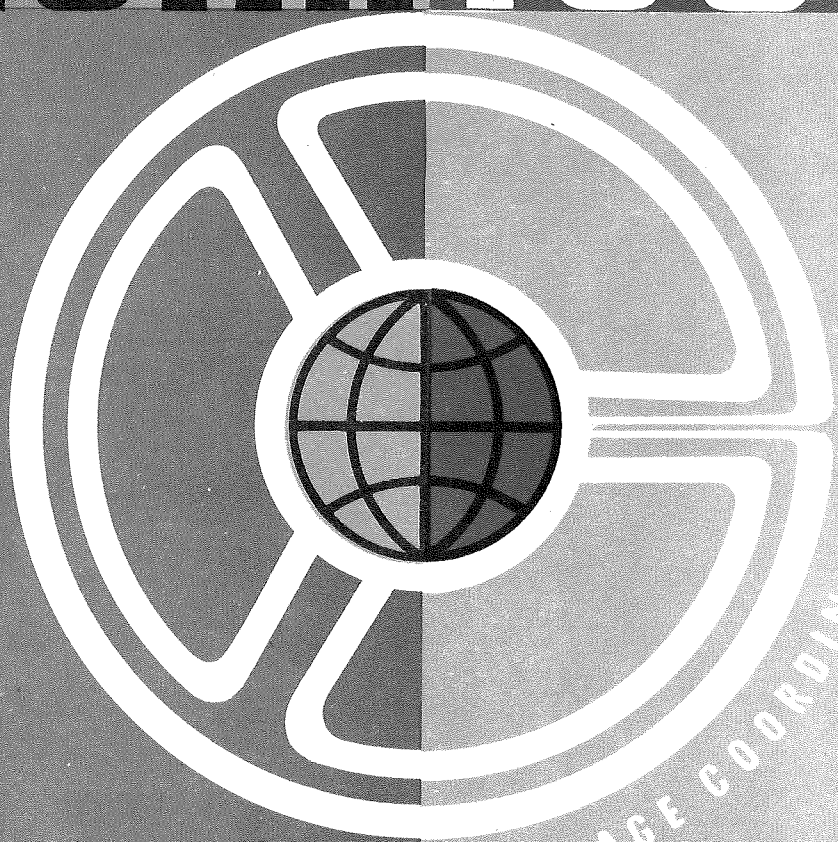


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This third issue of the BILC Bulletin continues on lines similar to the previous two publications. Of special interest is the article describing the founding of the Federal Language Office in Germany, which representatives of member countries attended in July 1969. This is a most important development and a great contribution to the advancement of language training and linguistic interchange within N A T O . The other articles each deal with matters in the field of language experiment and research and provide a valuable contribution to linguistic thought.

This issue also marks a change of editor. Lt.Col. C.C. Wardle has now taken over from Lt.Col. J. Waters, who has retired from the Service. We take this opportunity to thank him for his splendid efforts for BILC since its foundation, and wish him health and happiness in his retirement.

Ce numéro - le troisième - du Bulletin du Bureau de coordination linguistique internationale continue dans le sens des deux numéros antérieurs. D'un intérêt particulier pour les membres du BILC est l'article qui décrit la création de l'Office fédéral des langues en Allemagne, à laquelle des représentants des nations membres du BILC assistèrent au mois de juillet 1969. Ceci est un développement des plus importants et qui fera une grande contribution au progrès de l'enseignement de langues et des échanges linguistiques au sein de l'OTAN. Les autres articles traitent à leur tour des sujets dans le domaine de l'expérimentation et des recherches linguistiques, et constituent une contribution de valeur à la pensée linguistique.

Ce numéro marque un changement de rédacteur. Le Lieutenant Colonel C. Wardle a maintenant remplacé le Lieutenant Colonel J. Waters, qui a pris sa retraite du Service. Nous profitons de l'occasion pour le remercier de ses efforts splendides au compte du BILC depuis la création de celui-ci, et nous lui souhaitons bonne santé et bonheur pendant sa retraite.

THE "GROUP TRAINER"
A PORTABLE ELECTRONIC AID IN THE ACTIVE PHASE
OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

by E. Essex

Head of English Curriculum Department, Canadian Forces Language School

Since the advent of the structural approach to language teaching and the recognition of linguistic science as a reliable source of guidance in determining courses and methodology, great emphasis has been laid on the elementary stages and the passive aspect of language learning. It is the author's belief that it is the active, expressive stage of the learning process which presents the greatest problem. In this article some of these problems are touched upon, and the "Group Trainer" is suggested as a possible remedy. In submitting his thoughts for publication in the BILC Bulletin the author is prompted by the firm conviction that this simple device and the teaching technique involved can, in the hands of competent teachers, bring about a very considerable improvement in the ability of students to feel "at home" with a second language and to use it unself-consciously as a means of verbal intercourse.

Let it be stated right from the start that this "Group Trainer" is neither a class-room laboratory, nor a teaching machine: no complex recording equipment is involved, as the device is not a substitute for, but what might be called a "ramification" of the teacher's voice. It might be said that in some respects the device is an antidote to some of the less desirable side effects of the mental conditioning which is an almost inevitable concomitant of laboratory learning and structural drilling.

In this article the author will give:
- an account of the experience and observation which led to the conception of the "Group Trainer";

- comments on the advantages and problems of group work;
- a brief description of the "Group Trainer";
- an example of its use;
- a statement of the results obtained;
- suggested reasons for these results and a consideration of the factors affecting the development of oral expression;
- a contrast between the language lab and the "Group Trainer";
- some suggestions for possible application of the "Group Trainer";
- conclusion.

Experience and Observation

While conducting oral practice with his high-school French classes of twenty or so students, the author became aware of certain conditions which prevented his students from getting enough out of the time available. The size and the acoustic imperfections of the class-rooms made it difficult for the students to hear distinctly what was being said by the other members of the class. The result was a lagging of interest and an unjustifiable loss of confidence in their powers of aural comprehension. In the course of a 45-minute period each student had very little time to say anything. Furthermore, the weaker students were diffident about speaking before the whole class for fear of appearing stupid in the eyes of the "bright boys" or the inimical classmates.

When more advanced classes were asked to prepare talks for homework, there was never enough time to hear them all in the one period on the following day. In those periods involving the discussion of subjects of general interest, or books read for homework there was never enough time to give all the students a chance to speak; for each student the greater part of the period was spent in listening either to his classmates or to his teacher.

The obvious answer to the problem was to reduce the size of the classes; but, as this was impossible, group work seemed the only alternative.

Group Work without the "Group Trainer"

So many eminent scholars have written exhaustive articles on the use of group work in language teaching (F. L. Billows in his "Techniques of Language Teaching", to name but one) that it would be superfluous to expatiate upon its obvious merits: the added time available for oral expression, the stimulating catalyst of co-operation and friendly competition, and the acoustic advantage brought about by the close proximity of the members of each group. However, the author would like to call special attention to one advantage which can be gained from well-organized group work, namely the possibility of forming harmonious social clusters of individuals who, being mutually attracted, will have a natural desire to engage in oral communication. To achieve this end in establishing groups it has been found most effective first to select as group leaders those members of the class who seem most dynamic and communicative and then to allow them in turn to pick the members of their groups. Almost inevitably the choice will be made on the basis, not of linguistic proficiency, but of compatibility.

Great as the advantages of group work may be, certain problems do arise. However well chosen and well planned the group activities may be, the teacher must be aware of what is actually being done during the period and how well it is being done. He has also to make sure that his own time is used to good effect in correcting errors and giving help when needed. In order to achieve these aims he must move from group to group throughout the lesson. He cannot call across the room to answer questions, or he will distract the students' attention from their group activities and cause them to gradually raise their voices in order to make themselves heard. When the teacher joins a particular group, however affable he may be, it is likely that his physical presence will disrupt the flow of conversation, impose a certain restraint and modify the atmosphere of "communicatio inter pares" which, as will be discussed later, is one of the most salutary aspects of group work.

While the teacher is engrossed with one group, it is impossible for other groups, who may be in need of immediate assistance in solving perhaps small but vital problems, to draw his attention without disturbance. Consequently they either let the points go, or wait patiently and waste valuable time.

However, unfortunately, conscientious and well motivated a class may be, whether it consists of adults or children, the teacher cannot be sure that the groups other than the one with which he is engaged are working as well or as profitably as possible.

The purpose of the "Group Trainer" is to minimize these problems and to render group work as effective as possible.

The "Group Trainer" - Description

The "Group Trainer" is essentially a simple battery-operated portable intercommunication system which can be used in any class-room furnished with chairs and movable table-type desks. The teacher's console is equipped with "activated" headphones, signal lights operated from the group stations, switches to contact the groups a spring-loaded speak-listen lever and a volume control. For each group there is a microphone-loudspeaker specially designed to give a V-shaped 360 degree horizontal reception area and equipped with a baffle plate to reduce interference from room-noise to a minimum. The only control on the group station is a button which, when depressed, illuminates one of the signal lights on the teacher's console. The teacher can listen and speak to any group at will. If a student wishes to speak to the teacher, he simply depresses the signal button and the teacher responds as soon as he is free.

The carrying case forms the teacher's console and is designed to house the five or six group stations. The time required to move desks into group positions and to set up the student stations is 90 seconds, once the routine is established. The same time is, of course, required to re-align the desks and encase the equipment at the end of the period.

