1b: *It says that there are over 3000 languages today.*

The third column presents the operation of organization in the summaries. In fact, only one summary in T1 provided this category, and this operation was not found in T2.

Excerpt 2a: *In the first part of the text, they talk about the damages that are being made to the world,...In the second part, they start talking about the institution itself... And then, they finally say that they could do a lot more with our help.*

From an overall total of 22 examples of conjunctions included in the summaries,

* Hereafter, the excerpts are provided as examples
15 were different from the original. The fourth column presents the occurrences of such conjunctions. The column is divided into conjunctions which are different from the original text in each task, conjunctions which are different but were included in both tasks, and conjunctions which are exclusive for each task. The table presents the number and percentages of these occurrences.

As can be seen, there are more conjunctions in T2 than in T1. From 15 conjunctions which are different, there are 9 which are common to both tasks, 2 are exclusive of T1 and 4 of T2. In T1, there are 73.3% of conjunctions which are distinct from the original text, and in T2 there are 86.6% of these conjunctions. From these distinct conjunctions, 60% of them are common to T1 and T2. Concerning the exclusive conjunctions which were included in each task, there are 13.33% in T1 and 26.66% in T2. As can be seen, T2 led students to include more different conjunctions from the original than in T1, but the difference is small. The excerpts below show instances in which different conjunctions were included in the texts in T1 and T2.

Excerpt 3a: *Even though, sometimes it might not be easy to figure out what gestures and pictures mean.*

Excerpt 3b: *Thus, it is very difficult for men to understand each other.*

It is important to inform the reader that conjunctions were counted only once when they appeared in the texts. For instance, if “though” was included in two or more summaries, this conjunction was counted only once. Moreover, conjunctions included in the summaries were not classified by their types.

In Appendix K, the reader may find the total number of conjunctions included in the summaries, and the ones which were copied from the original in both tasks.
Comments about coordination and organization:

These categories - coordination and organization - were established by Kozminsky and Graetz (1986). As it was previously mentioned in the review of the literature, the categories established by these researchers were based on Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978). For Kozminsky and Graetz (1986), textual cohesion is maintained by the linguistic devices provided in the texts, in the case of this research, the summaries. Among the linguistic devices identified in the summaries were the operations of coordination and organization. As table 4 showed, the summaries produced after the reading and translation activities presented more coordinations than the reading comprehension activity, as well as organization. Kozminsky and Graetz (1986) claim that coordination is identified as the device used for maintaining the flow and cohesion of the texts, and organization is a device used to relate the structure of the text in the summary. In T1, one student performed the operation of organization. Although the argument for this operation is rather weak, it seems possible that learners in T1 tried to be more concerned about guiding the reader than in T2. But it also seems relevant to remark that providing these linguistic devices does not indicate that the summaries in T1 are generally more cohesive than in T2.

Comments about the use of conjunctions:

As the results revealed, the summaries in T2 presented a slightly higher percentage of conjunctions which were different from the original text than T1. Summaries in T2 presented more conjunctions which were exclusively included in this task, although the difference between T1 and T2, in this respect, is small. It seems that writers in T2 had to resource more to their general linguistic knowledge than writers in T1, in an attempt to connect their sentences. But in T1, learners also tried to resource to
different linguistic elements which would link the ideas in the text, and they did not only copy from the original text. Therefore, in both tasks, writers tended to use a large variety of conjunctions because from the conjunctions which were different from the original, 60% were present in both tasks, though the variation was slightly higher in T2.

Based on the results presented in the previous pages, the following research question will be answered: **What are the similarities and differences between the texts produced after the reading-translation activity and after the reading comprehension activity in relation to their structural categories: general structure and text cohesion?**

The results of the structural categories analyzed reveal that the summaries produced in T1 and T2 appear to be similar in some aspects and distinct in others.

In relation to the length of the summaries, either in terms of words or idea units, the mean revealed that there was no difference between T1 and T2. From these results it appears that writers in both summaries included the same amount of information.

Concerning titling in the summaries, both tasks included the same number of titles in the summaries. Their difference is on the way they were expressed. Titles were more frequently copied in T1 than in T2, while in T2 they were more paraphrased. As it was mentioned in the previously, it is not clear why the copied titles were more frequent in T1. But there is a possibility that the translating process led learners to encode and store in memory these titles more effectively and use them for the production of the summaries. In the written translation into Portuguese that students produced, the title 'Friends of the Earth' was translated word-by-word (see page 55).

In what concerns the sequencing of ideas, the difference is also rather small, though the tendency is for writers in T1 to follow more closely the sequence of the
While the summaries in T1 presented a higher percentage of coordination and organization operations in an attempt to make the text more cohesive, the summaries in T2 presented a higher percentage of conjunctions which were distinct from the input text.

In relation to paragraphing, summaries in T1 tended to have more paragraphs than in T2. It seems that translation helped learners to create a stronger representation of the text than in T2.

Thus, on the limited data available, it appears that in some circumstances, translation produced distinct results in the summaries as opposed to the reading activity. However, the reading comprehension activity also led learners to search for different linguistic elements to link sentences in the summaries.

4.2. Content and Language Categories

The second research question is concerned with content and language similarities and differences of the texts produced after the performance of the two activities. Therefore, in order to answer this question, the summaries were analyzed in terms of reproductions at the sentence level (copying and paraphrasing), combinations across sentences, main ideas inclusion, orientations, and copying of lexical items.

4.2.1. Reproductions at the sentence level

4.2.1.1. Copying

Table 5 presents the instances of copying of idea units from the original text: total number of copied idea units, the accurate copied idea units, the copied idea units with language errors and the copied idea units with content changes. Errors learners made
when copying were of various kinds, for instance: preposition, adverbial, verb tense,
verb agreement. In T1 and in T2, content change is related to the substitution of a
lexical item from the original text by another item, or the elimination of the item.

Table 5 - Copying of idea units from the original text: number of copies (N), mean of copies per
summary (X) and % of copies in the summaries (totals, accuracy, language errors and
content changes)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>total # of copies of idea units</th>
<th>accurate copying of idea units</th>
<th>copying of idea units with minor language errors</th>
<th>copying of idea units with minor content changes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2,55</td>
<td>14,58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 6a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1,62</td>
<td>9,71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 6b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second column of table 5, the total number of copied idea units in the 27
summaries are presented. In T1, there were 471 idea units, and from these units, 69
were copied from the original text. In T2 there were 453 idea units, and 44 were copied
idea units from the original. Therefore, copying is more intense in T1 than in T2. The
third column reveals the total, the mean and percentage of accurate copied idea units in
the summaries. Although the overall total of accurate idea units (N) is slightly higher in
T1 than in T2, in terms of percentage, T2 presents more accurate copied idea units than
T1. Of the 69 copied idea units in T1, 31 were accurate and of the 44, in T2, 25 were
correctly copied, that is, more than half of the copied idea units in T2 were accurate.

Examples of accurate copied idea units in T1 and T2 are displayed in the excerpts
below:
Excerpt from the original text: *In our everyday lives, we depend upon language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.*

Excerpt 6a: *In our everyday lives, we need language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.*

Excerpt from the original text: *... from which there may be no turning back.*

Excerpt 6b: *... from which there may be no turning back*

In the fourth column, copied idea units with minor language errors are presented. The results again show a slightly higher copying in T1 (10.14%) than in T2 (6.81%). It seems that learners in T2 tried to avoid language errors, at least in respect to the copied idea units. Some examples of these incorrect copied idea units are displayed in the excerpts that follow:

Excerpt from the original text: *We can't afford to wait.*

Excerpt 7a: *We cannot afford wait.*

Excerpt from the original text: *There are almost 3000 different spoken languages in use throughout the world today.*

Excerpt 7b: *There are almost 3000 and different languages spoken throughout the world.*

The fifth column shows that the copied idea units in T1 (44.93%) present more content changes than in T2 (36.36%). It seems that learners in T1 made an effort to express the information which was in the original material, and when a word or an expression was not immediately available for them, they searched in their own interlanguage system. This occurred in both tasks, but it was favored by writers in T1. The following excerpts exemplify the copied idea units which contain minor content changes in both tasks.
Excerpt from the original text: *We can do more - with your support.*

Excerpt 8a: *We can do more - with your help.*

Excerpt from the original text: *There are almost 3000 different spoken languages in use throughout the world today.*

Excerpt 8b: *There are more than 3000 different languages throughout the world today.*

**Comments on copying:**

Table 5 shows that the frequency of copying is higher in T1 than in T2. It seems that translating helped learners to create stronger memory traces and the information was more easily retrieved from memory when producing the summaries. It appears relevant to compare the results above with the findings of some other studies.

