EDITORIAL

What are the propitious circumstances in which research can prosper in University Faculties and Institutes of Translation and Interpretation? The answer seems to us to concern the structure of those Faculties to a greater extent than the personalities of individuals involved. When, at international meetings, the subject of research is broached, two key words invariably emerge - the need for "collaboration" and possible sources of "funding". Neither of which questions arise in a Faculty or Institute where teachers of interpretation are inserted organically into the traditional career structure of University teachers of that University.

This would not yet appear to be the case in many of the Schools with which we are familiar where the interpreters are on short- or long-term contracts without having the career or social security guarantees that staff with tenure enjoy. It is difficult to convince an interpreter whose University teaching commitments are paid "piecwork" (and at a very considerably lower rate than his or her professional activity) to devote precious and unpaid time to long-term research activity, unless there is at least the prospect of a post with tenure at the end of those labours.

Conversely, a structure envisaging public competitions with an examination board assessing academic qualifications, professional experience and scholarly activity, not only for promotion within that structure, but for admission to the structure itself, is not only conducive to research activity but makes it a conditio sine qua non for the beginning and for every subsequent stage of a University career. Individual teachers are, of course, free to determine the subjects and methodology of their research projects, but the young colleague who has won a public competition as research assistant will find a group of colleagues more experienced in the research field who have reached their present position for that very reason and are eager to assist and advise with a view to following up the careers of their younger colleagues.

Only with representatives at all levels, including the most senior, will interpreters be able to hold their own, in these days of retrenchment, with the more aggressive forces of (linguistics ?) departments determined to call to heel these irritating renegades who dare not only to suggest but insist that practical experience may be a viable counterpoint to theorising. For not all research is or may be directed towards the construction of an all-embracing theory. Our own field in particular would benefit from lengthier and more detailed analyses of results before the corpus of material has been compiled from which specific theories or the all-embracing theory may be distilled.
There will always be a place for free-lance interpreters or interpreters on teaching contracts within the University system, but the determining of Faculty policy, teaching and research methodology may not be left entirely to them as it may not be left entirely to professors of Literature, Glottology, Linguistics or individual languages. The individual teacher has a right and a duty to decide upon his or her priorities. If the profession takes precedence and the financial blandishments are such that it may, the individual's relationship with the University will be of a specific or temporary nature. If, however, at a certain stage of their careers, interpreting teachers feel that their contribution lies rather in the construction of a pedagogy of interpreting (and in the concomitant professional security of a post with tenure) then the University has the right to demand, for admission to and promotion within the University profession, dedication to and reflection upon the principles and results of the interpreting process and the duty to provide (part of) the wherewithal to enable the results of such reflections to be submitted to the analysis and evaluation of the scholarly community.

Laura Gran
David Snelling
WATCHING THE BRAIN AT WORK - AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF EEG CHANGES DURING SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING (SI)

by
Ingrid Kurz
University of Vienna

Introduction

In 1991, an interdisciplinary research project was launched by the Institute for Neurophysiology together with the Institute of Translation and Interpretation of the University of Vienna in an attempt to study the brain mechanisms involved in simultaneous interpreting (SI). The method of choice was the EEG, which was expected to yield valuable insights into the mental processes underlying activities involving complex verbal thinking.

In this context, special thanks are due to Professor Petsche, who most generously let me benefit from his vast experience as a neurophysiologist and agreed to conduct the research at his institute, so that the project could rely on the support from his highly experienced team (including computer experts and technical assistants) and on the use of highly sophisticated hardware and software.

This paper sums up some of the relevant findings obtained so far. They have been presented at international conferences both on conference interpreting and neurophysiology and published in international journals (Petsche 1991, 1993; Petsche et al. 1993b, 1994; Kurz 1993, 1994). These first results tend to confirm the results and hypotheses of other researchers, notably from the Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpetti e Tradutori of the University of Trieste (SSLM), regarding right-hemispheric involvement in bilinguals.

Brain and language

There is no doubt that the brain - that mass of gray and white matter inside the skull, weighing some 1,400 grams - is the organic basis of even the most complex human cognitive activities. This is clearly testified by the effects of cerebral lesions resulting from stroke or accidents - or even by temporary impairments of cerebral function under the influence of alcohol or drugs (Rohracher 1967).
The first data on brain and language were obtained from clinical studies - specifically from studies of aphasia (impairments of speech comprehension and production as a result of damage to specific cerebral regions).

The fact that language comprehension and production are linked with specific brain regions has been known for a long time. As early as 1861, the French anatomist Broca found that a lesion of the posterior part of the inferior frontal gyrus of the left hemisphere in right-handed persons causes a disturbance of speech production. In 1874, the German psychiatrist Wernicke showed that destruction of the posterior third of the superior temporal gyrus of the left hemisphere leads to a disturbance of the understanding of speech.

Numerous studies of monolingual aphasics revealed that in the majority of right-handed individuals the left hemisphere is dominant for language (Deegener 1978, Springer & Deutsch 1981, Friederici 1984, Damasio 1992). Clinical and experimental studies of polyglot aphasics, however, have yielded a far more complex picture - e.g. different types of aphasia in different languages, inability to switch to a second language, mixing of languages, or different recovery patterns for each of the languages known to the patient. (While parallel recovery is the most common pattern in polyglot aphasics, some patients recover only one of their languages, while others evidence regression of the first-returned language as the second-returned language improves.) For a comprehensive review of the literature see Fabbro & Gran 1994.

From an extensive review of the findings on polyglot aphasia, Albert & Obler (1978: 253) conclude that the cerebral lateralization of bilinguals may differ from that in monolinguals in four major respects:

1. Language organization in the brain of the average bilingual may be more bilateral than that of a monolingual.
2. Patterns of cerebral dominance may be different for each language in the brain of a bilingual.
3. Different cerebral lateralization for each language is influenced by many different factors, including age, manner, and modality of second language acquisition.
4. Cerebral dominance for language in the bilingual is a dynamic process, subject to variations throughout life and sensitive to environmental, especially educational, influences.

In addition to the investigations of polyglot aphasia there exists a wealth of studies on the cerebral organization for language in healthy individuals. Various authors, using such methods as finger tapping (Sussman et al. 1982, Gran & Fabbro 1988, Green et al. 1994)) and dichotic listening (Gran & Fabbro 1987, Gran & Fabbro 1988, Lambert 1989a, 1989b) have been able to demonstrate that bilingual subjects present less marked cerebral asymmetry in the representation of linguistic functions than monolingual controls and show more right-hemispheric involvement for their second language.
EEG mapping

All mental processes are accompanied by local changes of cerebral metabolism. Metabolic changes in the cortex produce continuous electrical activity.

The German psychiatrist Hans Berger (1929) was the first to observe electrical brain activity as recorded from the cortex or from the scalp. Since pathological cerebral changes (epilepsy, tumors, etc.) are accompanied by specific patterns of electrical activity, the electroencephalogram (EEG) came to be used as a diagnostic tool, mainly for clinical purposes.