The fact that the equipment is portable means that the teacher can carry it with him from class to class and use it immediately it is required. He does not have to predetermine his lesson plan to fit in with a rigid school timetable, or waste time conducting his class elsewhere as could be the case if the equipment were permanently installed in a special room. Ideally every language teacher would be provided with the equipment so that he had it available at all times.

The "Group Trainer" in Use - Its Advantages

Without at this point discussing all the activities possible with group work, let us take for example a period in which students are to give prepared talks and afterwards to answer their group-mates questions.

The groups are in place, the equipment is set up and the lesson begins. The group leader's prime functions are to ensure the best use is made of the time available and that it is fairly distributed amongst the members of the group, that the tone of voice is kept at a reasonable level, that all students are working all the time, either speaking or critically listening, and that, when disputable points arise they are referred to the teacher.

The talks begin. As the students are seated so closely together, every word is clearly heard without effort. Interest and attention are maintained at a high level. Whenever a question arises, the teacher is contacted and his voice comes over the group station FAR MORE CLEARLY THAN IT WOULD FROM THE FRONT OF THE CLASS-ROOM. There is not the same disturbance of the work as there would be, if the teacher were to join the group in person. The group knows that, if the response is not immediate because the teacher is at the moment engaged in conversation with another group, their appeal is registered and will be dealt with as soon as possible - it will not be allowed to slip by.

Occasionally the teacher's voice will join in to ask a question, or to make a correction. The group has the feeling that interest is being taken in what they are doing, but that they will not be interrupted unnecessarily. The sound of voices from the other busily-occupied groups gives an added stimulus; we all know how infectious the sound of conversation can be - at least those of us who have listened to birds in an aviary or guests at a cocktail party! The atmosphere of the class-room is one of social verbal intercourse with the MASTER VOICE OF THE TEACHER WELL IN THE BACKGROUND.

And what will the teacher be doing in the background? First he will test the operational volume of the "Group Trainer" and adjust it according to the acoustic qualities of the particular class-room so that his voice

over the group stations is loud enough to be distinct within each group, but not loud enough to disturb the others.

Then he will quickly listen to each group in turn to ensure that all goes well. He will find that the CLARITY OF RECEPTION ENABLES HIM TO EVALUATE PRECISELY THE QUALITY OF EACH STUDENT'S PRONUNCIATION. He has the whole class in view, and the signal lights on his console will ENABLE HIM TO KNOW IMMEDIATELY WHEN AND WHERE HIS HELP IS REQUIRED. HE WILL NOT HAVE TO DISTURB AND OVERSHADOW THE FREE OPERATION OF THE GROUPS BY MOVING CONSTANTLY FROM GROUP TO GROUP.

When his help is not requested, he will spend a certain time in contact with each group, listening to their communication, taking part in the questioning and interrupting when necessary to correct grave errors, or to give special help and encouragement to the weaker students. Essentially he will listen to as much as possible, join in the activities as unobtrusively as possible and interrupt only when it is absolutely necessary.

The Results Obtained

In the author's experience the most immediate and readily discernible results of his introducing the "Group Trainer" technique were the heightening of enthusiasm and the untiring concentration and application of the students. They became less self-conscious when using the second language, and their comprehension and fluency improved considerably. What is more, the author observed that the students were becoming more and more eager to make active use of the language and were gaining evident pleasure and satisfaction out of their efforts. Even the weakest students seemed to find new courage in face of the challenge; they no longer retreated into an embarrassed silence at every mistake they made.

Although initial experimentation with an amateurish adaptation of a standard commercial intercommunication system was carried out in French classes at Mount Royal High School between 1959 and 1962, the main period of experimentation and development was between 1962 and 1966 at Lower Canada College, where the author was Head of the French Department. The "Group Trainer" was used during this period in grades 8, 10, 11 and 12. There was very marked improvement in oral achievement during this period. The im-

provement was reflected in the results of the junior and senior matriculation examinations. Finally, in 1966 in a grade 10 class all the students, with whom the "Group Trainer" had been used extensively in the final year of training, passed the junior matriculation examination in French one year ahead of time, gaining a class average higher than that of any of the grade 11 classes taking the same examinations at the same time.

The author hastens to add that, impressive as these results may at first sight appear, their validity as conclusive evidence of the efficacy of the "Group Trainer" technique is compromised by the fact that on joining the staff of Lower Canada College the author simultaneously with the introduction of the "Group Trainer" instituted two other techniques and a supplementary course which may have contributed not a little to the over-all improvement in proficiency in the spoken language. These innovations were the use in grades 10-12 of tape-recordings of French radio news bulletins, a voluntary French summer school staffed mainly by French-speaking Canadian teachers and the replacement in an experimental class through grades 8 and 9 of formal French instruction by a course in Canadian history taught entirely in French by a most competent French-speaking Canadian. It was, in fact, this particular class which was so successful in passing the grade 11 public examinations in French one year ahead of time.

However, the author's confidence in the value of the "Group Trainer" as a means of rendering the technique of group teaching more effective is based not on matriculation results - which, incidentally, depending as they do to some extent on factual knowledge of prescribed texts, are not entirely reliable indications of oral proficiency - but on his own observation and evaluation of his students' progress, and on his convictions as to which factors in the teaching process stimulate and develop free oral expression in a second language and which ones militate against it.

Factors Affecting the Development of Powers of Oral Expression

The author shares the conviction of Professor Wallace E. Lambert expressed in an article appearing in "Teaching English as a Second Language", Harold B. Allen (McGraw-Hill), in which it is stated that the development of skill in a second language "depends on the active use of the language in communicational settings". For a minimal "communicational setting" there

must be at least two articulate creatures in a relationship which makes it necessary or desirable to originate and interchange meaningful signals.

Interpreted at the human level the existence of such a setting postulates certain conditions:

- (i) Two rational human beings - not one man in isolation with a machine;
- (ii) a situation in which each of the human beings originates the signals - they are not imposed from an outside source;
- (iii) meaningful signals - not just vocal reflexes to auditory stimuli;
- (iv) subjects of communication which are of interest or importance to both the originator and the recipient of the signals;
- (v) an affinity between the communicators which stimulates the desire to engage in verbal intercourse.

In answer to a questionnaire recently addressed to the staff of the Canadian Forces Language School one junior teacher wrote: "We teach our students how to drill, but, when they speak, they do not use what they have learnt." This remark is patently an inadvertent admission on the part of the teacher that she does not understand the role of the structural drill in the teaching process, and that obviously she has been spending too much time on purely manipulatory exercises; but at the same time it does remind us of the dangers of devoting too much time to passive learning - the strictly controlled and well-defined routines involved in establishing automatic responses to verbal stimuli - and the consequent difficulties encountered when it comes to those activities which are necessary to wean students from the "master voice" and to enable them to gain control, confidence and ability in using language as a means of spontaneous expression.

The development of habits of any kind surely involves two processes of mental conditioning: some modification which makes action possible without conscious thought, and the gradual surrender of mental autonomy in certain areas to a superior force. In language teaching such conditioning processes must be operative to some extent in such activities as habit-forming

drills and the purely rote learning of dialogues. It is conceivable that, if such activities of passive learning were over-emphasized, the conditioning processes would lead to situations in which students would only speak when spoken to and, by a gradual dissociation of speech from the cognitive functions of the mind, would find it increasingly difficult to make any spontaneous utterances originating in their own thoughts.

The author recalls all too well his experiences of taking over grade 8 students who, having been subjected in grades 6 and 7 to courses consisting mainly of catechismal learning of grammatical rules, the learning of set answers to set questions, and the rote memorization of dialogues, plays and stories, could recite with great fluency, but were completely nonplussed when it came to answering the simplest original question.

At the other end of the scale we can learn a lesson from the multilingual waiter who, with average intelligence and a minimum of formal language training can use several languages, albeit perhaps within a limited field, as a means of free oral expression. The majority of those waiters questioned by the author in the course of informal research in the hotels and restaurants in Montreal declared that the greater part of their learning process had consisted of "picking up" the language "on the job", in other words, in "communicational settings".

In assessing the contribution made by the structural approach (a modification mainly in the passive phase of language instruction) towards the apparent over-all improvement in modern language teaching in the U.S.A., it would be interesting to evaluate all the factors contributing to this improvement. There are the high-pressure time-saving techniques developed under the military urgency of the Second World War and the post-war period of military involvement overseas, and reflected in the work of the Defence Language Institutes from which, wherever possible, the students are sent immediately after their training to areas where they can use the language they have learnt in "communicational settings". The immigrants to the U.S.A. are, nolens volens, in an almost exclusively English-speaking environment which gives them, concurrently with their formal language training, daily practice in the active phase of language learning. In this cursory glance at some of the factors influencing the progress of language learning we must not ignore the significant contribution made by television and radio over the past twenty years.