Winograd (1984) found that less fluent readers made larger use of copying of punctuated sentences from the original text to their summaries than of other types of transformations, and these students had access to the text. Johns (1985) found that the underprepared students, in her study, were the ones who used more direct copying of idea units. Sherrard (1989) classified the immature summarizers as those who are confined to the deletion or verbatim retention of surface elements. Likewise, Johns and Mayes (1990) found that low-level students did more direct copying than did high-level students.

In addition to this, concerning having access to the text while writing the summary, Hidi and Anderson (1986) make the consideration that the negative side of having the text while producing the summary is that learners usually feel enticed to copy from the original rather than actively process the information.

Therefore, it seems that there is evidence in the literature that learners who make more copies are labeled as “poor summarizers”. However, the objective of my study is
not to compare neither to evaluate good and poor summary writers, but questioning whether translation has a different influence on a summarizing activity in opposition to a reading comprehension activity.

Indeed, in this research, learners did not have access to the original text while producing the summaries. From the results, in T1, learners copied more than in T2. Hence, they might have noticed and internalized features of the input material through the intense processing that the translating process involves, encoded these features in memory and then retrieved them when producing the target text. It is possible then that translation did have an influence in the summary writing produced in T1, when considering the copying process.

Learners in T1 made more copies than in T2, however, in terms of percentage, learners in T2 made more accurate copies than in T1. More than half of the copies in T2 were accurately copied. In both tasks there were instances of errors in the copied idea units, and the difference is rather low.

Although there were more errors in the copied idea units in T1, T1 presented more instances of copied idea units which were accurate but contained slight changes in terms of content, like substitution of a term per another, or the elimination of an expression of the idea unit.

Sharwood Smith (1993) claims that encouraging learners to focus on form, by input manipulation, the case of this research through translating, may not directly nor automatically alter the development of the interlanguage system, but it may lead learners to noticing features of the foreign language. In a similar vein, Schmidt (1990) argues that some degree of consciousness is necessary for learning to take place. He claims that awareness at the level of noticing is necessary before material can be
incorporated into a developing interlanguage system and subsequent SLA.

4.2.1.2. Paraphrasing

Table 6 provides the instances of paraphrased idea units: total number of paraphrased idea units, the number of accurate paraphrased idea units and the paraphrased idea units with language errors. The table provides the total amounts, the mean and percentages of this transformation in the summaries.

Table 6 - Paraphrasing of idea units from the original texts: number, mean (x) and percentage of paraphrased idea units (total, accurate and with minor language errors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total # of paraphrased idea units</th>
<th>Accurate paraphrased idea units</th>
<th>Paraphrased idea units which contain minor language errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 9a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 9b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second column in table 6 shows the total number of paraphrased idea units in the summaries in both tasks. From the total, the mean and percentage it may be seen that the frequency of paraphrased idea units is more intense in T1 (144) than in T2 (90). From the total number of idea units present in T1, 30.45% were paraphrased, while in T2, 19.87% were paraphrased. The mean number of paraphrased idea units in the summaries in T1 was 5.33, and 3.33 in T2.

The third column displays the number, mean and percentage of accurate paraphrased idea units in both tasks. As can be seen, there is a small percentage difference between the
two tasks in terms of accuracy, 88.19% in T1 and 90% in T2. There is a slight tendency for summarizers in T2 to be more accurate than in T1.

The excerpts below present some examples of accurate paraphrased idea units in both tasks.

Excerpt from the original text: *Because pictures are understood in all languages,* ...
Excerpt 9a: *As figures can be widely understood,* ...

Excerpt from the original text: *We work with all political parties, but are aligned to none.*
Excerpt 9b: *They also work together with all political parties (though they are not aligned to any) and ordinary people.*

The number of paraphrased idea units which contain some minor language errors are displayed in the fourth column. Of a total of 144 paraphrased idea units in T1, 11.8% contained language errors. In T2, of the 90 paraphrased idea units, 10% had language errors. Again, writers behaved very similarly in both tasks.

Excerpt from the original: *...but are aligned to none.*
Excerpt 10a: *... but they are not engaged with no one.*

Excerpt from the original: *... who can never understand each other...*
Excerpt 10b: *... that will never communicated to each other...*

**Comments on paraphrasing:**

Paraphrasing, in summary writing, has been discussed by various researchers. In Winograd’s (1984) study, the higher the reading ability, the fewer the frequency of reproductions such as copying and paraphrasing.

However, Johns and Mayes (1990) claim that paraphrasing consists of a search for a
synonym for words and phrases, and that it "is a mature skill requiring an advanced sense of language and a large vocabulary" (p.260). In their study, there was not much difference between the high and low group concurring paraphrasing. By the same token, Trabasso and Magliano (1996) point out that paraphrasing a sentence may strengthen the memory representation or increase the activation level of a sentence content in long term memory, and thereby increase the availability of its information as a text source.

In my study, learners included more paraphrased idea units in T1 than in T2. But the paraphrased idea units in T2 were slightly more accurate than in T1, and it is evident, as well, that learners in T1 present a higher percentage of paraphrased idea units with errors than in T2, though these differences do not seem important.

There were two summaries in T1 which contained 10 paraphrased idea units, and only one which contained one paraphrased idea unit. In T2, there were 4 summaries which did not include paraphrasing, and two summaries which include 9 instances of paraphrases. Among the 4 summaries which did not paraphrase at all, it is interesting to find that two of them did not make any copying either, one summary had 3 accurate copied idea units, and one copied idea unit with error, and the fourth summary had one copied unit with content change.

4.2.2. Combinations

Table 7 presents the number of combinations made in the summaries. Combinations refer to transformations by which two or more idea units which were in two or more orthographic sentences in the original text are combined into one orthographic sentence in the summary (Johns & Mayes, 1990).
Table 7 - Number of Combinations of idea units in T1 and T2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Combinations of idea units into one orthographic sentence</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 11a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 11b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table 7, there are more instances of combinations in T1 than in T2. The following excerpts correspond to the combinations occurred in both tasks.

Excerpt from the original text: *Millions of people are very concerned about what is happening to our world and looking for ways to change things for the better. Perhaps you think that means you don't have to get involved, or that the environment is getting enough attention.*

Excerpt 11a: *Many people are very concerned about this situation and maybe you think that you don't have to get involved or that there are enough people involved.*

Excerpt from the original: *There are almost 3000 different spoken languages in use throughout the world today. This means that there are many nations and tribes who can never understand each other unless they find a way to overcome the spoken and written language barrier.*

Excerpt 11b: *There are more than 3000 languages all over our world today and it is not difficult to find tribes and different peoples that have problems in communication because they do not understand each other.*

Comments about combinations:

In Brown and Day's (1983) study, the expert students attempted to organize material across paragraphs combining information according to common topic. Winograd (1984) observed that poor readers did fewer combinations, and students with increased reading skills did more combinations. Johns (1985) also noted that the results presented by
underprepared university students (those who had low grade point average in secondary school) did fewer combinations of idea units than adept students. Johns and Mayes (1990) found that high-level students combine more the idea units within the paragraphs.

It seems clear, from what the researchers above have presented, that combination is a higher order processing, typical of good summarizers. According to Kern (1994), in some circumstances, translation seems to be a facilitative factor for higher order processing. In this study, learners in T1 did more combinations than in T2. It appears that learners could achieve a higher level of processing because they could more easily retrieve and link the linguistic information elaborated on during the translation activity. Therefore, it seems that translation facilitated learners to search for the ideas to be included, rehearse them in STM, and then combine them in the summaries.

Comments on the transformations: copying, paraphrasing and combinations

Figure 2 provides the overall total number of transformations made in both tasks. These transformations are copying, paraphrasing, and combinations.

![Figure 2: Number of transformations - copying, paraphrasing and combinations](image)
As revealed by figure 2, there is a tendency for summarizers in T1 to make more transformations than in T2. The most frequent transformation in both tasks was paraphrasing, followed by copying and combinations, in both tasks.

Summarizing, as pointed out before, is an activity which requires an active cognitive processing. The information has to be comprehended and then intensively operated in the mind in order to transform the text read in a summary.