Whereas initially the emphasis was on potential-time diagrams recorded from a few electrodes, the advent of computer technology opened the door for a spatio-temporal approach, or EEG mapping.

Assuming that the spontaneous EEG is more than mere background “noise”, researchers from the University of Vienna developed a strategy for detecting mental processes hidden in the background EEG. They studied the EEG patterns accompanying different cognitive activities, such as listening to music or speech, doing mental arithmetic, silent reading, visuospatial tasks, and creative thinking (Petsche et al. 1986, 1987, 1988, 1992, 1993a, 1994; Petsche & Rappelsberger 1992; Petsche 1990a, 1990b, 1991). Despite considerable interindividual differences (e.g. sex differences) characteristic EEG patterns emerged, suggesting certain common processing strategies underlying each of these tasks.

The past decade of research in neuroscience has been dominated by the concept of the neuronal network - the idea that every location of the brain may be connected to every other location and that the functioning of the whole largely depends upon the harmonious interaction of all these locations. Thus, when investigating brain mechanisms involved in a certain task, researchers try to determine not only which brain area produces the most prominent changes (involvement) but also to what extent it collaborates with other regions (connectivity).

Both aims, the determination of involvement and connectivity, can be approached by means of coherence analysis, which will be briefly described in the following.

“Coherence” indicates the degree of electrical coupling or functional relatedness between two brain regions at any instant. It can range anywhere between 0 and 1. A coherence of 0 between two electrodes means that there is no relation between the electrical activity of these two cerebral regions; a coherence value of 1 indicates that the two regions are operating in sync. (Fig. 1)
Thus, the determination of the coherences between different cerebral regions over a certain period of time and for a specific frequency gives us an idea as to which cerebral regions are involved to what extent in specific cognitive processes. Local coherence is computed between adjacent electrodes, and interhemispheric coherence between electrodes in corresponding regions of the two hemispheres.

The coherences found during cognitive tasks are compared to those found at rest, and the differences between them are calculated to determine their significance. This process yields so-called EEG probability maps - schematic brain maps which reflect the degree of probability for the coupling/decoupling of different cerebral regions during specific mental/cognitive operations.

Coherence changes during SI

Method

EEG mapping was used to clarify such issues as:
1. differences between simultaneous interpreting and other cognitive tasks,
2. interindividual processing mutualities and differences during SI,
3. which areas are most involved during SI,
4. which interhemispheric relationships are associated,
5. the lateralization of speech dominance.

The following experimental design was chosen:

Periods of at-rest EEG activity (1 minute each) and simultaneous interpreting (4 minutes) from the native language (German in cases # 1, 2 and 4, English in
case # 3) into the foreign languages (English in cases # 1 - 4, plus French in case # 3 and Russian in case # 4) and vice versa alternated. In subjects # 1 and 2 shadowing in German (ShG) and English (ShE) was also studied for 4 minutes each. In addition to the language tasks, all subjects were given two non-verbal control tasks: 1 minute each of listening to a Mozart quartet (MO) and doing mental arithmetic (M.A.).

The texts to be interpreted were tape recordings of actual presentations at international conferences dealing with political and economic topics. The vocabularies fell within the range of general knowledge and did not require any special preparation.

Simultaneous interpreting was performed “mentally”, i.e. without actually speaking, in order to avoid speech musculature artifacts in the EEG. One might argue that this created a somewhat artificial situation. It should be pointed out, however, that the purpose of the study was to investigate the cognitive processes involved in SI, irrespective of articulation or motor components. (Besides, a control experiment involving actual speaking yielded virtually identical results.)

The EEG was recorded from 19 electrodes glued to the scalp (10/20 placement system) with the averages from linked ear lobe electrodes as reference, to obtain a survey of the entire skull (Fig. 2).

![10/20 System of Electrode Placement](from: Petsche et al. 1994)

For data reduction, the EEG spectrum was divided into five frequency bands: theta (4-7 Hz), alpha (8-12 Hz), beta 1 (13-18 Hz), beta 2 (19- 24 Hz), and beta 3 (25-32 Hz).

The topographic charts of the coherence changes observed at each electrode reveal the major areas of connectivity.
A detailed discussion of the method is given in Rappelsberger & Petsche 1988 and Petsche et al. 1993b.

Results

In the following, the major results of four case studies involving conference interpreters will be discussed. For a detailed description the reader is referred to Kurz 1992 (case # 1), Petsche et al. 1993b (cases # 1 - 3) and Petsche et al. 1994 (case # 4).

Case # 1

The research project was started in 1991 with myself (a 47-year old female right-handed conference interpreter with a German A and an English B according to the classification of AIIC) as the first subject.

**Fig. 3** Case # 1 (right-handed). Topographic distribution of significant (P<0.05) coherence increases (black squares) and decreases (empty squares) during different tasks.

Fig. 3 shows significant (P<0.05) increases (black squares) and decreases (empty squares) of coherence with respect to the averaged EEG activity at rest for the five frequency bands between 4 and 32 Hz during the following conditions: mental interpreting from English into German (E > G), German into English (G > E), mental shadowing in German (ShG) and English (ShE). In addition, the
results for two non-verbal tasks - listening to a Mozart quartet (MO) and doing mental arithmetic (MA) - are shown.

As can be seen from the topographic charts, numerous significant coherence changes - increases as well as decreases - occur during these mental tasks, both within each hemisphere and across the midline.

What is noticeable at a first glance is that all verbal tasks yield fairly similar patterns, whereas the two control tasks (listening to Mozart and mental arithmetic) clearly differ from these.

The alpha pattern (8-12 Hz) is remarkably similar for all language-related tasks (E > G, G > E, ShG, ShE). In comparison with the state of rest, coherence increases predominate across the fronto-temporal regions of both hemispheres. Colloquially speaking one might say that there is a lot of cross-talk taking place in the alpha band.

During the four language tasks, coherence increases in the beta bands, which are considered to be of particular relevance for information processing tasks, occur mainly in the left temporal region (T3). However, there are differences between E > G and G > E: during SI into English (the subject's B language) the number of these increases is larger than during simultaneous interpretation into German (the subject's native language). This may be an indication of a greater mental effort during SI into the foreign language.

Besides, there is greater involvement of the homologous right hemispheric zone (T4) during interpretation into the foreign language. This corresponds to the findings of other authors (Sussman et al. 1982, Gran & Fabbro 1988) who - using the method of finger tapping and dichotic listening - concluded that there is greater right-hemispheric involvement for the second language than for the first.

For mental shadowing the number of coherence increases is lower than during mental interpreting.

During all language-related tasks there are significant coherence decreases in the beta bands in the right hemisphere.

Case # 2

Fig. 4 shows the results for subject # 2, a 45-year old female left-handed conference interpreter who also has German as her native language and English as a B language. The topographic charts differ markedly from those obtained in case # 1.
Incidence of in- and decreases of coherence with respect to EEG at rest

Case #2

Fig. 4  Case # 2 (left-handed). Topographic distribution of significant (P<0.05) coherence increases (black squares) and decreases (empty squares) during different tasks (from: Petsche et al. 1993b).