In our consideration of those factors which contribute to and those which impede oral competence in a second language it might be well to take an honest look at what we might call "the pre-structural era". In spite of the rather condescending references made by some modern linguists and authors of avant-garde language courses to the "traditional methods of language teaching" - whatever this rather sweeping appellation may connote - it is significant to note that in many high-schools in England and Europe students became fluent in two or more foreign languages by the time they finished their training in the fifth or sixth forms (eleventh or twelfth grades) without the aid of language labs and what have you. Why? Perhaps because their teachers were mostly masters of their subject and, in spite of what seems to be commonly believed, they spent more class time in oral communication than in purely formative exercises. Furthermore, most of the competent and successful teachers encouraged their students to take advantage of the student-exchange system whereby it was possible for the students in their vacations to practice in "communicational settings" what they had learnt in the class-room during the term. If the students were well matched, these exchanges provided almost ideal communicational settings. Two students of about the same age sharing common interests and drawn together by a common objective, the learning of another language, voluntarily decided to spend two or three weeks together in the friendly, informal atmosphere of one another's homes and engaged in a project of mutual help in a variety of normal everyday situations.

The author maintains that, no matter by what means the form and content of a second language is implanted in the minds of the students - and there is no doubt that the structural approach is most effective - the final success of the students in really possessing the language as a means of communication depends largely upon the active phase of its acquisition. It is an indisputable fact that many people have an excellent reading and listening comprehension of languages other than their native tongue, but through lack of training in the active use of the languages they are quite unable to use them as means of communication.

The teacher's job, therefore, is to make sure that, once a sufficient body of structures and vocabulary has been assimilated, the active use of the language forms a major part of the class activities. To this end the "Group Trainer" can play an important role in that it facilitates free communication under what might be called the "remote control" of the teacher.

The Language Lab and the "Group Trainer"

Those teachers who, through experience, self-criticism, an ability to sense the pulse of their classes and the gradual adoption of certain well-tried techniques, are confident that their teaching is effective, will naturally look with critical caution at any new teaching aid that may be proposed. Before being willing to give it serious consideration they will have to feel the need for it and be convinced that it will appreciably improve their teaching. If not, they will rightfully reject it until perhaps at a later date statistical evidence convinces them that it is at least worth a try.

When the language laboratory first appeared on the language-teaching scene, in spite of the many claims as to what it could achieve, and in spite of the impatience of many education authorities to leap blindly onto the new bandwagon, there were some teachers who firmly refused to disrupt their successful programmes by adapting them to the new "panacea" and continued to produce results superior to those achieved in schools in which the new device had been installed. As Chief Examiner for the Department of Education of Quebec for French, Course II (an experimental oral course) the author can state categorically that for the five years 1963-67 during which he held this position, the one school which year after year gained the highest average in the school-leaving examination in this subject was the one in which the Head of the French Department refused to accept the installation of a full-scale language laboratory. In a comparative study made by Raymond F. Keating in 1963 (see footnote) of the effectiveness of language laboratories (involving the testing of 5,000 students in 21 out of 70 school districts belonging to the Metropolitan Study Council in New York) it is stated that "in only one instance, that of speech production, was there found any significant difference that favoured the language laboratory group. Significant differences favouring the no-laboratory group predominated and appeared in connection with each language skill tested." Further on in the same report it is stated: "This study ... does show that in schools of the Metropolitan School Study Council, a group of schools characterized by competent and well-prepared teachers, better results in

Raymond F. Keating: "A Study of the Effectiveness of Language Laboratories", New York. The Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1963

certain important skill areas are being achieved in instructional situations which do not use the language laboratory." In spite of all this the language laboratory is now well-established, and accepted in "high places" as a useful teaching aid. Perhaps comparative studies more recent than the one just quoted provide valid statistics to prove the indispensable value of the language lab in certain conditions of language teaching.

However, it is not the author's intention to dispute or deprecate the services of the language lab in the passive phase of language teaching, or to suggest for one moment that the "Group Trainer" can replace it. On the contrary, the "Group Trainer" is in a sense complementary to the lab in that it provides aid to the teacher in the active phase of development, an area in which the lab has little to offer.

A glance at the following list of facilities offered by the language laboratory will illustrate the point that, useful as they are, the greater part of the activities possible in the language lab are strictly non-communicational and mostly postulate isolation and a mental attitude of passive, receptive subservience to a machine's "master voice".

<u>ACTIVITY</u>	<u>ADVANTAGES OVER CLASS WORK</u>
1. All students can practice aloud and simultaneously exercise in structure and pronunciation.	Economy in time for practice.
2. Teacher can focus attention on individual student without interrupting work of class.	Economy in time for practice.
3. Authentic and consistent pronunciation.	Aid to training in pronunciation, especially where class teacher's pronunciation is faulty.
4. Untiring models for drills.	Saves teacher's voice.
5. Isolation provided by booths and headphones.	Absence of distraction, greater concentration on sounds of language, clarity of reception.
6. Variety of native voices.	Improved aural recognition and comprehension.
7. Self-correction possible.	Student can work alone and at his own speed.
8. Self-instruction possible with the aid of programmed course.	Saving in time available for teacher instruction.

Apart from the time spent by the teacher in direct communication with individual students, the activities possible in the language lab are entirely non-communicational, in that there is no interchange of utterances originating in the students' own, undirected thoughts. The prime function of the "Group Trainer" is to facilitate such an interchange between students in a communicational setting.

One objection which is often levelled against the use of group work in language instruction is that there is the danger that many errors may pass by uncorrected. Such a danger is more than compensated for by the advantages offered by the added use of the language in a communicational setting. Furthermore, the teacher will, of course, limit the choice of the group activities to those that are well within the range of the lexical and structural content already assimilated by the students in the course of their passive learning - it is not for one moment suggested that students should be let loose in groups and allowed a free rein as to what they will talk about!

Activities Suggested for Use with the "Group Trainer"

However, although the "Group Trainer" could not and is not intended to usurp the functions of the language laboratory, it does offer some of its advantages to a lesser degree (items 1 and 2 listed above). It is therefore possible that some of the language laboratory activities could, by being repeated in the communicational setting of the group, form an effective transfer from the passive to the active phase of training. The author has in mind particularly substitution, expansion, contraction and transformational drills as well as questions and answers. One copy of the exercises and correct responses would be issued to each group and each student in turn would act as the master voice. In this way some useful practice could perhaps be made possible in the atmosphere of "togetherness" and mutual assistance which should make the activity a little more alive. The author offers this suggestion in the light of his observation that some students who perform quite well in the language laboratory become embarrassed and less accurate when engaged in exactly the same activities in a person-to-person situation.

Although any group activities appropriate to language learning can be made more effective by the use of the "Group Trainer", the author has tried the following and found them useful:

- (i) Prepared talks.
- (ii) Discussions on prepared topics.
- (iii) Discussions of news items previously listened to on recorded radio news bulletins.
- (iv) Questions on and retelling of stories read for homework.
- (v) Telling the story of cartoons displayed in the group.

Conclusion

Owing to the author's changing occupational situation since 1957, when he first conceived the idea of the "Group Trainer" it has not been possible for him to carry out the uninterrupted series of controlled experiments which would be necessary before he could produce conclusive statistical data. In the absence of such data to corroborate his claim that the device can play a useful ancillary role in the process of language teaching, he submits the following list of names of eminent educators and linguists who, after having witnessed class-room demonstrations of the "Group Trainer" between 1964 and 1966, gave it their enthusiastic endorsement: Professor J.P. Vinay, author of "The Canadian Dictionary", then Head of the Linguistics Department of the University of Montreal; Professor Guy Rondeau, author of "Le Français International", now Head of the Linguistics Department of the University of Ottawa; Professor C. Hawkins, Head of the French Department, Macdonald College, Teachers' Training Department of McGill University; and Mr. Bernard N. Shaw, then Co-ordinator of French for the Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal.

Monsieur Emile Lurion, Educational Electronics Administrator of R.C.A. Victor Company Limited of Montreal, collaborated with the author for two years in the development of the "Group Trainer" and arranged for his Company to produce the existing prototype. However, as the idea of the "Group Trainer" had not been widely propagated, the Company decided in 1966 that they could not be sure of a demand sufficient to warrant putting the device into production. However, Monsieur Lurion has recently assured the author that, if any members of the BILC are interested in having technical specifications, or his comments on the apparatus, he will be very happy to provide them. At the moment the only existing prototype is in the hands of the author, but even this prototype does not include certain modifications that he considers necessary to make it ideal for class-room use.

Now that the author is with the Curriculum Department of the C.F.L.S. he hopes that it will be possible for him to continue his experimentation and put the "Group Trainer" to good use in improving the level of achievement of the trainees. However, as the device and the technique involved have proved to be particularly effective with students working at a more advanced level than that required in the C.F.L.S., this article is presented in the hope that other teachers and linguists with wider facilities for research, experimentation and development may be interested in exploring the possible applications of the concept and in sharing their findings in the spirit of co-operation which is surely the basis of the operation of the BILC.

Résumé

Le "Group Trainer" aide électronique portable dans la phase active de l'apprentissage des langues

Depuis l'avènement de la méthode structurale dans l'enseignement des langues secondes, on met surtout l'accent sur la phase passive de l'apprentissage, pour laquelle sont maintenant établies des méthodologies nettement détaillées.

Pourtant, si essentielle que soit la phase passive de l'enseignement, et tout efficace que soit la méthode structurale dans cet aspect de l'apprentissage, en définitive c'est grâce à la phase active que les étudiants parviennent vraiment à maîtriser une langue seconde comme véhicule efficace de communication orale.