In this research, besides the reading and summarizing activities, a translation activity was added, to see whether it produced different or similar results on the outcomes - the summaries. It seems that besides all the processing that reading alone entails, translation may also lead learners to produce higher-order transformations like combinations, for instance. Contrary to what the literature presents, that copying and paraphrasing transformations are made by low-level students, in this research, learners in T1 produced more combinations than the learners in T2. Moreover, learners who translated were able to present more copied idea units from the original text than T2 and also more paraphrased idea units. Translation, therefore, appears to have influenced the writers’ production of the summaries, and it also seems to have led learners to notice the features which were in the original text, which were kept in memory and could then be used in the summaries.

2.3. Main ideas inclusion and orientation

Table 8 presents the total number of main ideas included in the summaries, the average of main ideas in each summary, % of the main ideas in relation to the
overall total, the number of main ideas expressed in idea units, and the number of orientations provided in the summaries.

Table 8 - Included main ideas, mean (x) of included main ideas per summary, number of main ideas expressed in idea units, and orientations provided

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>total # of main ideas included in the summaries</th>
<th>Main ideas expressed in idea units</th>
<th>Orientations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>T1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68 (41.97%)</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x (2.51)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Excerpt 13a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 12a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69 (42.59%)</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x (2.55)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Excerpt 13b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt 12b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second column in table 8 shows the total number of main ideas included in T1 and T2. It also reveals the percentage of this inclusion in relation to the total amount of main ideas in the 27 summaries. From the 162 main ideas that should be included in the summaries, in each task, in T1 there were 41.97%, and in T2, 42.59%. From each text, the rates selected 6 main ideas, which are displayed in Appendix G.

As can be perceived, the inclusion of main ideas in the summaries does not vary in the two tasks. The average number of main ideas included by each student in the summaries in T1 was 2.51, and 2.55 in T2.

Below there are excerpts of the main ideas and the way they were expressed in the summaries in both tasks.

Excerpt from the main idea: The search for a world language is really the search for a common understanding among all the peoples of the earth.

Excerpt 12a: The search for a world language is the search for a common understanding among cultures.
Excerpt from the main idea: *Many people are concerned about what is happening to our world and looking for ways to change things for the better.*

Excerpt 12b: *Many people are worried with the conditions of our planet today.*

As excerpt 12a shows, the main idea was copied from the original text.

The third column shows the number of main ideas expressed in idea units. In T1, main ideas were expressed in 101 idea units and in T2, in 111.

The fourth column in the table 8 displays the number of orientations provided in the tasks. It reveals that the number of orientations provided in T1 is equal to T2. Among the orientations provided in T2, there was one which had language problems.

Excerpt 13a: *The text is about an institution that works on environmental issues.*

Excerpt 13b: *The text talks about the languages of the world in terms of understanding*

**Comments about main ideas inclusion and orientations provided:**

In the context of my research, it seems that in both summaries, in T1 and T2 writers were able to capture the main ideas of the texts. Translation did not seem to influence concerning which main ideas to include in the summaries. Both, reading comprehension and translation activity provided enough information gathering strategies to encode in LTM the main ideas and then use them in summary writing.

For Winograd (1984), the ability to identify important elements in a text is a strategic skill that underlies both comprehension and summarization. Poor readers also have difficulty in identifying the information that adults consider important. Poor readers have different views about which ideas in a text were important.

In the present study both groups presented similar numbers of included main ideas. As it was previously mentioned (p.56), length of summaries is related to the ideas included in the texts (Hare, 1992). There was no difference between the ideas
included in T1 and T2 as well as between the mean length of summaries in both tasks.

According to Golden et al. (1988), providing orientation for the reader which “establishes the topic essay” is definitely a characteristic of good summaries (p.147). In both tasks, there were five instances of this operation in the summaries. It seems that translation did not produce a difference in this respect.

Figure 3 displays the frequency in which the main ideas were included in the summaries by each subject. It reveals the amount of main ideas each subject included in both tasks.

![Figure 3: Included main ideas in the summaries](image)

As revealed by figure 3, no student included the 6 main ideas identified by the ratters in the original text. Student ‘10’ found 5 main ideas in both T1 and T2. Figure 3 and table 8 show that there is not a main difference between the number of main ideas included in T1 and in T2. It seems that it is unlikely that translation has influenced the inclusion of main ideas, and that the difference is more individuals since thirteen students included the same number of main ideas in both tasks.

4.2.5. Copy of lexical items

The instances of copying of specific lexical items are shown in table 9.
Table 9 - Number of copied specific lexical items across the two different tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical items present in the original texts</th>
<th>Number of copied lexical items which were in the original texts and were included in the summaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. language barrier</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. brand-new language</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. throughout the world</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. global warming</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. environmental damage</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. political parties</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table reveals, the number of copied lexical terms is higher in T1 than in T2. The numbers account for the number of times they appeared throughout the 27 summaries of each task. It seems that the items in T2 were more often expressed differently than in T1. That is to say, there was a larger variation of these items in T2.

In T1 and in T2, the item ‘language barrier’ was copied twice, and it was expressed differently once in T1 as ‘linguistic barrier’ and in T2 as ‘the barrier of language’.

The second lexical item ‘brand-new language’ was copied more often in T1 than in T2. In T2, this item was expressed in 4 different ways, such as: new language, brand-artificial language, a new-world language, new kind of language.

The third item was copied 6 times in T1 and 3 times in T2. In T1, besides these copies, it appeared 5 other times, and in T2, expressed differently 11 times: For instance: around the world, in the world, in the whole world, all over the world, throughout the planet, in our world.

The term ‘global warming’, which was copied 5 times in T1, and not copied in T2. In T2 it was expressed as: warming of the Earth, increasing of the temperature,
weather is becoming hotter.

The fifth item 'environmental damages', was not copied in T2. In T2 it was expressed through: environmental abuses, environmental problems, environment destruction, the damage in our environment.

In T2, the item 'political parties' was copied more than in T1.

Comments on the copied lexical items:

Table 9 shows an active copying strategy used in the summaries of lexical items which were in the original and were included in the summaries. In this respect, the assumption that active translation may lead to more elaborate and thus durable memory encoding is valuable. In terms of elaboration model, translation would seem to offer certain cognitive advantages that may lead to better retention of L2 words and structures (Hummel, 1995). Elaboration refers to extensiveness of processing and number of interconnected features (Anderson, 1995).

Sharwood Smith (1994) has argued that consciousness-raising may be important to develop the lexicon of learners "where conscious manipulation is by hypothesis likely to occur" (p.180). It is said that we cannot control neither attention nor consciousness learners devote to the task, however, we may manipulate input so that learners are encouraged to pay attention to linguistic and structural elements of the text. Skehan (1998) agrees with Sharwood Smith claiming that there are different ways of triggering noticing and make it more likely, other than form-focused instruction. And translation, in this research, might being approached as a means to trigger learners' to noticing features of the target language.

Research question number two: What are the similarities and differences
between the summaries produced after a reading-translation activity and a reading comprehension activity in relation to content and language of these summaries?

The results concerning content and language of the summaries reveal differences between the texts produced after the reading-translation and the reading for comprehension activity. The results between these two activities present similarities as well.

Summaries in T1 and T2 are similar in relation to the main ideas included. In both tasks, learners were able to identify and include in their summaries important information, which were expressed through the idea units. Therefore, it is unlikely that translation has influenced the production of the summaries in this respect. Also, when learners provided orientation for the reader, the frequency was the same in both tasks. For Golden et al (1988), this category is related to the topic of the text, and it is a characteristic of good summaries. In both tasks, from the 27 summaries, there were only 5 summaries in each task which provided orientation operations. Comparing T1 and T2, in this respect, it seems that translation has not influenced learners’ in their inclusion of this operation.

Concerning the transformations (copying, paraphrasing, and combinations) made, there were more salient differences between the two tasks. T1 included more of these categories in the summaries. In relation to copying of lexical items from the original text, there was also a difference between the two tasks, again favoring T1, and translation could possible have influenced copying.

As could be perceived through the results, the number of copied idea units from the original text, as well as the number of paraphrased idea units and combinations is
more intense in T1 than in T2. It was somewhat surprising to find such a number of
copied idea units in the summaries, if they did not have access to the original text.
When learners copied in T1, they might have lost track of the language and made errors
more frequently than in T2, although the difference is small. It seems that in T1, 
learners were trying to provide precise information which was being retrieved from 
memory, through the intensive elaboration that was involved in the translation process.

However, when learners in T2 were providing information to include in the 
summaries, they also made copies from memory, which also favors reading 
comprehension as a valuable task for durable encoding and usage in language 
performance, and in this case, of summary writing. It seems that learners in T2 made 
more accurate copies. They were more aware of the language they were using.