One major difference concerns handedness: in both instances, the foci of coherence increase are in the dominant hemisphere, i.e. the left hemisphere for subject # 1 and the right hemisphere for subject # 2.

Thus, for most of the tasks, this left-handed subject shows a maximum of coherence increases in the beta bands in the right temporal region (T4).

While subject # 1 shows progressively decreasing coherence activity in successively higher frequency bands, subject # 2 presents a mirror image: progressively increasing coherence activity in successively higher frequency bands.

As in case # 1, EEG changes during periods of interpreting are more pronounced than during shadowing.

Case # 3

Subject # 3 was a right-handed, 48-year old female interpreter with an English A, a French B and a German C. Fig. 5 shows her coherence patterns during three interpreting tasks (F > E, E > F and G > E) as well as during the two control tasks MO and M.A.
### Incidence of IN- and Decreases of Coherence with Respect to EEG at Rest

<table>
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<td>13-18 Hz</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-32 Hz</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image of topographic distribution for 25-32 Hz" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Case #3 (right-handed)

Fig. 5  Case # 3 (right-handed). Topographic distribution of significant (P<0.05) coherence increases (black squares) and decreases (empty squares) during different tasks (from: Petsche et al. 1993b).

During interpretation from French into English, i.e. from the subject's B into her A language, coherence increases focus around T3 and T4 (left and right temporal regions) in the alpha band, around T3 (left temporal area) in beta 1, and around T4 (right temporal area) in beta 3.

During interpretation from German into English, i.e. from the subject's C into her A language, coherence increases in the theta to beta 1 bands are similar to those during F > E (B into A).

When the subject is interpreting from English into French (A into B), the left temporal region is again a focal point in the beta 1 and beta 3 bands. In addition, there is higher involvement of the right hemisphere during interpretation into the foreign language. (Compare case # 1.)

As in the two previous cases, the control tasks (music-listening task and mental arithmetic) produce patterns that are clearly different from those found during the language-related tasks.

#### Case #4

Subject #4 was a 26-year old male interpreter with a German A, an English B and a Russian C. Four interpreting tasks (E > G, G > E, R > G, G > R) were compared with M.A. and MO.
INCIDENCE OF IN- AND DECREASES OF COHERENCE WITH RESPECT TO EEG AT REST

Fig. 6 Case # 4 (right-handed). Topographic distribution of significant (P<0.05) coherence increases (black squares) and decreases (empty squares) during different tasks (from: Petsche 1993).

As can be seen from Fig. 6, interpreting is associated with coherence increases in the temporal regions. During interpretation into the native language (E > G, R > G) coherence increases in the left hemisphere (T3) predominate.

Additional right-hemispheric involvement (T4) in beta 2 and beta 3 is noticeable during G > E and particularly G > R, i.e. interpretation into the subject's B language (English) and C language (Russian). Again, a tentative explanation is that these activities involve a greater mental effort.

As with subjects # 1 - 3, the distribution of focal areas during the control tasks M.A. and MO is different from that during verbal tasks.

Discussion

These initial investigations into possible reflections of verbal thinking in the EEG support previous findings obtained during other cognitive tasks.

The results obtained from these exploratory studies give rise to a number of conclusions (Petsche et al. 1993):
1. Interindividual differences in the relationships between coherence increases and decreases are striking.
2. EEG patterns arising during verbal thinking (mental interpreting and shadowing) are clearly different from patterns observed during non-verbal tasks, such as listening to music and doing mental arithmetic.

3. Information on verbal thinking can be obtained from the ongoing EEG - in particular from coherence changes.

4. The incidence of these changes tends to be higher in particular areas ("focal areas" of coherence).

5. These "focal areas" - most consistently in the temporal regions, appear to be of particular significance for the task in question.

6. The areas with the highest incidence of coherence increases tend to be located in the language-dominant hemisphere.

7. Interpreting into a foreign language tends to be associated with greater coherence increases in the temporal region of the non-dominant hemisphere.

According to Petsche and Rappelsberger (1992), localized areas of increased as well as of decreased coherences may be interpreted as "hot spots" in certain mental tasks under certain conditions. Their assumption is that most probably an increase between two recording sites points to an increasing number of synchronously activated neuronal connections between these two sites. "Focal areas" of increased coherence, therefore, seem to indicate that such places give rise to activation of neuronal coupling with several other regions. An interpretation of the functional meaning of coherence decreases is more difficult. One tentative explanation is that they may reflect reductions of cognitive work in the hemisphere less needed for the mental task in question in favour of the more active hemisphere (Petsche et al. 1993b). Indeed, the highest incidence of focal areas of decreasing coherence in the beta range was often found contralaterally to the highest incidence of decreases during verbal tasks. Cognitive psychologists speak of "resource allocation" and "automaticity" in this context (Anderson 1990). Similar processes are suggested by Gile (1985, 1990: "effort model").

Summing up briefly, it can be said that the data described above confirm the value of using computer-assisted neurophysiological measures to investigate the cortical processes during simultaneous interpreting. The findings and hypotheses of other researchers (Sussman, Gran and Fabbro) regarding right-hemispheric involvement in bilinguals, albeit obtained by completely different methods, could in part be confirmed.

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Wernicke, Carl (1874): *Der aphasische Symptomenkomplex*, Breslau, Cohn and Weigert.
WRITINGS AND RESEARCH ON INTERPRETING: A BIBLIOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

by
Franz Pöchhacker
University of Vienna

1. Introduction

In a lecture delivered as Visiting Professor at the University of Vienna in October 1994, Katharina Reiss, one of the pioneers of translation studies as an academic discipline, stated that, in her view, it was only since the past five years or so that one could really speak of Interpreting Studies as a branch of academic research in its own right. This observation, coming from someone who is not actually involved in interpreting research, provides a refreshing challenge to those who are, prompting questions about the history and status of interpreting studies (IS) as a field of academic endeavour and, in particular, about the state of the art apparently achieved in recent years. The present paper is an attempt to respond to Reiss' friendly challenge by presenting bibliographic data on the output of writings and research since the early 1950s and analyzing them for indicators of change and recent trends.

The analysis comprises a “diachronic” part, in which the output of writings and research on interpreting until 1988 will be compared to the literature since 1989 with respect to both works and authors, as well as a “synchronic” part, in which the recent literature (1989-1994) will be analyzed more closely with regard to topics and categories of work. Given the rather comprehensive database, the bibliographic analysis is essentially quantitative rather than qualitative, although a semi-qualitative weighting system will be introduced as well. Thus, the main goal of this paper is not to present an opinion but to present data which may prove useful for further reflections and conclusions about the state of the art and future development of IS.