De toute évidence, il est possible d'apprendre une langue et de la maîtriser comme véhicule de communication, même avec un minimum d'instruction scolaire, pourvu qu'on se trouve dans une situation de communication, c'est-à-dire, qu'on ait des affinités avec les membres d'un groupe parlant cette langue. Par contre, la meilleure méthodologie d'enseignement des langues, même basée sur une théorie scientifique des moins discutables, ne servirait guère si elle n'était pas appuyée par l'exercice spontané de la langue dans une situation de communication, soit en classe, soit à l'extérieur. Sans cet exercice essentiel, l'étudiant resterait bouche bée dès qu'il se trouverait dans la nécessité d'utiliser sa langue seconde dans une situation réelle.

Donc, dès que les étudiants ont assimilé un fonds lexical et structural suffisant de la langue seconde, il importe que le professeur organise son programme de manière que ses étudiants puissent consacrer autant de temps que possible à des exercices de communication en classe. Ce sont les activités en groupe qui offrent au professeur la plus grande possibilité d'établir en classe cette situation de communication naturelle, qui est indispensable à de tels exercices.

Le "Group Trainer" est un appareil portatif très simple qui permet au professeur d'organiser des activités de groupe sous sa surveillance constante, de se mettre en contact immédiat avec chacun des étudiants et d'éviter ainsi le va-et-vient qui serait inévitable sans l'aide de cet appareil.

On a voulu expressément que l'appareil ne comprenne ni casque téléphonique pour les étudiants, ni enregistrement car, bien que ces accessoires soient utiles dans la phase passive de l'enseignement du fait qu'ils offrent les avantages de l'isolement phonique ainsi que des modèles authentiques et invariables de prononciation, ils sont inutiles sinon nuisibles, quand il s'agit d'exercices de communication volontaire entre interlocuteurs.

Par ailleurs, le "Group Trainer" offre l'avantage d'une réception acoustique très claire pour les étudiants ainsi que pour le professeur. De plus, il apporte à la phase active de l'enseignement l'économie de temps que le laboratoire de langues permet pour la phase passive.

En fin de compte, le plus grand avantage du "Group Trainer" est qu'il facilite une communication libre et spontanée sous la direction et avec l'aide du professeur, au sein de groupes d'étudiants semblables et compatibles.

Le "Group Trainer" n'est pas en vente, Mais l'auteur de cet article, pour qui la Compagnie R.C.A. Victor de Montréal en a fait un prototype, annonce le principe aux membres du BILC dans l'espoir qu'ils pourront peut-être en profiter.

FEDERAL LANGUAGE OFFICE FOUNDED

The decree issued by the Minister of Defence of the Federal Republic of Germany combined, at the beginning of July 1969, the two large Foreign Language Institutes of the Federal German Armed Forces, viz. the Euskirchen Federal Armed Forces Language School and the Mannheim Federal Armed Forces Translation Agency, to form the Federal Language Office, a newly established central agency.

Co-location of these two agencies will however not be possible before the beginning of 1971, when the office buildings of the Federal Language Office, which are now under construction at Hürth, a large commune situated on the perimeter of the city of Cologne on the Rhine, are completed.

The foundation stone was laid on 4 July in the presence of a few hundred guests of honour, both German and foreign. Persons of high standing in the political, economic, and cultural life of the nation and generals, admirals, and staff officers of the German Armed Forces, high-ranking officers from other countries, representing the forces stationed in Germany, and military attachés from various countries were in attendance.

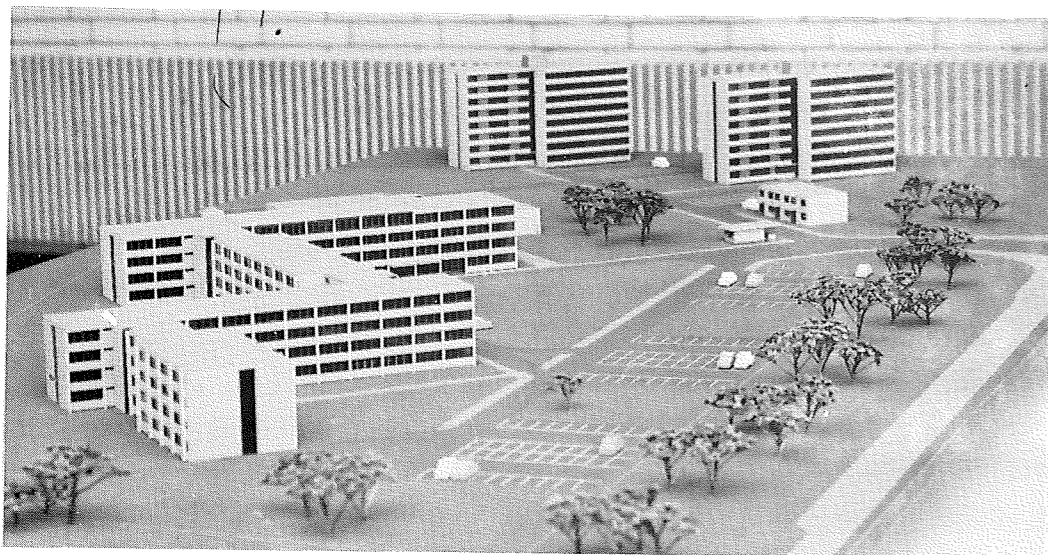
In a festive address, the Federal Minister of Defence, Dr Gerhard Schröder, said he was glad that the foundation of the Federal Language Office had aroused so much attention not only at home, but also abroad, especially since the work of the Office would be concerned in no small measure with other countries. The Minister offered a special welcome to the Director Designate of the Institute of Army Education and Director of the Bureau of International Language Coordination, General Evans, from London.

Herr Schröder interpreted the birth of the Federal Language Office as a step which would place the experience gained over the past fifteen years by the Euskirchen Language School and the Mannheim Translation Agency in a fitting, modern frame. The Office, he said, was in keeping with the pattern of German policy. The Minister continued by saying, "Our foreign policy is

to strive for European unity. Our security is guaranteed by the North Atlantic Treaty Alliance. Our cultural policy is open to the world. Germany is intersected by the lines of communication running from north to south and from east to west. Any country whose overall policy and development is dictated by such factors is particularly dependent upon the ability of its citizens to speak foreign languages, upon their acquiring an understanding for other civilizations and other cultural regions, and upon her own language and culture being accessible to others."

That the Ministry of Defence should show initiative in this field was no accident, said the Minister, and stressed that "the Bundeswehr by its very nature had for many years continually been in close contact with other countries and other language areas."

Furthermore, the Federal Language Office, under its appointed president, Dr Hans Scheller, intends to go beyond the defence sector and to offer its services to all the Federal ministries and, when necessary, to authorities of the Federal States and their communes. Once the Federal Language Office is finally installed, it is moreover intended to cement still further the relations maintained by the Language Section of the Federal Ministry of Defence with research and industry and national and international language organizations.



Mock-up of the new agency's office buildings
Maquette des nouveaux bâtiments de l'Office

CREATION DE L'OFFICE FEDERAL DES LANGUES

Par arrêté du Ministre de la Défense de la République fédérale d'Allemagne, les deux grands établissements linguistiques de la Bundeswehr, l'Ecole des Langues d'Euskirchen et le Service de Traduction de Mannheim, ont été groupés organiquement au début du mois de juillet 1969 et placés sous une nouvelle Autorité centrale, l'Office fédéral des Langues.

Celui-ci aura désormais son siège près de Cologne, dans la commune de Hürth, où ont été entrepris les travaux de construction d'un ensemble destiné à accueillir, à partir de 1971, les effectifs du "Bundessprachenamt", soit donc notamment ceux qui proviendront d'Euskirchen et de Mannheim.

Un premier pas important a d'abord été marqué le 4 juillet 1969, lorsque la première pierre des nouveaux bâtiments a été posée au cours d'une cérémonie solennelle réunissant quelques centaines d'invités d'honneur allemands et étrangers: hautes personnalités de la vie politique, économique et culturelle, officiers généraux et supérieurs de la Bundeswehr et des Forces armées alliées, ainsi que les Attachés militaires de plusieurs pays.

Prenant la parole en sa qualité de Ministre fédéral de la Défense, le Dr. Gerhard Schröder, soulignant la vocation internationale de l'Office fédéral des Langues, s'est félicité du grand intérêt qu'avait rencontré sa fondation non seulement en Allemagne, mais surtout aussi à l'étranger.