Due to mainly the higher occurrences of copied idea units, paraphrasing, the 
copied lexical items in T1, the features of the foreign language were in LTM and could
be retrieved more easily than in T2. In Kern’s (1994) study, translation facilitated 
semantic processing and permitted consolidation of meaning. As Bell (1991) asserts, 
that there are various processes involved in the translation process, from the reading to 
the writing of the translation. There are “physical processes of sensation and reception 
of stimuli provided by the senses along with psychological processes of perception and 
memory” (p. 20).

Translation, in Kern’s study, indicates a “switch from automatic to controlled 
processing (McLeod and McLaughlin, 1986) in that conscious attention is brought to 
the processing of difficult items” (p.451). In a similar vein, noticing, which is necessary 
for intake to take place (Schmidt, 1990), occurs in short-term memory, which is 
considered of a limited capacity and requires conscious effort and control. Since
controlled processes demand attention and they are a condition for the transfer of information from short-term memory to long-term memory, it is possible to make this relation of translation as a consciousness-raising methodology.

When subjects elaborate they create additional ways of recalling from memory what they are supposed to remember. If they cannot remember the original memory recorded, they may be able to use other records to retrieve what they want (Anderson, 1995). When students were producing the summaries, many of them were using other records to retrieve what they wanted, through paraphrasing, for instance, and they were able to make high-order processing operations such as combining idea units from more than one sentence in the original into one sentence in the summaries.

After having presented the results of the study and answered two of the specific research questions, the third research question will be answered: **In what ways does translation seem to influence foreign language production?**

Based on the limited amount of data available in this research, translation seemed to influenced the way the information was expressed in the summaries. Translation established strong linguistic traces in memory because learners elaborated more the texts while translating, and the linguistic information processed could be then used in the summaries. Lexical items included in T2 were not as intensively copied as in T1. In T1 learners seemed to have retrieved more intensively linguistic information from memory while producing the summaries. Nevertheless, summaries in T2 had more accurate copying than in T1. In T1, learners performed more higher-order transformations, like combinations, and we perceive there the influence of translation.

Although the literature presents learners who perform more copying and verbatim information as usually less proficient, the learners in this research cannot be considered...
weak or low level performers. The intensively copied idea units and lexical items may be assigned by the degree of linguistic elaborateness in the two tasks.

Each task produced results which differ across categories. Translation, on the one hand, led writers to use more transformations, which are higher order processing, and may have therefore contributed to the establishment of a higher storage of lexical items in the mind. The reading activity, on the other hand, led learners to a higher search of distinct conjunctions which were not included in the original texts. In addition this, in T2, there was also a quite large number of copies. Then, taking into consideration that learners in T2 did not translate, they might have brought the information from their reading of the text, what means that the reading activity might have also established stronger traces of information in memory.

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the analysis and discuss them in the light of the literature. It was also the purpose of the chapter to answer the specific research questions, which may lead to a tentative answer for the main research question.

In Appendix J, the reader will be delighted with some more excerpt taken from the summaries and analyzed in light of the categories established for this study. In Appendix L, all the summaries are displayed as well.
Chapter Five

Final remarks, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research and pedagogical implications

5.1. Final remarks

The present study aimed at approaching translation as a learning process to improve language production of Brazilian EFL students. It was hypothesized that the intense processing that translation entails could establish a stronger linguistic representation of the text in long-term memory and develop readiness for language use by facilitating memory retrieval of language, content and structural information of the text, which could contribute for the production of the summaries. In order to verify this hypothesis, summaries produced under two different conditions were compared (reading - translating activities contrasted to a reading comprehension activity).

In this chapter, I present a tentative answer for the general research question taking into account the results and the discussion of the specific questions presented previously. This chapter also includes the limitations of the study, some suggestions for further studies, and the pedagogical implications of this research.

Therefore: Can translation, as an elaborate linguistic process, contribute to language learning, and as such, to the improvement of language performance?

This main research question is rather difficult to be answered. The results did not provide enough evidence to make definite assertions on this respect. As could be depicted from the results, frequencies of use and percentages were many times close, nevertheless, there was a steady, but rather weak tendency for the translation activity to
produce stronger memory encoding and also a higher-level processing than reading comprehension. To my view, despite the weak contribution that translation brings to the improvement of FL production (summary writing), it seems important that researchers and teachers reflect on this issue, especially by approaching translation as a means to raise learners' awareness of features of the target language. So far, any conclusion that translation can improve foreign language learning is tentative, at best, nevertheless this research hints that the translation process somehow affects foreign language production.

Certainly, translation should not be taken as a panacea to solve most problems in SLA, but it is hoped that this study is provocative enough to provide insights to a renewing into the field of using translation in foreign language learning and teaching.

5.2. Limitations of the study

The present research reveals some limitations in the following directions: 1) lack of a specific proficiency test to evaluate the level of the students and check whether they had already mastered the structures that were included in the texts; 2) lack of a statistical analysis of the results; 3) reading time difference between T1 and T2, that is, learners stayed longer for reading and translation activities than for the reading comprehension activity; 4) subjects from one of the universities were aware of the research while the other group was not.

Thus, more research is needed before generalizations can be made. The results of this study are valid only for the subjects who participated in this study. They cannot be generalized to other groups of EFL students.
5.3. Suggestions for further research

Based on the difficulties and limitations encountered throughout this study, the following recommendations can be made for further research:

1. This study could be replicated, but with a long lasting interval between the translation activity and summary writing (T1), and the reading comprehension and summary writing (T2). To my view, subjects would not remember so well what the task was about, and the 'practice effect' variable might be avoided. This variable might also be eliminated by having a third and fourth activity as a distractor in the meantime. Future teachers should also try to include the tasks in the syllabus of the class, and not use it as a testing activity. After performing these tasks more frequently during the classes, students may react more naturally to them in an experiment, and the results might have ecological validity.

2. Future researchers might use think-aloud protocols while students are writing their summaries, or some kind of talk-aloud protocols, so that the researcher has a better chance to perceive when learners are making use of the information generated during the translation process.

3. In further studies, the researcher could plan the methodology in a way that students translate from their native language into the foreign language, and then have students write the summary in English. This way, the researcher would analyze the 'output' instead of the 'input', and this activity may prompt learners to recognize some of their linguistic problems in the output.

4. Another suggestion for further studies is to make some forms more salient in the original texts and check whether these specific forms were included in the written summaries.
5. A larger number of texts, students, and tasks would increase the probability of obtaining more recognizable results in future studies.

6. A final view for later projects is having some criteria and judges to evaluate the quality of the summaries as such, in a holistic way.

5.4. Pedagogical implications

The findings of this research lead to some implications for L2 teaching. The differences between the results in the two tasks is rather small. Nevertheless, it seems that translation, as an elaborate linguistic processing, led learners to articulate more the information of the original text, and to include some of the features of the input material in their summaries. Although translation has been excluded from the foreign language teaching domain, there is slight evidence in this research, through the different results that the translation activity provoked, that translating might be a valuable tool for learning. According to Hummel (1995), translation in foreign language teaching and learning may find support in psycholinguistic literature. She contends that active translation may implicate in a more elaborate and therefore more durable memory encoding. It has been maintained that when learners elaborate, they may find additional routes in memory to retrace the information they need to remember (Anderson, 1995).

To conclude, translation should not always be seen as a hindrance in language learning. We, as teachers and researchers, though, should be careful not to make it an aim, unless we want to prepare translators, but a means which may be used for providing language input. Finally, it is hoped that this study has contributed to the growing body of SLA research of advanced learners in a foreign language environment.
REFERENCES:


In our everyday lives we depend upon language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men. When we think of "language" we usually mean the spoken or written word. There are almost 3,000 different spoken languages in use throughout the world today. This means that there are many nations and tribes who can never understand each other unless they find a way to overcome the spoken or written language barrier. The search for a world language is really the search for a common understanding among all the peoples of the earth.

In an attempt to gain this common understanding, people have developed ways of communicating with each other without using words. Among these "non-lingual" languages are the sign languages of the American Indians and picture writing. Because pictures are understood in all languages, modern international highway signs now carry pictures instead of words. But it is difficult to get across ideas by means of gestures or pictures alone. For this reason men have tried for centuries to decide upon one written and spoken language which would be understood throughout the world. However, no living language seems to answer the need for a common tongue which can be understood by all.