2. Material and Method
2.1 Bibliographic corpora

Two bibliographic corpora were compiled from published bibliographic data, with a minimum degree of selection and addition by the author.
Bibliography I (henceforth “Bib-I”) corresponds to the “Bibliography on Interpretation” published in the first issue of the present journal (The Interpreters' Newsletter 1988), i.e. it is the 1988 version of the bibliography compiled by the Groupe de Réflexion Théorique et Scientifique of the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) with additional material supplied by Daniel Gile, Jennifer Mackintosh, and Heidemarie Salevsky. (The text-linguistic and lexicographic items included in the published version were excluded from the corpus.) While Bib-I, like most bibliographic listings, was found to contain a number of inaccuracies and lacunae, it was considered well-suited for the present analysis because it represents a verifiable set of published data independent of the analyst's perspective.

Bibliography II (“Bib-II”) is based on the “Bibliographic Updates” published in issues 2 (1989) through 5 (1993) of The Interpreters' Newsletter as well as data from the 9 issues of the IRTIN Bulletin published between February 1991 and December 1994. About ten references, mainly concerning reviews in major journals, were added by myself for the sake of completeness and consistency.

Both Bib-I and Bib-II are made up of entries for publications (books and articles) and unpublished Master's and doctoral theses on interpreting, dating from 1952 to 1988, and 1989 to 1994, respectively. It must certainly be emphasized that, given the background of the compiling individuals and institutions, the database as a whole (Bib-I and Bib-II) reflects a “European" perspective as well as a strong bias in favor of conference interpreting. On the other hand, the detailed analysis of Bib-II seems fully warranted in light of the fact that the bibliographic corpus used, relying on the efforts of one of the most active 'schools' of interpreting researchers as well as on Daniel Gile's international Interpretation Research and Theory Information Network (IRTIN) with “nodes” in more than 30 countries, constitutes the very best effort to date at making bibliographic data on interpreting available to the IS community at large.

2.2 Bibliography points

The comparative analysis (section 3) with regard to works and authors was carried out both on the basis of a simple count and on the basis of a weighting system introduced to differentiate between various categories or types of works, such as books, Master's theses, articles, book reviews, etc. Based on the scope of

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1 I am grateful to Daniel Gile for providing me with a copy of his electronic file on nine years' worth of bibliographic data.
work on interpreting as well as its accessibility, bibliography points were assigned to the various categories of entries as follows:

- books on interpreting 10 points
- unpublished doctoral theses on interpreting 5 points
- books on T&I 5 points
- edited volumes on interpreting 5 points
- articles in journals and edited volumes 3 points
- Master's theses 3 points
- edited volumes on T&I 3 points
- book reviews 1 point
- papers in “all-in” conference proceedings (e.g. ATA, FIT) 1 point
- papers in “rare” journals (cf. section 4.1.4. below) 1 point

Needless to say, this attempt at differentiating between, say, a twenty-line book review, a research paper in an international journal or a seminal volume on interpreting, represents a semi-qualitative weighting at best. The point-values chosen might even be seen as doing an injustice to particular items, both within and across categories. Admittedly, the relative importance of (Master's/diploma/graduation) theses and dissertations varies according to the system of higher education within which they are done. In some systems any member of the teaching staff may supervise thesis research, whereas other academic contexts reserve this right (or duty) to faculty members with post-doctoral research qualifications. Also, a “book” may well carry much less weight in terms of interpreting research than an “unpublished doctoral dissertation”, and a “book review” can sometimes have a greater bearing on the state of the art than an “article” in a journal or edited volume. Undeniably, there will always be over- or underrated items as long as the “quality” to be weighed concerns the actual substance or innovative content of the works. These limitations notwithstanding, the system of bibliography points is presented and used here as a first attempt at developing a global weighting index for the literature on interpreting.

3. Comparative Analysis
3.1 Results

Bib-I and Bib-II were compared first of all on the basis of the overall quantitative characteristics of the respective bibliographic corpus. The results are shown in Table 1:
Franz Pöchhacker

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Table 1: Overall comparative analysis of Bib-I and Bib-II

In addition to the overall comparison on the corpus-level, a ranking of “most productive” authors according to the number of entries and bibliography points was compiled for each set of data. Table 2 shows the two rankings of the “top dozen” authors according to bibliography points, with the number of entries given in parenthesis.

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<td>17 (7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

383

Table 2: Rankings of “Top Dozen” authors (Bib-I vs. Bib-II) on bibliography points
3.2 Discussion

Taking a comparative view of the literature on interpreting in the three-and-a-half decades from 1952 to 1988 versus the last six years (1989-1994), one observes both quantitative and qualitative changes. On the face of it, there has been spectacular growth in the output of writings and research on interpreting. The last six years have yielded about twice the crop of works as the entire period since the first major publications on the subject. To some extent, this increase in volume is probably due to more efficient channels of communication for compiling an international bibliography. (Note, for instance, the reporting of Master's theses, of which Bib-II contains ten times as many as Bib-I.) But while this explanation may temper the figures for quantitative growth, it is in itself indicative of “qualitative” improvements within IS, implying a stronger common interest and closer international cooperation.

A quantitative difference more directly related to the bibliographic data themselves is evident from the total bibliography points, where the increase has been only half that observed for the number of works. The 50%-increase in bibliography points translates to a decline in the average number of points per item, i.e. a trend towards “smaller formats” of work, essentially from books to “papers” in journals and collective volumes. This trend could be indicative of an increase in “research” rather than “writings”: particularly in earlier decades, books on interpreting tended to represent a more practical/professional outlook (experience-based descriptions, suggestions for training and practice, etc.); current specialized journals, on the other hand, have a stronger research orientation, requiring, ideally, a focus on specific issues and explicit reference to the state of the art.

The increase in the number of works on interpreting is clearly linked to a larger number of authors involved in IS. It must be borne in mind, though, that the figure for Bib-II includes 60 authors of graduation theses, of whom further active involvement in IS can be expected in only very few cases. At any rate, the “pyramid of authors” in IS has an increasingly wide and variegated base, which makes it rather difficult to sketch a profile of the “typical author”. One might imagine, though, that the average author on interpreting in Bib-II has published one or two papers or written a journal article plus one or two reports in conference proceedings. In contrast, the average author in Bib-I may have published two or more journal articles, perhaps even a book. Of course, these average profiles are largely a matter of conjecture, since there is so much variety and variation at the base of the pyramid.

The nature of changes at the top of the pyramid of authors are more clear cut and easier to observe. In the ranking of authors compiled for Bib-I, the “Top Dozen” account for one third of the total output of writings and research
(32.35% of bibliography points and 34.9% of items). In the ranking for Bib-II, the dozen researchers at the top of a much broader and flatter pyramid of authors represent one fifth of total output (20.53% of points, 20.73% of items).