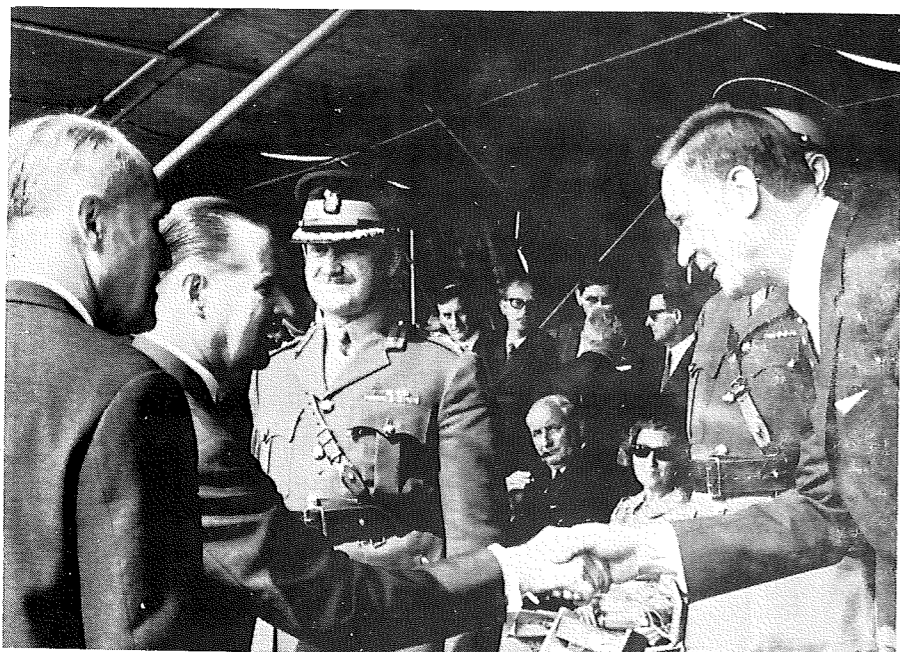
Le Ministre a tenu à saluer en particulier le Directeur désigné de l' "Institute of Army Education" et Directeur du "Bureau for International Language Coordination", le Général Evans, venu spécialement de Londres.

Le Dr. Schröder, commentant la création de l'Office, a qualifié celle-ci de consécration logique des efforts déployés durant quinze années tant à l'Ecole des Langues d'Euskirchen qu'au Service de Traduction de Mannheim. La mise en valeur de l'acquis de ces deux institutions supposait l'attribution d'un cadre adéquat et moderne. L'Office est conforme aux lignes directrices de la politique allemande. Le Ministre a poursuivi: "Notre politique étrangère tend à l'unification européenne. Notre sécurité est assurée par l'Alliance de l'Atlantique Nord. Notre politique culturelle est orientée vers le monde entier. L'Allemagne se trouve au carrefour des voies de communication reliant le Nord au Sud, l'Est à l'Ouest. Un pays dont la politique générale et dont l'évolution sont empreintes par ces facteurs a tout particulièrement intérêt à ce que ses habitants parlent des langues étrangères, qu'il puissent comprendre les autres civilisations et que

notre propre patrimoine linguistique et culturel soit rendu accessible aux autres."

Que ce soit précisément le Département de la Défense qui déploie des initiatives dans ce domaine n'est pas dû au hasard, car, comme l'a souligné le Dr. Schröder, "la Bundeswehr, de par sa nature même, maintient depuis nombre d'années des contacts étroits et continus avec d'autres pays...".

En attendant, l'Office fédéral des Langues, dont la Présidence a été confiée au Dr. Dr. Hans Scheller, se propose d'offrir ses services non seulement au Département de la Défense, mais également aux autres Ministères fédéraux et, selon les besoins, aux Administrations des Länder et des communes. L'Office s'attachera d'autre part à approfondir encore davantage les relations que le Service linguistique du Ministère fédéral de la Défense entretenait déjà avec bon nombre d'organismes de recherche, l'industrie privée ainsi qu'avec des services linguistiques nationaux et internationaux.



Le Dr. SCHRÖDER saluant invités d'honneur et collaborateurs.
 Premier plan, de gauche à droite: Dr. Dr. SCHELLER, Dr. SCHRÖDER, Général EVANS (Londres), Regierungsdirektor MAUR (Service linguistique Ministère fédéral de la Défense) et -caché- Colonel WATERS (Londres).

Dr Gerhard Schröder welcoming guests of honour and colleagues.
 Front row, left to right: Dr Dr Scheller, Dr Schröder, General Evans (London), Regierungsdirektor Maur of the Language Section at the Federal Ministry of Defence. Hidden - Colonel Waters (London).

A PSYCHOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATING PROCESS

by

Renzo Titone

1. Introduction

a. The problems involved in the analysis of the process of translation are of special interest to linguists, psycholinguists and language teachers. The linguists may find important clues for the comparative and contrastive study of two language systems, particularly on the grammatical and lexical levels.

The relevance of the analysis of this process has led linguists to set up a "linguistic theory of translation" (2). Thus a linguistic definition of translation has been proposed, and such concepts as equivalence, correspondence, transference, translation shift, translatability have been discussed. From a linguistic viewpoint translation has been defined as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent material in another language (TL)"⁺ (2:20). Accordingly, "the central problem of translation practice is that of finding TL translation equivalents. A central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence"⁺⁺ (2:21).

⁺ SL = Source Language and TL = Target Language (J.C. Catford).

⁺⁺ At an earlier date one of the main problems discussed by psycholinguists in this context was the "feasibility" of translation. Today's position on this point is epitomized in the concept of "relative translatability". "Au lieu de dire, comme les anciens praticiens de la traduction, que la traduction est toujours possible ou toujours impossible, toujours totale ou toujours incomplète, la linguistique contemporaine aboutit à définir la traduction comme une opération, relative dans son succès, variable dans les niveaux de la communication qu'elle atteint". G. MOUNIN, "Les problèmes théoriques de la traduction" (Paris: Gallimard, 1963, p. 278).

The analysis of translation processes has also become the focus of recent psycholinguistic interest. In the study of communication, problems of information transmission with code translation have arisen (4:185-192). The psycholinguist has viewed translation under two main aspects. On the one hand, the translating process has been seen in terms of the information theory model. "Information theory provides a general model in which the translator, whether human or machine, is treated as a channel, the foreign or "from" language (FL) is the input, and the translation or "to" language (TL) is the output" (4:185).

The role of the translator is to decode certain linguistic signals coming from a source and then encode noncorresponding but equivalent signals in a message system. Of course, the message events in two languages cannot be corresponding in any physical sense, but can only be equivalent "in the sense that they are associated with corresponding states in sources and destination systems" (4:186). Equivalence would be conceived by the psycholinguist as correspondence in the semantic states of the communicator. A second aspect considered in psycholinguistics is the series of processes and the variety of modalities characterizing translation. Translation in compound or coordinate systems of bilingualism (4:142-146) has received little attention so far. Translating in a compound system is bound to be hampered by interferences from the dominant language. If the translator works in one direction only, his performance is liable to deteriorate; if translation is in both directions, encoding in both languages will often be confused. We might hypothesize a basic law: over-decoding tends to produce under-encoding. Other intriguing problems await contributions from the psycholinguist. This will be our concern in a moment.

The psychological analysis of translating has acquired new interest for language teachers now that the traditional blind faith in effectiveness of translating as a learning procedure has been shaken by the results of modern methods of language teaching. There seems to be an opposition between "translating" as an analytic process and "thinking in the foreign language" (1:52). Perfect mastery of a foreign language makes analytic decoding and grammatical analysis superfluous. Such mastery seems to consist in an "intuitive" grasp of language structures and sequences (1:119-132). Translation exercises cannot give a student direct, intuitive command of the for-

foreign code, and this is particularly the case when he attempts to express the content in the TL without having fully grasped meaning in the SL (1:164-174).

The author of this article is convinced that both the linguist's and the teacher's problems can receive vital help toward a satisfactory solution from a psycholinguistic analysis of translating. It seems clear that a thoroughgoing analysis of the psychological process of translation will result in a clarification of certain problems of linguistic structure. This it can do by bringing out more clearly language differences and the systematic nature of language. Moreover, a psychological analysis of translating will help the teacher avoid certain pitfalls, such as the over-emphasizing of atomistic comparison between language equivalences or the endeavour to install linguistic competence by concentrating on fragmentary aspects of the language instead of leading the learner to grasp language structure as an organized whole. There is, therefore, ample reason for exploring the psychological mechanisms underlying the translating process.

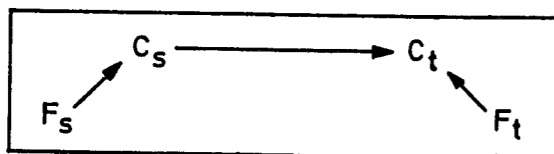
b. The "psycholinguistic" viewpoint in the present analysis needs to be stated in more detail. The subject matter of the psycholinguist is the dynamic relationship between two codes. The psycholinguist is not interested in this relationship per se (linguistic perspective), but only inasmuch as it is discovered and established by a "bi-codal mediator". Psycholinguistics is concerned with the procedures followed by the bilingual mediator in obtaining an exact perception of the meanings in SL and in selecting the exact equivalents to be expressed in TL. Obviously, decoding a message constructed in a code which differs from the receiver's code implies:

- (1) adequate knowledge of code A (SL);
- (2) adequate knowledge of code B (TL);
- (3) perception of relations between code A and code B, and
- (4) ability to transcode, viz. to encode SL meaning in TL forms.

Step (4) is formally and essentially the culmination of the translating process, while the foregoing steps are prerequisite phases.

Transcoding works on two different levels. The direction of the process is from "mental translation" to "verbal translation"; in other words, the translator proceeds from the understanding of the SL text to transference

into the TL text. This transference mechanism can be made more graphic with the aid of the following diagram:



F = form (words)
 C = content (concepts)
 s = source language
 t = target language

The complete chain of translation events involves decoding the foreign words in order to grasp their content, establishing the semantic correspondence between foreign content and native content and selecting the right words in the native language.