Lately some scholars have worked out simplified versions of several existing languages, calling them "Basic English," "Basic Russian," and the like in the hope that one of them will become a world language. Others have invented brand-new languages which are simpler and easier to learn than any of the world's "real" languages. These scholars hope that one of their "made" languages will be adopted by all as the international language.
“You have received a text which you should read as carefully as possible and then translate it into Portuguese. When you finish, raise your hand and you will receive the next activity, related to the content of the text. If you have any questions about vocabulary or language structure, you may ask your teacher or the researcher for clarification.”
"Now that you have translated the text, make a summary of the same text in English. Try to make a grammatically accurate summary, however remember that the meaningfulness and information of your text will be considered as the most important qualities in the evaluation. So, try to be as meaningful and complete as possible, as if you were writing a summary for someone who has urgent need of the information contained in it but does not have access to it."
Appendix C: Reading comprehension activity

Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul
Instituto de Letras - Departamento de Linguas Modernas
Lingua VI
Aluno:

"The information in the text below will be the basis for the next activity. However, you will return the text to the teacher before you begin the activity. Thus, it is important that you read the text as many times as necessary for good comprehension, asking the teacher any questions you wish about vocabulary or language structures. As soon as you have finished reading, raise your hand and you will receive the next activity."

Friends of the Earth

The 1990s are the make or break decade for our planet.
The world’s rainforests are disappearing...air and water pollution are increasing...global warming threatens us all with catastrophic climate changes. We are reaching a critical threshold of environmental damage from which there may be no turning back.

Millions of people are very concerned about what is happening to our world and looking for ways to change things for the better. Perhaps you think that means you don’t have to get involved, or that the environment is getting enough attention. Nothing could be further from the truth - the battle is nowhere near won. Friends of the Earth is fighting to stop the damage before it’s too late.

We can’t afford to wait.

Since 1971, Friends of the Earth has been at the forefront of the struggle to protect the environment. We campaign and mobilise public opinion to persuade politicians and industry to take action - internationally, nationally and locally.

Friends of the Earth is a positive force for change - not just opposing environmental abuse, but proposing constructive solutions. We work with all political parties, but are aligned to none.

Friends of the Earth funds vital research and relies on the facts to make a strong case. It’s an approach that works: our voice is listened to and respected.

We believe in informing and empowering the public. Every week we provide thousands of people with information on environmental issues and suggest positive steps they can take.

A lot has been accomplished in the last 20 years. But our work has never been more important.

We can do more - with your support.

Friends of the Earth
Luton, Beds LU1 2YZ
"Now that you have read the text, make a summary of the same text in English. Try to make a grammatically accurate summary, but remember that the meaningfulness and information of your text will be considered as the most important qualities in the evaluation. So, try to be as complete and meaningful as possible, as if you were writing a summary for someone who has urgent need of the information contained in the text but does not have access to it."
Appendix E: Questionnaire for the pilot study

1. Was the text accessible for your linguistic level? Vocabulary, grammar, content?

2. What is your opinion about the length of the texts?

3. Have you heard about the topics you read, translated and summarized?

4. How complex was the text for you?

5. Do you think you had enough time to complete the tasks? Do you think you needed more time?

6. Have you traveled to an English speaking country? For how long?
Appendix F: Example of the chart for the distribution of the text in both sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>First session</th>
<th>Second session</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. John</td>
<td>Friends of the Earth</td>
<td>Search for a World Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peter</td>
<td>Search for a World Language</td>
<td>Friends of the Earth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix G: Main ideas of the texts

"Friends of the Earth"

1. We are reaching a critical threshold of environmental damage.

2. Many people are concerned about what is happening to our world and looking for ways to change things for the better.

3. Friends of the Earth has been at the forefront of the struggle to protect the environment. (Friends of the Earth is fighting to stop the damage before it's too late).

4. Friends of the Earth is a positive force for change

5. They propose constructive solutions. (They believe in informing and empowering the public opinion). (They fund vital research).

6. They can do more with your support.

"The Search for a World Language"

1. We depend upon language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.

2. There are almost 3000 different spoken languages in use throughout the world today.

3. The search for a world language is really the search for a common understanding among all the peoples of the earth.

4. People have developed ways of communicating with each other without using words. (It is difficult to get across ideas by means of gestures and pictures alone).

5. Men have tried to decide upon one written and spoken language which would be understood throughout the world.

6. Some scholars have worked out simplified versions of several existing languages Others scholars have invented brand-new languages.
Appendix H: Length of the summaries in words and idea units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
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<th>T2</th>
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<th>T2</th>
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Appendix I: Paragraphing in T1 and T2 according to the two texts

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Appendix J: Excerpts from the original texts and the summaries

*Operations of coordination

Excerpt 1a: *It is stated that people around the world need to communicate to each other.*

Excerpt 1b: *According to the author, people tried to make them understood by using no language.*

*Accurate copying:

Excerpt from the source text: *We campaign and mobilize the public opinion to persuade politicians and industry to take actions /- internationally, /nationally and locally.*

Excerpt 6a: *Friends of the Earth inform and empower the public opinion about this situation, and also campaign and mobilize politicians and industry to take actions /- internationally, /nationally and locally.*

Excerpt from the original text: *In our everyday lives, we depend upon language / to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.*

Excerpt 8b: *We depend upon language / to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.*

*Copying with language errors

Excerpt from the original text: *...to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men.*

Excerpt 7a: *...to communicate our needs and ideas for the fellow men.*

Excerpt from the original: *...and are looking for ways / to change things for the better.*

Excerpt 7b: *...and they are looking for ways / to change things better.*
*Copying with content changes*

Excerpt from the original: ... *others have invented brand-new languages.*

Excerpt 8a: ... *others have created brand-new ones.*

Excerpt from the original: ... *to persuade politicians and industry/* ...

Excerpt 8b: *in order to persuade politicians and industries...*

*Accurate paraphrased idea units*

Excerpt from the original text: *Friends of the Earth funds vital research ...*

Excerpt 9a: *They provide a lot of money for vital research,...*

Excerpt from the original: *Others have invented brand-new languages.*

Excerpt 9b: *Others are trying to create brand-new artificial languages*

*Paraphrased idea units which contain language errors:*

Excerpt from the original text: ... *some scholars have worked out simplified versions of several existing languages,...*

Excerpt 10a: ... *many scholars have tried to simplified existing languages, ...*

Excerpt from the original text: *We campaign and mobilize public opinion to persuade politicians and industry to take action...*

Excerpt 10b: *What they has been doing is to campaign and mobilize public opinion since 1971, ...*

*Combinations:*

Excerpt 11 a: *Some of them are called “Basic English”, or “Basic Russian”, and others are quite new easier and simpler than any other existing languages.*
Excerpt 11b: They act in all fronts, without attaching themselves to any political party, and they try to keep the public informed of the dangers of the aggressions to Nature.

*Included main ideas:
Excerpt from the original: *Friends of the Earth is fighting to stop the damage before it's too late.*
Excerpt 12a: *Friends of the Earth are struggling to stop environment damage.*
Excerpt from the original: *Men have tried to decide upon a written and spoken language which could be understood throughout the world.*
Excerpt 12b: *There are people trying to work out one language that could be understood by everybody in everywhere.*

*Orientation:
Excerpt 13a: *The Search for a World Language talks about the need for a common language to all the peoples throughout the world.*
Excerpt 13b: *The text talks about the environmental problems we have nowadays.*
### Appendix K: Table with the total amounts

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<th>Categories / Tasks</th>
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Appendix L: Summaries of T1 (a) and T2 (b)

(1a) The Search for a World Language

The language we use is very important to communicate our needs and ideas for the fellow men. However, there are many different languages throughout the world and because of this it is so difficult for people to communicate to each other.

The written pictures are the way of communication which all persons understanding. For this reason, the modern international signs language can be understood for all people.

Many scholars have tried to find one written and spoken language which can be a common language.

(1b) Friends of the Earth

In the 1990s are many changes in the environment. The world’s rainforests are disappearing, air and water have been polluted. There are changes in the climate of the earth.

However, people are concerned about what is happening to our world and they are looking for ways to change things better. On the other hand, there are people that don’t worry about these problems because they think the government take care of these problems.

Since 1971 they are trying to save our planet and make people be aware of the environmental problems. They try to propose constructive solutions.

(2a) The necessity of a common language

People need to communicate themselves to other people. The best known way to do so is through language so, as today we are living in a world with more than 3000 languages, people feel the necessity of having a common language. Scholars haven’t found one yet, but they won’t stop searching for one till they find (or create) one which can satisfy our necessities.