A comparison of the two lists of leading authors in Table 2 reveals both stability and change “at the top”. In both rankings Daniel Gile stands out as the most productive author by far, with 28 items listed in either bibliography. Similarly, Ingrid Kurz is consistently among the most productive authors, and so are Heidemarie Salevsky and Karla Déjean Le Féal, though somewhat lower down the list of the Top Dozen. Down and around these four rocks of stability, there is quite a sea of change. Of the eight names dropping out of the Top Dozen, no fewer than six are no longer found even among the top 25 authors in Bib-II. This less than gradual change is partly a result of the long time period covered by Bib-I, which includes pioneer authors like Jean Herbert and Sen Nishiyama. (Their ranking in eighth position is due mainly to the inclusion of Herbert’s 1962 book on conference terminology and Nishiyama’s 1979 sequel to his - largely anecdotal - book of 1970.) Naturally, one would not expect such pioneers to be among the leading authors of the early 1990s. Perhaps David Gerver, ranking fifth in Bib-I, still would be, had he not been lost to the interpreting research community by his untimely death. His legacy of a psychological approach to the study of interpreting is being continued in Bib-II by Sylvie Lambert, whose work with methods from experimental psychology has made her a leading representative of the neuro-scientific paradigm in the investigation of (simultaneous) interpreting.

As regards other such paradigms or schools of thought, the comparison of leading authors in Bib-I and Bib-II reveals evidence of a fundamental change: If the lists of top-ranking authors are broken down by “schools”, Bib-I shows a striking predominance of the ESIT team (Seleskovich, Lederer, Déjean Le Féal, and Thiéry, without even taking into account Ilg’s dual affiliation), which is reflected in an impressive total of 133 bibliography points. Apart from ESIT, the list for Bib-I is made up essentially of “sole researchers” and individual authors, each representing his or her particular approach rather than a more widely represented paradigm or institution-linked school of thought. In contrast, if authors in the list of the “Top Dozen” for Bib-II are grouped by their affiliations, Vienna (Kurz, Pöchhacker) and Trieste (Gran, Viezzi) show up as centers with more than one representative among the most productive authors in IS, while ESIT has only one representative - lower down - in the list. (For a detailed account of “schools” of research(ers) see Pöchhacker, forthcoming.) One could also speak of a new Japanese school of thought, which is represented among the “Top Dozen” in Bib-II by Masaomi Kondo and is generally characterized by an emphasis on research rather than “writings” and thus on cooperation and exchange rather than publishing in isolation (cf. Gile 1988).
The increasing internationalization noted for interpreting research in Japan is also reflected in the lists of the top dozen authors: while in Bib-I only two (Nishiyama, Barik) were located outside Europe, the ranking for Bib-II includes five non-European researchers, three of whom (Lambert, Bowen, Schweda-Nicholson) in North America.

Judged by its twelve most productive authors, IS in the early 1990s appears as a growing, more and more global discipline with an increasing orientation towards academic research. In the following section I shall attempt to assess the state of the art in IS by analyzing in some detail the output of this international research community in recent years.

4. The State of the Art
4.1 Results
4.1.1 Language

Bib-II includes entries for works on interpreting in a dozen languages. The language distribution is shown in Table 3, which also indicates the number of unpublished Master's theses included in the respective figure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of unpubl. Master's theses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>(55.7%)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>(14.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>(11.2%)</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>(9.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech/Slovak</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

627               60

Table 3: Breakdown of Bib-II (n=627) by languages
4.1.2 Types of interpreting

With the exception of the 36 book reviews, all entries in Bib-II were grouped under 10 different but non-distinct headings referring to the various types and modes of interpreting on the basis of keywords in the title. In the absence of a specific focus or, in the case of articles in collective volumes, clues from the title and structure of the overall publication, entries were classified as “general” works on interpreting. Works of an even more general orientation, whose title referred to both interpreting and translation, were classified as “general T&I”. The term “bilateral” was used to refer to a broader class of non-conference types of interpreting in the - mainly - consecutive mode, with inclusion based on such keywords as “community”, “dialogue”, “negotiations”, etc. The results of the breakdown by types of interpreting are given in Table 4. (Note that the number-of-items column adds up to more than 627, since about a dozen entries were given a dual classification, as in the case of, say, a paper on simultaneous interpreting in the courtroom).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of interpreting</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General (interpreting)</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General (translation and interpreting)</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consecutive interpreting</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference interpreting</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court interpreting</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral interpreting</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media interpreting</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sign-language interpreting</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight “translation”</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Breakdown of Bib-II by types of interpreting

4.1.3 Topics

A similar procedure to that described in the previous section was used to classify all entries in Bib-II (except book reviews) according to their topical focus or thematic orientation. The “general” category here includes titles such as “The Theory and Practice of [type of interpreting]”, “An Introduction to [type of interpreting]”, or, most commonly, “Reflections / Remarks / Notes on / Basic issues in [type of interpreting]. The category of “concepts”, on the other hand, includes entries with keywords such as “Creativity/Equivalence/Cultural
transfer in Knowledge and [type of interpreting]. About two dozen - usually foreign-language - entries had to be left unclassified. The results are shown in Table 5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional issues</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Meta-)Theory/Methodology/Research policy</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching/Training</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output characteristics</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptitude/Skills</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality perception/standards/expectations</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input characteristics</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuropsycholinguistic/-physiological issues</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminology/Preparation/Data-processing</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliographies/Literature reviews</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Breakdown of Bib-II by topics

4.1.4 Categories of work

The 627 items in Bib-II can be broken down by different categories of works as shown in Table 6:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of work</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Articles in collective volumes</td>
<td>251 (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles in journals</td>
<td>241 (38.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpublished Master's theses</td>
<td>60 (9.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book reviews</td>
<td>36 (5.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books (monographs, collective volumes)</td>
<td>29 (4.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpublished Ph.D. and post-doctoral dissertations</td>
<td>10 (1.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>627 100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Breakdown of Bib-II (n=627) by category of work
The data for the various categories of work could be analyzed in depth according to a number of parameters. In what follows I shall limit myself to some additional observations on detailed findings for dissertations, books, articles and book reviews.

Two of the ten dissertations were completed as post-doctoral theses at universities in German-speaking countries, one by Wladimir Kutz (1989) at Leipzig, the other by Ingrid Kurz (1992) at Vienna. Though the list of dissertations is rather short, it reflects a very broad spectrum of research topics and paradigms, from a psychometric approach to T&I curriculum design and aptitude testing (by Arjona-Tseng at Stanford University) to a cognitive-psychological experiment on conceptual mediation (“deverbalization”) in interpreting (by Isham at Northwestern University) and a parallel-processing design of a machine interpreting system (by Kitano at Carnegie Mellon University). For comparative purposes it may be noted that Bib-I included 18 - mostly unpublished - Ph.D. dissertations, half of which were done at ESIT (Paris III). In Bib-II, only two of the ten dissertations listed were defended at the University of Paris III, one of which (Gile 1989) even by-passing the translational orthodoxy of the ESIT Centre de Recherche en Traductologie.