Consequently, besides knowing the two codes the translator must be equally familiar with the SL semantic content and the corresponding TL semantic content. In short, he must be a bicultural as well as a bilingual individual.

2. Psychological Problems of Translation

a. Psycholinguistics has not yet compiled a complete list of problems emerging from translation situations. However, some of the more obvious ones can be stated as follows:

(1) Objective and subjective conditions of translation. I mean by objective conditions all those referring to the structure of the codes themselves, and by subjective those pertaining to the translator's person and behavior. Such objective conditions as contrasts between two languages on the morphological, syntactic, lexical, or stylistic levels, and such subjective conditions as knowledgeability, perception modalities, bilingual competence, and alike, of the translator, deserve careful study.

(2) Characteristics of the transcoding process. The manner in which the transition from mental decoding to verbal encoding takes place should be more closely examined.

(3) Knowledge of lexis vs. knowledge of grammar. It is of interest to establish whether a full and accurate interpretation of the SL text depends primarily on the translator's knowledge of lexis or primarily on his knowledge of grammar.

(4) Gradations between "verbatim translation" and "free translation". The gamut of possible adequate equivalents needs articulate definition.

b. At the initial stage on the decoding side we may hypothesize several degrees of perfection in understanding the SL text according to the progressively adequate definition of the semantic areas involved in the SL textual material. Theoretical analysis of such a process of semantic definition may be regarded as consisting of five main phases:

- (1) decoding of altogether new texts (or at least texts containing a maximum of novelty);
- (2) decoding of familiar but mutilated texts;
- (3) decoding of familiar and complete but contextually restricted texts;
- (4) decoding of familiar, complete and internally contextualized texts;
- (5) decoding of familiar, complete, and situationally contextualized texts.

c. Another psycholinguistic problem is to define the relation between grammar and lexis in interpreting a text. Which are the respective roles of grammatical and lexical decoding in total decoding of a foreign text? With regard to the ordinary understanding of speech in the same code, this question has received no final answer. The author's position can be stated in the following terms. Decoding is a synthesizing process combining both lexis and grammar, where lexical interpretation has a slight temporal precedence over grammatical construing. Speech, in fact, is "lexis organized by grammar". The process, therefore, seems to evolve by way of a gradual perception of lexicon with a simultaneous anticipation of grammar. Accordingly, we can hypothesize that the prerequisites of total decoding of a spoken message are distinctiveness (of the single components) and concatenation (of the elements in the whole), viz., the operations of analysis and synthesis. Hence, only uninterrupted and virtually complete speech can be understood.

Since different codes are involved in the process of transcoding, one anticipates that the relation between grammar and lexis will be of "level dominance" in language mastery. By "level dominance" I mean a difference of competence with regard to the constituent levels of language, i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax, etc.

d. One more easily discoverable trait of the translator's behavior is represented by the modalities, and especially by the graded process of construction of the final translation. Which steps does the individual translator follow in completing a satisfactory translation of the SL textual material? Putting the question more specifically, does the translator proceed from the single elements of the text in order to reach an understanding of the whole, or does he proceed from the whole in order to grasp the meaning of the single elements, or again is his direction from the whole (global meaning) to the single elements and finally to the reconstructed whole (synthetic apprehension of the total meaning)? There are non-factors pre-determining the choice of the one or the other of these three possible procedures; the individual translator will follow ways or methods acquired through practice and/or dependent on his mental habits.

5. A Working Glossary of Translation Terms

When undertaking a psychological analysis of translation it is necessary to reach an agreement on the basic terminology that can or has to be used in dealing with this subject. The author regards the definitions given by J.C. Catford as the most consistent and workable (2: esp. ch. 2).

Some terms concern intrinsic aspects of translation, others refer to the extent, level, rank, and approximation of the product.

Starting from the idea that translating entails replacing textual material in SL with equivalent textual material in TL, one can define the extent of a given translation. Thus, we have full translation when "the entire text is submitted to the translation process", whereas in a partial translation some parts of the SL text are left untranslated (2:21). Levels of translation are referred to by the term total translation, that is, "translation in which all levels

of the SL text are replaced by TL material", or more precisely, "replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology/graphology by (non-equivalent) TL phonology/graphology" (2:22). From total translation we must distinguish restricted translation, that is, "replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL textual material, at only one level", e.g., performed only at the phonological or at the graphological level, or at only one of the two levels of grammar and lexis (2:22).

In the third place, the consideration of rank can generate certain important distinctions. "The rank scale is the scale on which units are arranged in a grammatical or phonological hierarchy" (viz., sentence, clause, group, word, morpheme) (2:8). Translation equivalence may occur in different ranks: e.g., sentence-to-sentence, or group-to-group, etc. If "the selection of the TL equivalents is deliberately confined to one rank (or a few ranks, low in the rank scale) in the hierarchy of grammatical units... " we have "rank-bound translation" (2:24). "In contrast with this, normal total translation in which equivalences shift freely up and down the rank scale may be termed unbounded translation" (2:25).

In correlation with these distinctions, Catford has redefined the popular terms free, literal, and word-for-word translation. A free translation is always unbounded: in it equivalences tend to be at the higher ranks, sometimes even between larger units than the sentence. Thus the free equivalent of the English SL text "It's raining cats and dogs" is represented by the French TL text "Il pleut à verse". Literal translation is based on lexical word-for-word equivalents, but it tends to adjust grammar according to the demands of the TL code. To adhere to the preceding example, the French TL equivalent would be "Il pleut des chats et des chiens". The lowest degree of approximation is represented by word-for-word translation. It is essentially rank-bound at word-rank, in other words, a lexical replacement without grammatical adaptation. In the above example, the French word-for-word equivalent would be "Il est pleuvant chats et chiens". The relevance of such distinctions and definitions to the analysis of the translation process is clear.

4. Scope and Methodology of the Present Investigation

The aspects of translation to be investigated were the following:

- (1) degrees of comprehension in terms of single elements and context (the idea would be to measure the type of response vis-à-vis the different types of textual completeness);
- (2) procedures followed in translating (first global meaning and then the single parts; or first the separate elements without regard to the general meaning; or first understanding global meaning, then analyzing the single elements, and lastly testing the separate meanings on the basis of the global meaning of the entire text);
- (3) isolating lexical interpretation from grammatical interpretation in order to detect the relevance of their respective roles;
- (4) degrees of approximation to perfect (free) translation.

These psychological aspects of translating were explored by means of a test consisting of long passages and short sentences for translation followed by a mixed type of questionnaire.

"Closed (yes-or-no) questions" were interspersed among "open questions"; the individual was enabled to make personal remarks based on an introspective analysis of his own method of working.

The translation texts were from Italian into Spanish (for native Spanish speakers), from English and French into Italian (for native Italian speakers). Occasionally, some of the translators were interviewed for an exchange of more personal remarks.

The group examined had the following composition.

Table I
Participants in the Experiment

Specialization	SS ⁺	Source Language	Tests
Language Teachers	11	Italian	12
University Students (School of Education)	12	English	30
Student Interpreters	44	French	25
Totals	67		67
+ ¹ SS = Subjects			

5. Results

a. The subjects were required to mark with a figure from 1 to 7 the degree of difficulty found in translating certain passages. For all source languages one passage turned out to be the most difficult owing to the lack of contextualization and the great amount of rare vocabulary (archaic or restricted languages: Old English, Old Italian, French Argot).

This test proved useful to the effect of checking the reactions of the translators: some did not even try an approximate version, others worked out a partial translation on the basis of analogy and context (Table II).

Table II
Degrees of Difficulty
Grading Means (1-7)

Series of Texts ⁺	Italian	English	French	Mixed ⁺⁺
1.	<u>5.06</u>	<u>6.09</u>	<u>6.07</u>	<u>6.9</u>
2.a.	1.	1.08	1.06	1.3
2.b.	2.05	2.	2.05	1.03
3.a.	1.08	1.	2.04	1.02
3.b.	2.05	2.07	1.08	3.04
4.	3.	3.04	2.05	2.02
5.	4.05	3.	3.	1.09
+ ¹ These figures refer to the passages to be translated in the test. Underscorings point to significant results.				
++ ² Some SS undertook translations from more than one SL.				

2. One important hypothesis was that the SS would have recourse to global context in order to support their analysis of the SL text particularly where difficult texts were to be translated.

Percentages of answers given show that this tendency was not very common, except in two complicated passages from Italian and from English.

Table III

Use of Global Context as Support to Analysis⁺

Text	Italian RR = 12 %	English RR = 30 %	French RR = 25 %	Mixed RR = 11 %
1.	75.	30.	16.	36.03
2.a.	33.3	20.	24.	-----
2.b.	----	13.3	20.	36.03
3.a.	----	----	34.	-----
3.b.	----	----	---	-----
4.	33.3	46.6	34.	-----
5.	66.6	50.	28.	27.2

⁺) RR = Respondents

Some of the difficulties in transcoding were said to depend on the absence of an exact equivalent in the TL. This fact was observed by 34.3 % of the SS, whereas 14.9 % thought otherwise in translating the same texts.

The author assumed the utility of external contextualization, i.e., of some explanation concerning the general content of a passage and the intentions of the writer, for grasping the genuine meaning of the text. Responses indicated that 47.7 % of the SS found contextualization useful, while 1.7 % could do without it. One possible explanation for this lack of unanimity is the fact that the texts were so ample as to furnish sufficient internal contextualization for adequate decoding.