(2b) Human beings have been destroying our planet since the most ancient times. Now, at the turning of the millennium, we can perceive some of the damages we had done to our world. We’ve got to a climax; now it’s not only the natural resources that are in danger. Maybe it will be impossible - within some years - to live a normal life in the Earth.

Although there are thousands of people making money by destroying rainforests, killing animals, dirtling the water, and so on, there are other millions who are trying really hard to stop this process. This people usually gather in associations or groups, like the Friends of the Earth, an institution which has no links to any party, don’t get or receive money to protect the environment and which needs the help of people who disagree with things that are going on in our planet and who want to take action in order to stop (or at least to ease) all this destruction.

(3a) “Friends of the Earth” is an internacional organization which has been involved for 20 years with the issue of environmental protection. Nowadays, we are watching a process of deteriotion in many aspects: rain forests are disappearing from the surface of the earth, the water from rivers and oceans has been polluted and humans beings breath an air no longer clean. For this reason, “Friends of the Earth” expects us to take real actions in order to protect our planet before being too late.

The organization keeps contact with political authorities and industries and mainly counts on public opinion to reinforce its attitudes towards the world’s welfare. But, what they stress is that the time is now and every citizen has to be concerned about the world’s present for the present might be an evaluation for future times.
With the idea of communication what comes up to our mind is language—written or spoken. Keeping the idea that in the whole world there are over 3000 different languages the issue of communication in an universal context tends to be impractical. Trying to overcome misunderstandings, some practical devices have been adopted. For example, since ancient times even today, signs have been used broadly and they might stand for records of cultural expressions or traffic signal.

However, it is hard to communicate ideas only throughout signs. Language—oral or written—is an important tool which has the power of gathering people and cultures around the world. For this reason, some scholars are trying to create a language which being considered as a pattern language might be spread all over the world and therefore, accepted as "basic" language for a common ground communication to take place.

The Search for a World Language

Since the world is created, people have been communicated by many ways. From the signs language to written and spoken languages many others have been still studied. Because of this diversity on ways to communicate, some scholars have studied about one world language to go through the barrier of not been understood any place you go.

Through out this search, scholars have discovered more than 3000 different languages. Studying them, scholars have organized a language which could be understood around the world. For this one they will call "Basic English" or "Basic Russian". There are others who decided to create a brand-new language which, in their view, will be easier to be learnt.

Nowadays we have already had a world language in the highways using the signs language, but this will never substitute the written or spoken language when talking about ideas.

Friends of the Earth

During this decade many damages have been made against the environment, as air and river pollution and forest devastation. All these environment destruction affects the human being, so it's time to do something to protect nature.

Going through this objective "Friends of the Earth" was organized. It hasn't any kind of integration with governments or public institutions. Friends of the Earth survives only with donations from its members or people who are engaged with the movement.

The nature could be yet save, it just depends on you. Help the "Friends of the Earth" making part of this movement.

Friends of the Earth

At present, we live in a world full of problems. But the problems related to the environment are, perhaps, the most dangerous for mankind. And these problems have to do with air and water pollution or any other damage done to the environment.

Facing this situation many people are trying to change it. And among the millions that are struggling to improve environment conditions, there is an organization that is doing a very good job - Friends of the Earth.

Friends of the Earth is an organization which funds on vital research. It really works. Its basic role is to call the attention of the politicians and the industries to environment problems and asks them for some help in this area. They also try to involve all the population in its work.

The organization works in many countries and it does not only criticize but it also gives solutions to environmental problems.
There are several languages around the world. Thus, it is very difficult for men to understand each other. To make things easier man has been trying to create new ways of communication. In this search for new ways, signs have been the most common method adopted by mankind in many fields of human’s activities.

But the signs does not cover all areas of communication. They are not very efficient. So, specialists and students are trying to simplicate their own languages. Therefore, it has been created the simple version of English language, for example. All over the world this is been done. And besides working with the languages that already exist some new kinds of languages are being created. These new languages are easier and people who are doing this kind of work have the hope of uniting the world with the language that they have created.

Friends of the Earth

"Friends of the Earth" is an ecological group that has been active since 1971. Its aim is to provide people with enough information as to alert them of how in danger our planet is due to environmental damage.

The group claims that many of our forests have been destroyed and, though, many accomplishments have already been achieved, there is still a lot to be done. They believe that public opinion is fundamental in order to get polititians and industries into taking action. They also call the attention to the fact that everyone’s help is needed and that nobody should take for granted that the environment has already had enough attention.

Therefore, Friends of the Earth calls everybody to join forces in their struggle against environmental abuse.

The great number of different languages throughout the world has created a need for unified language, one that would be spoken by everybody. As written language seemed to be a barrier, pictures were also used as an attempt for international communication. That’s why road signs are all represented by pictures.

Another attempt was the “invention” of new languages and the simplification of existing ones like English and Russian; they would be called “Basic English” and “Basic Russian”. These languages are all made as easy as possible so that they can be learned by everyone. The scholars who invented them hope their creations would become the new international language.

We are living in a decisive decade to our world. There are many things happening, as the global warming, the ending of ours rainforests, etc.

This group, called Friends of the Earth, intends to give support to protect the environment. They work with the public opinion, providing to them many information about the researches this group support.

Doing this, they persuade the politicians trying to change the environmental situation. Everybody has to be engaged with this cause. They need our support, because then will be able to do more for the world.

Communication is very important, and to do that, people have to understand each other. But how? There are 3000 different languages in the world, the most part of the nations cannot understand their neighbours’ language.

Because of that, men are trying to choose a language that could supply this necessity. They created courses of “Basic English”, “Basic Russian”, intending to simplicate communication among peoples.

However, it is not sufficient. In spite of this, they tried to create a brand-new language, that could go through all the differences and similarities among the tongues. But this is a very difficult job. At this times, the only way we still have to communicate ourselves in a language we don’t know, is using signs.
A search for a world language

There are almost 3000 different languages in all the world. We mean written and spoken language. However, these are not the only ways to nations or tribes communicate to each other because there are picture language and sign languages used by American Indians. But all of them, even written or spoken languages, are difficult to be learned for all nations and tribes, to become the world language.

Lately, many scholars have tried to create a brand-new language to be adopted for all countries, based on basic grammar of each language.

The problem is very difficult to be solved, but a world language would permit peoples to communicate to each other using something common to everyone.

Friends of the Earth

Our planet needs our help: the rainforest is reducing, the air and water pollution are increasing and the weather is becoming hotter, so we have to act, to help our planet and ourselves.

There is a group called Friends of the Earth that is always defending the Earth. The group works with the help of some political parties but without being aligned to them. Its goal is to protect the water on the Earth, the air and the Nature by teaching people and industry how to do their part.

Beside the fact there are many people working to protect Nature, you also can help them doing the same.

The text is about an institution that works on environmental causes. It is called Friends of the Earth, and it has been existing for about 20 years. In the first part of the text, they talk about the damages that are being made to the world, as water and air pollution, devastation of the rainforests, etc. And then they say that people shouldn’t think that there are too much people worrying about this cause already.

In the second part, they start talking about the institution itself - what they do, who they work with, what is their purpose. They say they provide a lot of money for vital research, and for making their cause a strong one. Every week they provide thousands of people with a lot of information about environment causes, as well as with positive suggestions to make things better. And then, they finally say that they could do a lot more with our help.

The text comments on the constant need people have of searching for a new language that will establish communication among all the nations of the country. At first people tried to adopt the drawing system (used by the American Indians), but the peoples have different interpretations.

Then the countries have tried to invent languages as “Basic English”, or “Basic Russian” in the hope that it would be used as an universal language which would unify the world.

Men depend on the languages to communicate each other. There are more than 3000 different languages in the world, so the communication among all nations and tribes is not possible, no matter if we are referring to written or spoken language. The search for a world language is, in fact, the search for a common understanding among cultures.

In order to achieve this goal, people have developed many ways of communication without using words. As an example of these ways, we may mention the highway signs, which are adopted throughout the world. The American Indians use pictures and gestures to be understood. The problem with this technique is that it’s quite difficult to supply all human needs just with movements and pictures.

This leads some scholars to invent some languages or to create simplified versions of world’s existing tongues. They are easier and simpler to be learned and taught. They call these
made' languages "Basic English" or "Basic Portuguese", and they hope these modern versions will be adopted internationally.