As regards unpublished Master's theses, it has to be pointed out that no fewer than 24 of the 60 graduation theses in Bib-II were reported from the University of Heidelberg department of T&I. The SSLM of the University of Trieste accounts for 10 theses in Italian (not counting terminological glossaries), whereas the University of Vienna is represented by only one thesis on interpreting. The five T&I Schools in Finland - Vaasa (6), Kuovola/Helsinki (3), Tampere (3), Turku (3), and Savonlinna/Joensuu (1) - account for a total of 16 Master's theses in Finnish and Swedish.

Of the 29 books in Bib-II (including a two-volume set of proceedings distributed in mimeographed form), roughly half (14) are collective volumes, half of which again are selected or thematic conference proceedings. (Unselected proceedings of periodic general T&I conferences of professional bodies such as FIT, ATA, ITI, etc. are not included in the category of books on interpreting.) While at least two of the monographs (Pöchhacker 1994, Wadensjö 1992) are published versions of doctoral dissertations (not counted in the previous section), the book category also includes quite a number of training manuals and textbooks as well as titles referring to practical aspects of the interpreting profession. The dominant language of publication is English (55%). The remaining books are in Japanese (4), German (3), French (2) as well as Danish, Dutch, Italian, and Spanish.

Close to four-fifths of the output of writings and research in IS documented in Bib-II is in the form of articles, i.e. papers published in collective volumes (251) or journals (241).
The above-mentioned 25% share of selected/thematic proceedings in the category of "books" could be expected to show up also in the distribution of articles in collective volumes. In fact, though, no less than two-thirds (166) of these were published in conference proceedings. Only 32 articles on interpreting are found in selected proceedings produced as books by a major international publisher (John Benjamins Publishing Co.). Of the remaining 134 articles, 78 are in "all-in" (i.e. unselected and practically unedited) proceedings of general T&I conferences published locally with very limited distribution beyond the circle of conference participants. Another 47 articles (nearly 20%) are contained in two volumes of proceedings published as the upshot of two specialized meetings on conference interpreting at the SSLM of the University of Trieste (Gran & Dodds 1989, Gran & Taylor 1990).

With nearly 40% of all works in Bib-II being articles in periodicals, it seems relevant to take a look at the media of publication as well as their relative share of works. Table 7 lists all journals with more than one reference and includes information on publishers/editors for all major journals in the list (five or more articles). There are 27 additional periodicals in Bib-II, each cited as reference for only one article. For the purpose of the present analysis they may therefore be considered "rare" journals which do not warrant further description.

A related sub-set of data finally concerns the media of publication of the 36 book reviews in Bib-II. The quantitative distribution is shown in the right-hand column of Table 7. (Tsūyaku Riron Kenkyū, the journal of the Japanese Interpreting Research Association, contains 8 review-type articles which are counted separately, since they mainly present and discuss "classic" theses and articles by "Western researchers" in Japanese rather than review novel contributions.)

The most active reviewers are Daniel Gile (8 items, including some reviews of older works and theses, mostly published in The Interpreters' Newsletter and Meta) Gérard Ilg (7 items, in Parallèles, The Interpreter's Newsletter, and Babel), and Barbara Moser-Mercer (2 items).
4.2 Discussion

The trend towards internationalization of interpreting research noted in section 3.2 above is reflected both in a broad spectrum of languages (type analysis) and in a clear predominance of English as the main working language in IS (token analysis). More than half of all works in Bib-II (55.7%) were written in English, which undoubtedly reflects the well-known trend towards the use of English as an international lingua franca of research. French and German are nowhere near as common in Bib-II (Table 3), the international scope of the latter being further reduced by the fact that more than a third of the works in German are unpublished Master’s theses. The considerable share of works in Japanese (roughly 10%) is directly related to the research infrastructure recently put in place, i.e. the founding of the “Interpreting Research Association of Japan” and its quarterly journal Kuōtari Tsūyakurironkenkyū (Interpreting Research).

Given the indistinct (i.e. overlapping) categories used, the results of the analysis for “types of interpreting” (Table 4) do not yield a very clear-cut pattern. Still, three times as many works focus on the simultaneous rather than the consecutive mode of interpreting, and conference interpreting is by far the most frequent of all the various types of interpreting distinguished by the institutional/situational setting. While it was beyond the scope of the present paper to analyze the text body of each of the 153 entries of the “general” type for more specific keywords, it would probably be reasonable to assume that the pattern of dominance found for “simultaneous” and “conference” interpreting holds true for these items in Bib-II as well.

In the breakdown of Bib-II by topics (Table 5), many works were found to revolve around “general” (60) or “professional issues” (64), with unspecific entries in the former category probably corresponding to “writings” rather than research. On the other hand, a concern with history (15) and, more significantly, with metatheoretical, methodological, and research policy issues (25) could be seen as evidence for the process of consolidation and self-definition typical of emerging disciplines. The most striking finding for the topical orientation of IS, however, is the 25% share of works on teaching and training issues (146 items). Six other areas of specific interest (output, strategies, aptitude, quality, input, neuropsychology) attracted only between 25 and 35 works in Bib-II. Writings and research on interpreting are thus clearly concentrated on one particular subject-area in the “applied domain” of IS (“teaching and training”) while other kinds of “basic research” questions such as product characteristics or communicative functions and expectations have received relatively little attention.
The topical focus on training is not surprising given the fact that most researchers and research activities have been closely linked to (university) institutions offering interpreter training, which in turn make up the principal target group of teaching-related research output. This “topical feedback loop” is also reflected in the media of publication (Table 7). With the exception of the journal of the Japanese research association and the AIIC Bulletin, the journals carrying the most articles on interpreting in Bib-II are published locally at university institutions for interpreter training (e.g. Trieste, Montreal, Geneva, Georgetown). Incidentally, the fact that the two youngest journals, which specialize on interpreting research rather than general T&I, have captured by far the largest number of publications is a clear sign of the quantitative potential of research output in IS, perhaps including the rationale for the launching of an international refereed journal by a major publisher in the field.

Finally, the overriding concern with teaching and training is also reflected in the nature of the books which have drawn the most attention from reviewers. Of the 36 book reviews in Bib-II, seven are on Seleskovich & Lederer’s (1989) Pédagogie raisonnée de l’interprétation and six on Matyssek’s (1989) two-volume Handbuch der Notizentechnik, showing the pedagogy of conference interpreting and the teaching of consecutive interpreting as the topics of prime concern in leading publications of IS.

5. Conclusion

The analysis of the literature on interpreting in the first three-and-a-half decades of IS as well as the output of writings and research in the six years from 1989 to 1994 has yielded evidence for both quantitative and qualitative changes in IS. Given the simple methods of quantification applied to the bibliographic data, any conclusions drawn from the analysis are largely tentative and await further content-based or quality-oriented analyses. In general, though, one can speak of several trends: 1) The nature and format of works on interpreting as well as the methodological approaches used indicate a progression “from writings to research”. 2) The general trend towards internationalization favours research in cooperation rather than isolation, and communication and exchange on a global rather than a national or regional level. 3) The output of writings and research on interpreting in recent years reflects growth and diversification: growth in the volume of works and the media of publication, and diversification with regard to both the geographical centers involved in IS and the types of interpreting studied. It remains to be seen whether and how these (largely) quantitative data and findings for the evolution of IS can be matched by qualitative analyses of the state of the art in research on interpreting.
References


Pöchhacker, F. (forthcoming): “‘Those who do...’ - A profile of research(ers) in interpreting”, *Target*..