Some questions touched on the procedures used by the translators. The hypothesized procedures were three (see above 4.):

- (1) global-analytic;
- (2) analytic only;
- (3) global-analytic-synthetic.

Responses indicated the prevailing use, both in the present instance and habitually, of (3) (Table IV).

Table IV
Methods of Translation

Procedures	Present Use % SS	Habitual Use % SS
(1) G-A	59.6	43.2
(2) A	14.9	11.9
(3) G-A-S	61.	50.7
G-A = Global-Analytic A = Analytic G-A-S = Global-Analytic-Synthetic		

f. A further hypothesis was that grammatically incomplete sentences would offer greater difficulty in decoding than lexically incomplete sentences. This hypothesis was confirmed for all languages. Most subjects agreed that sentences lacking certain function words were incomprehensible (Table V).

Table V
Lexis Versus Grammar in Decoding

⁺)	Italian % SS	English % SS	French % SS	
Grammar {	1.b.	33.3	13.3	20.
	3.b.	25.	40.	28.
	5.b.	83.5	56.6	40.
Lexis {	2.a.	33.3	----	8.
	4.a.	16.6	3.3	4.
	6.a.	41.6	13.3	20.
⁺) Texts classed as difficult (the numbering refers to the test sheet)				

g. The procedures hypothesized in (e.) concerned the effort of directly understanding the meaning of the text in the SL. It can be safely assumed that the actual work of transcoding (constructing the actual version by using TL materials) does not necessarily follow the same procedures as in the interpreting or decoding stage. To test this hypothesis the author required the SS to reflect on the procedures they had employed for writing an acceptable (free) translation in the TL. Two alternatives were proposed:

(A) gradual approximation to a perfect TL reconstruction (from literal translation to free translation), or

(B) instant final translation.

The SS were asked to indicate which procedure they had followed. Procedures used for the present test and the procedure usually employed diverged somewhat. In the present test 55.2 % used (A), while 37.4 % used (B). But usually 40.2 % would use (B) and 37.4 % (A). Explaining this divergence the subjects stated that they would prefer the gradual procedure when it was essential to details such as new words or difficult grammatical constructions.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The present attempt at a psycholinguistic analysis of the translating process has been restricted to some of the more superficial modalities of the translator's behavior. The author believes that a deeper understanding could be reached of the finer, subtler, and less perceptible modalities that characterize the process of finding the proper TL equivalents.

From a practical point of view the results point to a possibly more effective orientation of the methodology of translation to be taught to prospective translators. It seems that a procedure such as the one based on a three-step rhythm (global-analytic-synthetic) could afford the best results as far as completeness and accuracy are concerned. Exercises developed according to this gradual procedure would certainly contribute to greater efficiency. This concept could be usefully translated into a training method to be used in the preparation of professional translators.

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Résumé:

Analyse psycholinguistique du processus de traduction

Les problèmes inhérents aux analyses du processus de la traduction offrent un intérêt tout particulier au linguiste, au psycholinguiste et au professeur de langues.

Des tentatives ont été faites ayant pour but de définir la nature de l'acte de traduction du point de vue de la théorie linguistique, mais on en sait encore bien peu quant aux aspects spécifiquement psychologiques d'un tel processus.

Les réflexions qui sont ici développées se basent sur une hypothèse soumise à une vérification empirique. Il s'agit donc de voir de quelle manière a lieu dans l'acte de la traduction l'établissement, de la part d'un intermédiaire bilingue et biculturel, d'un rapport dynamique entre deux "codes" ou deux langues: une langue de départ et une langue d'arrivée.

La "transcodification" dans laquelle consiste précisément la traduction se manifeste à deux stades divers. Le processus se développe d'un plan de "traduction mentale" à un plan de "traduction verbale" de la compréhension du texte à traduire à sa réexpression verbale en nouveau texte.

Les problèmes psychologiques concernés par un tel développement complexe d'opérations sont multiples.

Parmi ceux-ci, le problème de l'étude des modalités qui permettent au traducteur de procéder à la construction d'une version définitive peut avoir des incidences également didactiques.

L'hypothèse, proposée à la recherche à laquelle se réfère le présent article, considère 3 procédés de traduction possibles:

-) La perception et la traduction avant tout de la signification globale et par conséquent la traduction de chaque partie d'un morceau.
-) La traduction analytique de chaque partie sans référence au sens général.
-) La compréhension du sens global, puis l'analyse de chaque élément et enfin la vérification des significations partielles sur la base du sens général du texte dans son intégrité.

L'expérience a eu lieu à partir d'un test consistant en morceaux assez longs à traduire et en phrases plus brèves suivis d'un questionnaire.

Les "sujets" expérimentaux étaient 67, comprenant des enseignants de langues, des étudiants universitaires et des étudiants interprètes. Les résultats ont mis en relief que le procédé le plus employé par les bons traducteurs est le 3ème c'est-à-dire le procédé global-analytique-synthétique.

D'autres résultats mettent en évidence l'importance du contexte (le caractère complet et significatif du contexte sémantique) pour la compréhension du texte à traduire et pour sa conversion dans la langue d'arrivée.

En conclusion, le principe selon lequel la traduction ne peut se réduire à une simple opération analytique semble exact, principe qui décomposerait le texte dans ses parties (mots, phrases isolées) mais qui doit nécessairement tenir compte aussi bien au début qu'à la fin du processus du contexte global et du sens général du morceau à traduire. Sur la base d'un tel principe on pourra élaborer une méthodologie et une série d'exercices adéquats de caractère psychodidactique qui permettront d'inculquer aux futurs traducteurs la possibilité d'affronter avec une plus grande rationalité et esprit systématique la difficile tâche du passage de certains concepts d'une langue à l'autre.

A JOB ANALYSIS IN TERMS OF LANGUAGE

by

Lt.Col. C.C. Wardle R.A.E.C.

Introduction

The British Army requires to have on call a permanent quota of serving officers who can muster competence in all the major languages of the world and it is the responsibility of the Royal Army Educational Corps to arrange for training in order to maintain this quota. For languages in which substantial numbers of speakers are required, courses are organized at the Army School of Education at Beaconsfield and other establishments of the RAEC in overseas theatres. Such languages are Russian, Arabic, English as a Foreign Language, German, Gurkhali and Chinese. For languages for which there is a smaller demand such as Japanese, Burmese, Thai, Serbo-Croat, Turkish etc. the assistance of outside bodies such as universities and tutors is sought. Such training is always followed by a tour of further instruction or language duty of up to two years duration in the country in which the language is spoken.

The Requirement

There is a continuous need for such language training for varied appointments/employments but hitherto there has been no means of establishing the exact language content of these. The importance of this has become clearer in recent years owing to the increase in the number of specialised appointments requiring special varieties, skills and register of language. There is thus a requirement for a means of obtaining a job analysis in terms of language in order to feed the relevant information to course designers and thus ensure that the appointee is trained in the type of language he will need to use on the job.

The importance of this for the language teaching profession was stressed by Professor Strevens in his article "Linguistic Research and Language Teaching" in Council of Europe Publication - Education in Europe - New Trends on Linguistic Research (1963) page 88:

... the language teaching profession is in the process of replacing inadequate teaching descriptions by more suitable descriptions based on the kinds of language which the pupils will actually need to use, but this process requires intensive research into and objective descriptions of actual varieties of language as they are used in speech and writing...

The Questionnaire

It was decided that the most economical means of obtaining the information for course designers was by means of a questionnaire. Thus in the summer of 1968 the Ministry of Defence asked Captain P. Gill, RAEC to design such a questionnaire, as a project following a course which he attended at Brunel University, which would determine the level and types of language skill required for army appointments for which knowledge of a language was part of the job specification. Capt. Gill duly produced a questionnaire consisting of 157 questions covering the four language skills as follows:

- (i) Understanding (35 questions).
- (ii) Speaking (67 questions).
- (iii) Reading (38 questions).
- (iv) Writing (17 questions).

The questions deal with three areas of activities:

- (i) General (Social and Civilian).
- (ii) Basic and General Military.
- (iii) Specific Military.

and are of the binary type (YES/NO) and are carefully graded.

The levels of language fluency relative to the questionnaire are four in number:

- (i) Elementary.
- (ii) Intermediate I.
- (iii) Intermediate II.
- (iv) Advanced.

An appropriate assessment chart relative to the questionnaire is available.

Capt Gill tested the questionnaire on a sample of thirteen people who had been in language appointments and was reasonably satisfied with it. The Ministry of Defence then decided that it would be an appropriate task for the Corps representative on the MA Course in Applied Linguistics 1968/69 at the University of Essex to further test and evaluate the questionnaire. The task fell to the writer of this article.

Evaluation

The questionnaire was again tried out on a sample of eighteen people who were occupying or had recently occupied language posts. The majority were subsequently interviewed and their opinions about the questionnaire obtained.

It was found that there was in almost every case a definite cut off point where the "Yes" answers ceased and the "No" answers began. This proved that the grading of the questions was correct and enabled an accurate assessment of the content under each of the four skills to be made.

Length of questionnaire was another consideration. One or two of the respondents were of the opinion that it was too long, the remainder thought that although its completion was time-consuming and thought provoking, all the questions were essential and any omissions or reductions in length would impair the value of the questionnaire.