Friends of the Earth
Air pollution, sea pollution, warming of the Earth - these are some of the problems which men are facing in 1990's, a make or break decade for our lives in the planet. We are living in a crucial time from which there may be no turning back.

Many people are worried with the conditions of our planet today. These men and women, who don't belong to any nation, have been trying to find ways to change this period of destruction. Unfortunately they are not enough to win this case by themselves and we have to get involved. Fortunately,

Friends of the Earth have been in the forefront of this struggle since the 70's. They are a positive force trying to mobilize public opinion and to call ordinary people's attention for the healthy of our planet. They have no political parties, although all of them support Friends of the Earth.

This group needs your help to do more.

"The search for a world language" talks about the need for a common language to all the peoples throughout the world. It tells the difficulty in communicating needs and ideas among nations and tribes which don't use the same language. The use of the sign (or pictures) language in traffic signs to communicate internationally, and the urge for a common written and spoken language. As the text says, we need to get across ideas in a complete way, and just pictures or gestures can't communicate everything. So, that's the reason for so many scholars studying and simplifying the "real" languages and many others creating brand-new languages, more simple and easier to learn.

Friends of the Earth
The text talks about the environmental problems we have nowadays, and that the battle for a better quality of life and the rescue of our world from the complete decadence is just beginning.

Friends of the Earth is one of the environmental groups that are in the forefront of this battle. They work for increasing the quality of life by means of saving and preserving the wildlife and forests. But this is just one of the things they fight for. They also work together with all political parties (though they are not linked to any) and ordinary people, providing information and help to whatever they wish to do in order to save the Earth from a sad destiny.

Searching for common understanding
Human beings fully depend on language for their survival, but with an amount of about 3000 different spoken languages throughout the world and the limitations of "non-lingual" languages, sometimes it is pretty difficult to overcome linguistic barriers, and communication gets stuck.

So people have long tried to work out ways of having the world communicate by using one common language. However, the existing natural languages have proved inadequate for such a role, so there has been attempts of simplifying some of them and even of creating artificial languages that, according to the "creators", would meet the need for world comprehension. Despite all these efforts, none of these languages has been put into practice effectively, so they remain as a hope of common undestanding in the future.

Friends of the Earth
We are all at risk, for our planet is under threatening menaces to Nature. Deforestation and pollution are almost at the limit that Earth can bear, so we must start doing something to stop it
before it’s too late. Although there are many people already involved in saving the plane, this is a cause to be defended by everyone - including you- because there’s still a long way to go.

Friends of the Earth is a non-governamental institution that was created in 1971 and has leaded environmental causes since then. They act in all fronts, without attaching themselves to any political party, and they try to keep the public informed of the dangers of the aggressions to Nature as well as of the solutions found out by research to minimize the effects of such aggressions. So, Friends of the Earth are now asking you to join them in this struggle and to give them your support.

(13a) Friends on Earth

During the 1990s we saw all the environmental changes our world suffered - the rainforests are disappearing, the pollution of air and of water are increasing, the global warming has been bringing us all sorts of catastrophic climate changes. By making people aware of all nature disasters, giving them information, Friends on Earth, as a great deal of people, have been working in order to stop the damage before it is too late.

Maybe you think that it means you shouldn’t do anything to help this people in their fight and that the environment has a lot of people interested in protect Earth, but this is too further from truth - our world still need to be protected and Friends on Earth need more people following the same positive way.

Friends on Earth funds for vital research and tries to spread information about the environment. They have been working for 20 years but they still need people to support the project and they still are trying to make things better.

(13b) The text discuss the role of different languages in our world, they are more than 3000, and the idea of using just one language which could be understood by all people around the world. According to the author, people have already tried to make them understood by using no language, through non spoken languages but they still couldn’t be understood by all. Some people have also tried to create simpler languages that could be easily learnt but they didn’t work at all.

(14a) Nowadays there is a great need of having an international language which would be used throughout the world. There are 3000 different kinds of spoken or written languages. One solution that is being used in modern international highways is the use of pictures in the signs. Pictures are easily understood by almost all nations. Some scholars have studied living languages in the search of the best one, others have created brand-new ones. But the need of a common language is still a problem.

(14b) Friends of the Earth

Many damages are threatening our environment. Everyone should be concerned with these problems because humans depend on nature to survive.

Friends of the Earth has been acting and fighting since 1971. The group not only opposes environment abuse but also suggests positive actions easy to be carried on. The group try to keep people well informed on what is happening to the world “health”.

(15a) Since our world is having a lot of enviromental problems, such as air and water being polluted and the rainforests being destructed, many important organizations (or groups) have been appearing. Besides the well known “Greenpeace” there is another important one called “Friends of the Earth”. Its main goal is giving information to people about enviromental abuses around the world and persuading politics and industry to take actions- internationally, nationally and locally. It is not aligned to any political party and its actions depend more on people support.
(15b) Nowadays we have more than 3000 spoken languages around the world and, since human beings need communicating each others, people are trying to find out a basic language (universal) that could be used by everybody. They have thought about sign language or American writing picture language but it is difficult to get the words from gestures, for example. Young people have also tried, creating what they call “basic English” or “basic Russian” and they hope it will work some day and everybody will speak the same “basic” language.

(16a) Friends of the Earth is a forefront in the battle against environment damage. Air and water pollution, global warming are one of the problems that the group is fighting against.

Friends of the Earth believes in the information to empower its public. Thousands of people are getting involved to this group which wants the support of people.

(16b) We have many different languages in our world. Each country has its real language that people use for communicating one to another by writing or speaking.

There are other ways for communication such as signs or pictures. Pictures works as an international language, but we cannot express ourselves in pictures.

This way, some people are searching for a way to make a new “world-language” where anyone will understand the other one.

(17a) Friends of the Earth

Environmental problems are very important nowadays, since we are reaching a critical point, which can be fatal. That is why Friends of the Earth informs and empowers people, in order to suggest them a positive way to help saving our planet.

Friends of the Earth give politicians and industry alternative ways to solve the problem. But they cannot work by themselves. That is why they are asking people to help them and so that, help our world.

(17b) Search for a World Language

There are more than 3000 different languages throughout the world today. Therefore, there are people from a group that cannot understand people from another, at least by speaking or writing.

Of course signs and pictures are quite universal, but they are difficult to understand by themselves. That is why there are people trying to adopt real languages in a way they can become a world language. Others are trying to create brand-new artificial languages.

If one of these worked out we will be able to understand everybody, in despite of their mother tongue.

(18a) My text talks about Friends of the Earth, a non-governmental organization which deals with environmental issues. It says that the 90s are the years (in fact, the decade) of decision in terms of environment, because a lot of things, such as global warming, air and water pollution, have been happening and if we do not take an attitude, we will suffer. It also talks about the activities of the Friends of the Earth: they fund researches, they mobilize the public opinion and politicians, industry...they provide people with information and ways to help in the environment. In sum, they ask our help to save the world.

(18b) The Search for a World Language

The text talks about the languages of the world in terms of understanding. It says that there are over 3000 languages today, and there is no common language between the peoples of the world.

They say that we can use different ways to express what we mean which not the language: pictures, gestures...But we cannot say all we want through pictures and gestures. So, linguists
have tried to make out a “world language”, one which would be accepted and adopted by all
countries and all peoples, but it’s not easy, because we would choose “Basic English” or “Basic
Russian” to communicate? It’s a hard task, and we haven’t find a solution so far yet.

(19a) Friends of the Earth
Friends of the Earth are people who are involved in protect our planet. Our enviroment
has changed a lot in the 1990s. If we don’t protect it maybe in the future will be late. Friends of
the Earth are very involved in this campaign. They are fighting every week against the polution
and they want that the people become involved in this campaign too. Friends of the Earth collect
funds in order to make reasearches and relies about the enviroment. They believed that all kinds
of information need to be show to the public about the enviroment damage and about what they
are doing to preserve our planet.

(19b) The Search for a World Language
We depend upon language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men. But we
have a problem about the language. There are alm ost 3000 and different languages spoken
throughout the world. There are some researches about a non-lingual languages where instead of
words you are going to use pictures and gestures in order to have a world communication
(language). But it’s not sure that this kind of new language will have a positive answered. So, the
researchers had maybe that English will be a world language, or Russian for example. Finally,
you agree that no living language seems to answer the need for a common tongue.

(20a) Friends of the Earth
Today, our planet is suffering a lot of damages against its environment, such as air and
water polution, catastrofic climate changes, etc. And the 1990’s is the dead-line for us to do
something to help the world.