THE PRAISE OF SIGHT TRANSLATION
(AND SQUEEZING THE LAST DROP THEREOUT OF)

by

Sergio Viaggio
United Nations Office - Vienna

I am convinced that the processes of translation and simultaneous interpretation differ fundamentally (as fundamentally, to begin with, as written and oral speech), and that the demands on memory and attention unique to simultaneous interpretation set it quite apart from all the other forms of mediated interlingual communication. But I am also convinced that translation and interpretation have much that is even more fundamental in common: they both deal with speech, and they are both forms of mediated interlingual communication. Precisely because of the specific psycho-motor adroitness interpretation demands, which has nothing to do with translational competence, there can be no assurance that a superb translator can make a passably good interpreter; but I do not know of any single bad translator who has turned into a good interpreter. That interpreters and translators are born is true, as true it is that musicians are also born. That interpretation and translation cannot therefore be taught is as false as it is true that music can. Interpretation can and must be taught and learnt, and translation (itself to be taught and learnt) is a crucial first step. I now realise that even as a translator, unaware of the existence of simultaneous interpretation, I was already becoming an interpreter. When I used to eke out a living translating books on sociology and linguistics back in Buenos Aires some twenty years ago, I soon discovered the cost-effectiveness of dictating my translations and having them typed later. I would just leaf through the book and start translating (an absolute no no for my students of translation, mind you); whatever editing was needed would come later. I still translate pragmatic texts into the microphone, and I can vouch that one hour of translating makes me much more money than one hour of interpreting. If I had a steady flux of translation jobs, I would be much richer — and possibly more stooping — than I am as an interpreter.

Translation I studied — if not systematically or mainly — at the university. Interpreter I became by dint of sight translating and empiric, i.e. chaotic and inefficient, practicing with tapes. With few and rather recent exceptions, I have done no consecutive interpretation, so I cannot really appreciate its didactic value. Personal experience, on the other hand, has led me to believe that sight translation in general is perhaps the most effective and complete prelude to and
preparation for attacking simultaneous interpretation\(^1\). In my courses, though, I stick to sight translation of basically pseudo-oral texts (what Chris Taylor calls 'second orality'); texts written, granted — but to be spoken, not read. Their advantage over genuinely oral texts (the transcriptions of impromptu speech) lies in their greater coherence and cohesion, plus the absence of the imperfections, redundancy and ellipsis typical of spontaneous speech. Sight translation of pseudo-oral texts shares basically only one feature with simultaneous interpretation: it must be done in real time, without the possibility of a global perspective. This lone common trait is, precisely, what makes it so useful. As Viezzi rightly points out\(^2\), sight translation and simultaneous interpretation have their crucial differences: mainly the absence of phonic input and the possibility of 'cheating,' by either leaping forward or backward to see what is coming up or checking what has already gone by. To my mind, these differences are a blessing, since they allow the student to concentrate on language and sense, without burdening memory or distracting attention to make out the acoustic equivalent of handwriting. As a matter of fact, the objectives to be accomplished through sight translation could not realistically be set in the booth. Let us remind ourselves and our students that before they can get it together and quick, they must get it together and right; and in order to get it together and right, they must first try it separately and slow. Another crucial advantage of sight translation, for both would-be translators and interpreters, is that it fosters the marriage of translating and the spontaneity of oral speech. As observed by Michel Rochard, “Les traducteurs doivent à tout prix se réapproprier l’oral pour retrouver le naturel de l’expression qui fait qu’ils seront capables de s’exprimer dans un langage moderne”\(^3\).

Let us not forget either about another by no means negligible difference: sight translation does not require any equipment whatsoever, it can, therefore, be done in any room and with a large number of students. Of course, the larger their ranks, the less effective any practical class becomes. Nevertheless, what I normally do when overwhelmed by numbers is work by chunks of two or three sentences for full translations, to a paragraph for abstracts, by turns, giving as many students as possible the opportunity to try it in class. Those who remain passive listeners can still learn a great deal from the mistakes made by their classmates and the relevant comments and corrections.

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\(^1\) A similar view is held by Weber and Ilg (whose article I have not read, though). For additional details on my views and practices, may I refer the reader to Viaggio, 1988.

\(^2\) In his two articles (Viezzi, 1989a & b), as well as in his answer to David Snelling in The Interpreters' Newsletter, 4, Viezzi questions the usefulness of sight translation, pointing out that written texts differ markedly from oral ones, and also that, unlike the interpreter, the sight translator has the whole text before him. I think my rules would at least partially dissipate his qualms.

\(^3\) “Translators ought at all costs to re-master orality in order to recover naturalness of expression, which will allow them to re-express themselves in a modern language.” (my translation, Rochard, 1990, p. 224)
Although I have not been able to try it yet, I do suggest that sight translation proper be preceded by a session of cognitive clozing⁴, whereby the students would be given two or three progressively less clozed versions of the text. The exercise offers several advantages: it develops competence at instant discourse analysis, it forces the students away from the linguistic forms of the original, it allows them to see how, in actual practice, the more 'words' of the original remain in sight, the less idiomatic and fluid the translation.

I shall now briefly explain the rules of the sight translation game as I have my students play it. First, they are not allowed to cheat and look forwards or backwards (they will, of course, but less than if not forbidden). Second, they must translate in real time (although they can choose their speed). Third, once a tempo has been chosen, it cannot be slackened: clear and even elocution must be kept, so they are discouraged from starting too fast. They are nevertheless allowed to speed up, since, provided they do it right, the quicker the better. Fourth, all manner of verbal hesitation is forbidden; they may pause, but not stammer. Fifth, self-editing is also banned: they are discouraged from opening their mouths without at least a well-planned syntagm on the tip of their tongues. Sixth, whenever there has been a false start, they must find their way back into sense without going back on their words. Seventh, the translation must be 'said,' i.e. it must be delivered as a bona fide piece of oral speech, with the right intonation and the proper pauses. Whenever any of these rules is violated, the student must start all over again. For instance, if he has corrected a false start, he must go back and pick it up from there, incorporating the false start and atoning for it with the rest of the utterance: if the speaker has said 'Karl Marx' and the student 'St. Francis of Assisi', he is prompted into something like 'St. Francis of Assisi didn't say it, but Karl Marx did: Proletarians of the world unite.' (Not that I would ever actually go for such extremes, you must remember this is, after all, a game.)

This last rule is of crucial methodological importance. To begin with, an interpreter (or any other speaker, for that matter) who is constantly editing himself soon becomes quite unbearable. Also, it teaches students the hard way not to open their mouths too soon. Next, it forces sense upon and even despite language. Finally, it greatly helps develop rhetorical competence in the target language.