It was noticeable that one or two respondents tended to over-estimate the language content of their jobs. It was appreciated that there is always a natural tendency for a man to overstate the skill required for his own job, but this tendency is a real threat to the value of the questionnaire.

Perhaps the need for objectivity had not been sufficiently emphasised in the covering letter sending out the questionnaire. This danger can be minimized by arranging for questionnaires relating to a particular job to be completed by the holder and the other by his sponsor or commanding officer. In both cases the need for an objective assessment would have to be

emphasised in the covering letter. Over a large sample a reasonably accurate assessment should be obtained by this method.

Linguists were consulted and the assistance of one of these of some eminence was especially valuable. There was some doubt whether the questionnaire should be followed up by an interview or not. The interviews conducted on the sample of eighteen were useful in obtaining views about the questionnaire itself but provided little additional information to that already contained in the completed questionnaire. Cost effectiveness is also a major consideration. A postal questionnaire provides information at low cost. It does not require the services of a trained interviewer with consequent travel and maintenance expenses. A large sample can be covered much more quickly and at a fraction of the cost of a personal interview.

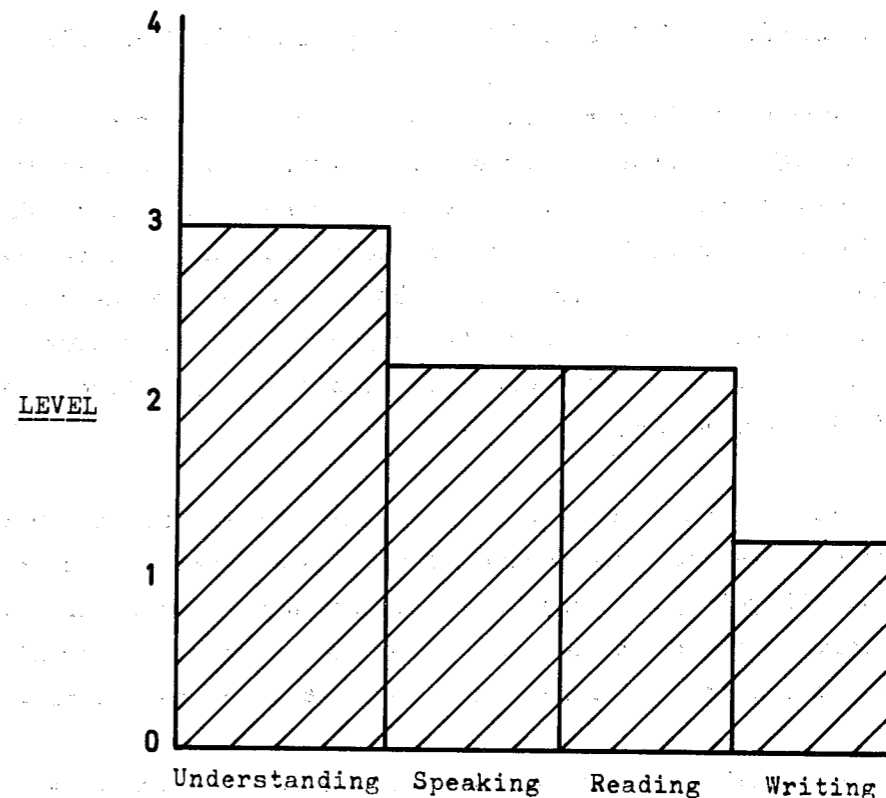
The conclusion was that the questionnaire would give a reasonably accurate assessment of the level of language fluency required under each of the four skills for particular jobs. It would provide a highly accurate answer if used over a large sample and from the viewpoint of employer and employee. It was therefore basically sound and could be taken into use with slight modification. A follow up interview would provide little additional information and would not be cost effective.

Follow up

The Director of Army Education has now instructed his Inspectorate/Research Department to use this questionnaire in a Language Testing and Training Project and has invited the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force to take part. Firstly, questionnaires will be issued to holders of all jobs which have a language content and to the sponsors of these jobs in order to obtain for each a job analysis in terms of language skills. It is hoped to analyse each job as a result of completion and assessment of some hundreds of questionnaires as shown in the following diagram:

Job Analysis in Terms of Language Skills Appointment

e.g. Military Attaché



Language Skill

Secondly, based on the results of these job analyses, recommendations are to be made on the form and content of language proficiency tests with a view to modifying and replacing, where necessary, the existing Colloquial Test and Linguist and Interpreter examinations. Thirdly information will be provided for course designers/tutors in order that candidates may be suitably trained for particular appointments/employments. This should result in a major economy in course effort in that it will be based on a description of the kind of language required by the job.

The reason for completing the second task before the third is that, inevitably, courses are geared to examinations and it was considered that it would be easier to reform the course, once reform of the examination had been accomplished. An additional reason for dealing with the proficiency tests first is that they are successfully taken by many candidates who have not received training by means of a recognized course. A further report will be made as the project progresses.

Analyse du travail en fonction du langage nécessaire

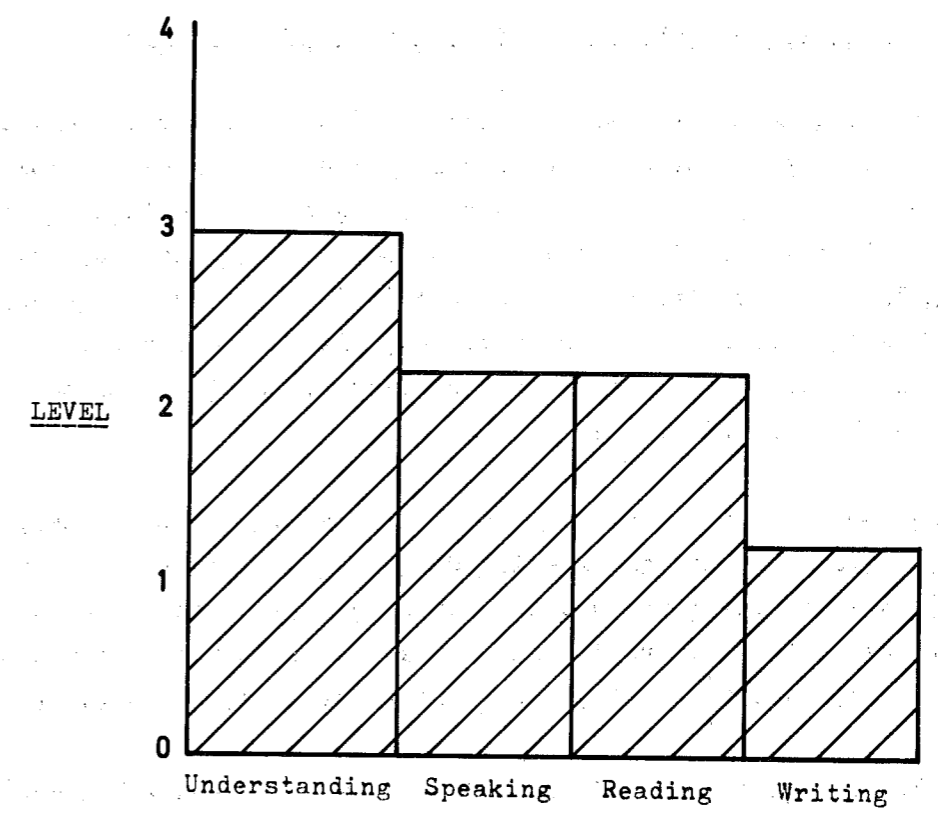
Le Ministère de la Défense britannique (Armée de Terre) se voit continuellement obligé de former du personnel militaire pour des emplois qui nécessitent la connaissance d'une langue étrangère. Jusqu'ici, il n'y a pas moyen d'établir précisément les connaissances linguistiques nécessaires ces emplois. Un questionnaire a donc été rédigé en vue de déterminer les niveaux exacts requis dans les quatre capacités: comprendre (écouter), parler, lire, écrire - c'est à dire, on veut faire l'analyse du travail en fonction du langage nécessaire.

Les informations ainsi obtenues auront un rapport direct avec l'étude, le développement et la construction des cours de langues et des épreuves de compétence linguistique futurs. On établira avant peu un projet pour déterminer comment les cours de langues et les épreuves pourront être améliorés. On envisage trois étapes dans l'exécution de ce travail:

- 1ère étape: Analyse du travail en fonction du langage nécessaire.
- 2ème étape: Recommandations concernant la forme et le contenu de nouvelles épreuves de compétence linguistique, en vue de substituer celles-ci aux examens actuels britanniques dits: Colloquial Test, Linguist Examination, Interpreter Examination (voir BILC Bulletin No.1, pp.47, 48).
- 3ème étape: Fournir aux auteurs de cours de langues et aux professeurs les informations adéquates pour que les candidats puissent recevoir une instruction convenable à leur travail.

On abordera la deuxième étape ci-dessus avant la troisième, parce que les cours de langues dépendent des examens auxquels les candidats se présentent, et on a trouvé plus à propos de réformer le cours, une fois l'examen réformé. On en rendra compte au fur et à mesure du progrès du travail.

Job Analysis in Terms of Language Skills Appointment
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Résumé

Analyse du travail en fonction du langage nécessaire

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