Friends of the Earth is an organisation that counts on you to help the environment. They
support vital research and show to people what is happening to our planet. So, they persuade
politicians and industries to take action to save the planet. An important thing - they work with
political parties, but they are not engaged with no one. So, their approach is to inform the public
and suggest that they can do something to change the problems of the world.

A lot of things have been done in the last 20 years, but they have to do much more.
However, they need your support to help them.

(20b) Different ways of saying “Hello”all over the world
When we think about the communication between people all over the world, we realize
that there are a lot of different languages throughout our planet. There are more than 3000
languages all over our world today and it is not difficult to find tribes and different peoples that
have problems in comunication because they do not understand each other.

Some people have also tryed to develop another kind of language, as the signs, symbols
and pictures. The international highway signs are usually understood without problems because
they do not have written words. However, written and spoken language is necessary to the
communication.

So, some scholars have tryed to develop a kind of “neutral”language, which could be
easily understood by all peoples. They tryed to simplify some known languages changing their
structures, such as in “Basic English” or “Basic Russian”. But some scholars tryed also to invent
a “new” language that could be taught all over the world to be the “comunicative” one.

(21a) The text I read was about the search for a world language. It is stated that people around
the world need to communicate each other and sometimes it is impossible due to the language
barrier. There are people and tribes that can communicate each other. The modern international
highway signs points to a “non-lingual” language, for instance: gestual language and picture writings, because this could be well understood all around the world. It is affirmed too that scholars have worked out lately some languages called “Basic English” or “Basic Russian” and so on in order to make people understand each other. Some other scholars are developing brand new languages which are easier and simpler to learn. So, they are trying to solve the problem of the communication throughout the world.

(21b) The text I’ve read was about an organization called Friends of the Earth which aim is to mobilise and inform people all around the world always having in mind the ecology on planet. They are concerned about pollution, rain forests, increasing of the temperature on the planet and all kind of enviromental problem. Friends of the Earth exists since 1971 and they try to persuade politicians and industry to not cause harm to Nature. They are not aligned to parties but they try to reach all of them. Friends of the Earth is looking for people to support their actions all around the world.

(22a) The earth has never been in a situation so dangerous about environmental damage. The pollution in the air and water, and the warming in the atmosphere have increased every day. And, in a near future, it can means changes in the climate, what would be catastrophic.

In order to make people be concerned about this problems and try to find solutions for them, a group called Friends of the Earth has mobilized the public opinion. They act with many parties but are not aligned to any one.

As people think there are many people involved in the cause, they don’t do anything. Friends of the Earth afford researchs to base their speech because they believe that people need be informed about the situation. So, they can change it. But they can’t afford the movement alone, and ask for people’s help.

(22b) Searching for a common language

In the whole world, there are more than 3000 languages used for different communities. In order to get communication, these groups have to surpass the language barrier using methods beyond the spoken words or written ones. The way that was found to solve the problem was the communication made using pictures. Now, in the high ways, the signs are represented by pictures instead of words, what amplifies the possibilities of comprehension.

But, just some ideas can be expressed in pictures. Language is still the more efficient method. So, many scholars in the world have been searching for a common system of writing and speaking. They do this simplifying the already used idioms in basic forms, but no one has been successful and they are still trying to formulate one that will permit the world understanding.

(23a) Nowadays, there are about 3000 languages in use around the world. This means that there are a great deal of people that cannot understand each other. In this case, people have invented another ways of communicating such as the sign language of North American Indians and writting pictures. As figures can be widely understood, highway signs are through them. Even though sometimes it might be not easy to figure out what gestures and pictures mean. So, in order to improve world communication, scholars have been trying to create a world language. Some of them are called “Basic English”, or “Basic Russian”, and others are quite new easier and simpler than any other existing language. Yet, the scholars hope that people start to use them.

(23b) Friends of the Earth

It’s now or never. Environment cannot wait anymore. We need to do something about it. Although there are people working in this cause, it is not enough. They need you also. There is a battle against enviroment destruction and Friends of the Earth is fighting in it.
What they has been doing, since 1971, is to campaign and mobilise public opinion in order to persuade politicians and industries that this is a worthy cause. Not only locally but also internationally. Yet, above the fight against environmental abuses they propose constructive solutions. They will do whatever is necessary to save mother Earth.

Informing and empowering the public, is one of the ways to win the battle. Providing positive solution is another important one. Join the cause, it is your business also!!

Friends of the Earth
Luton Beds LUI2XZ

(24a) The 1990 is a fundamental decade for changing in the environment process. The constant destruction of our tropical forests, the global warming and the damage in environment as a whole should be prevented before it is too late. Thus, we cannot just sit and wait for the other.

“Friends of the Earth” is a non-govermental association which during the last 20 years has been concerned to the environment cause. It has been ahead promoting researches and working with the public itself, as well as trying to obtain international, national and local support.

What are you waiting for, come and join us!

(24b) The need for a common language

When we think about language, what usually comes to our minds is communication whether by writing or reading; which are extremely necessary to establish the contact among men. Nevertheless, throughout the world, almost 3000 languages are spoken, what means that many tribes and countries cannot always communicate one another using spoken or written communication. Thus, they have to break the “barriers” of the language either by gestures or non-verbal communication.

Anyway, communication without words may not always be understood. Therefore, many scholars and scientists are trying to accomplish a common language which has to be more simple and accessible to all the world.

(25a) A Search for a World Language

In our everyday lives we need language to communicate our needs and ideas to fellow men. So we use spoken and written language. There are about 3000 different spoken languages in use in the world. We can imagine how many nations and tribes can never understand each other.

In order to overcome this spoken and written language barrier, men, for centuries, have tried to find out a world language, that means a language which can be understood by all throughout the world.

With this attempt many scholars have tried to simplified existing languages called them “Basic English” or “Basic Russian”. Others have tried to work out a brand-new language, different from any world “real” language. In both cases, scholars hope that their “made” languages will become, one day, a world language, understood by all.

(25b) Friends of the Earth

The 1990’s are the age of big catastrophes: the world’s rainforests are disappearing; water pollution; air pollution, etc. And when we see all these things we think that we do not have means to help our world.

Since 1971, Friends of the Earth is working to protect our environment. It is a institution that tries to mobilise the public opinion in order to persuade politicians to take decisions. Friends of the Earth wants to stop the damage in our environment. And little by little there are more people involved in this project. In the last twenty years Friends of the Earth increased very much.
(26a) Friends of the Earth
The 1990's is the make or break decade of our world.
The rainforests are disappearing ... air and water pollution are increasing ... the environment has been damaged. Many people are very concerned about the situation and maybe you think that you don't have to get involved or that there are enough people involved. Nothing can be so far away from truth.
The Friends of the Earth are struggling to stop environmental damage. We can't afford to wait. The Friends of the Earth inform and empower the public opinion about the situation, and also campaigning and mobilize politicians and industry to take action - internationally, nationally and locally.
Many has been accomplished in the last 20 years. But it was never so needed.
We can do more - with your help.

(26b) The Search for a World Language
In our everyday lives we depend upon languages to communicate to our fellows. Nowadays there are about 3000 languages around the world, which means that there are tribes and nations that will never communicate to each other, unless they discover a means to overcome the language barrier. There are people trying to work out one language that could be understood by everybody in everywhere.
However, we can also communicate through other languages, as signs and pictures. The highway code uses signs which are spread all over the world. But we can not use only signs to communicate, and a language that can unite all the peoples has always been looked for.
There are scientists that have claimed to be created simplified languages based on real ones. They are: “basic Russian”, “basic English”, etc. And there are people who worked out artificial languages in the hope of having discovered the key to communication.

(27a) The text deals with an organization called “Friends of the Earth” which is actively involved with the 1990's enviroment catastrophes. The group states that there are millions of people worried with this matter, and that they are working for its solution. But, this fact does not mean that we do not have to do something. “Friends of the Earth” is asking for help. We have to do something to stop the damages we provoked.
The organization works with all political parties, but it is affiliated to none. It believes that people may be informed and empowered with enviroment issues, and it is done.

(27b) Language, written or spoken, is used for communication between people. There are 3000 different languages in the world, but a common language is searched. This will possibilitated an inter-action between all countries. Visual languages, pictures, signals, ... are used with this intention although written texts can not be substituted by images sometimes. We can find basic languages as “basic english” or “basic russian”, but there is not a common language for all the world. Some researchers are trying to find/or create a language simplier in syntax, for example.