The game itself is played five times (by the same or by different students, depending on their number and prowess): A full, basically semantic, translation, where they are relatively free to do as they please; a second full translation where they may not repeat any of the words used the first time around; a third, semantically full but formally maximally condensed translation, choosing the most economic TL words, forms and constructions; a maximally abstracted and condensed translation; a hybrid translation with the syllables reduced by some 30% with respect to the original. As a supplement, I lead them into ad hoc

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⁴ The exercise and its rationale are developed in my *Cognitive Clozing to Teach Them to Think* (1992b).
exercises in discourse synonymy, from isolated words to whole syntagms and constructions, whereby they have to come up with as many different 'ways of saying it' as possible.

Each version is thoroughly analysed in the following order: 1) comprehension (has the student understood everything and right?), 2) re-expression (has he made any syntactic or lexical mistakes?), 3) style (could it have been expressed better?). I delve minutely into every detail, dissecting each rendition. My motto is "the higher your best, the less abysmal will be your worst." Ideally, I think, a soldier's training ought to be more difficult than war.

Let us take a closer look at each exercise:

1. **Full, basically semantic translation.** Objectives a) come up with a plausible translation in real time; b) analyse comprehension mistakes (linguistic and, more importantly, sensic); c) analyse translation mistakes (awkward renderings, linguistic and sensic mistakes due to weak command of SL); d) burn all cognates and awkward fixed equivalents ('challenge' = 'desafiar'; 'commitment' = 'compromiso'). This first time around, I let them say more or less anything, which means all manner of cognates and dreadful cliché equivalents.

2. **Second full translation.** Of necessity, it will be freer, sometimes better and often much more awkward than the first. Objectives: a) expand active vocabulary and flexibilise syntax; b) get rid of all cognates and awkward fixed equivalents; c) force a greater freedom from the SL forms. Naturally, for this stage, the tempo and hesitation rules are somewhat relaxed.

3. **Full but maximally condensed translation.** Unlike real translators, we will be minding not the amount of words, but that of syllables. Intonation becomes crucial, since it can act as a supra-segmental, viz. non-lexical marker of cohesion and carrier of modal information. Objectives: a) help have the most economic forms come first to mind; b) start the road to instant de-verbalisation; c) break with the SL forms; d) strengthen TL competence; e) refer basically to the level of sense; f) develop the 'semantic' use of intonation as a substitute for linguistically coded information.

4. **Maximally abstracted translation in the most condensed form.** Objectives: a) identification of macropropositions; b) identification of propositions; c) incorporation of proper lexical and elocutionary cohesion markers; d) proper use of intonation for cohesive and sensic purposes; e) complete de-verbalisation (i.e. divorce from any given linguistic framing of sense).

5. **A reasonably condensed/abstracted translation.** TL syllables must be reduced by some 30% with regard to the SL - the kind of interpretation one ought to resort to most of the time so as to speak more precisely, more elegantly and with more poise than at full steam. Objectives: a) get the student used automatically to condensing and abstracting whenever possible; b) develop a pleasant, even delivery; c) develop an elegant, precise style; whilst d) concentrating simultaneously on the content of the original and the content and form of the interpretation; and e) not losing sight of the form of the original, where relevant.
* Exercises in discourse synonymy. The students are required to come up with as many discourse synonyms as possible. The exercise can be done with words and constructions. Objectives: a) maximum flexibilisation of syntax; b) maximum development of vocabulary; c) maximum freedom of expression in TL.

Another advantage of the exercise is that it can be a lot of fun - i.e. the contortions sometimes needed to find an implausible synonym or the ingenuity required to mend some false starts; and fun, in my experience, is the most efficient didactic tool.

May I now proceed to a practical example: the speech by Malaysia on the hot issue of Antarctica I have used to illustrate my game of 'Cognitive Clozing', which, as already pointed out, can ideally be combined with this one (Viaggio, 1992a).

"Antarctica is our last continental wilderness. We all have to work together to preserve this. Its extreme climate and isolation have created a wonderland of global significance, a remarkable bastion of purity and rich haven for wildlife. Seventy percent of the world's fresh-water reserves is locked in its massive ice-cap, while in the surrounding oceans the last of the blue whales roam. Indeed Antarctica is the largest wilderness area of this planet, and in many ways the most fragile. [...] Normally, an ecosystem has a wide range of levels and interrelationships. It is this variety and depth that give the ecosystem stability. However, Antarctic ecosystems contain very few levels despite considerable interrelationships. Consequently, impacts on these ecosystems have more profound effects. One single species of krill may comprise about half the plankton biomass. This biomass feeds seals, whales, fish and birds. Reduction through human exploitation of any of these components of the marine ecosystem can cause an imbalance. Such imbalance in the Antarctic is not easily restored by man or by nature. The most striking feature of Antarctica is its ice sheet, formed by the accumulation of snow over the past 100,000 years. It covers approximately 98 percent of the continent with an average of 1,600 meters and contains 90 percent of the world's ice." (218 words; 380 syllables)

I shall try and reproduce a good first semantic translation:

1. "La Antártida es nuestro último continente silvestre. Todos tenemos que trabajar juntos para preservarlo. Su clima y aislamiento extremos han creado un maravilloso paraje de importancia mundial, un notable bastión de pureza y refugio para la vida silvestre. Su masiva capa de hielo guarda el 70% del agua dulce del planeta, mientras que en los océanos circundantes nadan las últimas ballenas azules. La Antártida es, sin duda, la última región silvestre del planeta y en muchos sentidos la más frágil. Normalmente, todo ecosistema tiene una amplia gama de niveles e interrelaciones. Esta variedad y profundidad son lo que le dan estabilidad. Sin embargo, los ecosistemas antárticos contienen muy pocos niveles a pesar de interrelaciones considerables. En consecuencia, los impactos en estos ecosistemas tienen efectos más profundos. Una sola especie de krill puede abarcar casi la mitad..."
de la biomasa del plankton. Esta biomasa alimenta focas, aves y peces. La reducción por explotación humana de cualquiera de estos componentes del ecosistema marino puede producir un desbalance. Tal imbalance en la Antártida no es fácilmente restaurado ni por el hombre ni por la naturaleza. La característica más notable de la Antártida es su capa de hielo, formada por la acumulación de nieve durante los últimos 100,000 años. Cubre aproximadamente el 98% del continente con una profundidad media de 1,600 metros y contiene el 90% del hielo mundial." (221 words; 480 syllables!)

The above rendition is more than passable as a sight translation, improvable as it may be. Few of my students would have come up with anything approaching it, though. But let us assume one of them did. These would have been my qualms in order of appearance: the repetition of 'silvestre'; the rhyming 'variedad', 'profundidad' y 'estabilidad' (yes, I go into minutiae such as that); the ungainly cognate 'impactos'; the awkward 'abacar'; the tautological 'biomasa del plankton' (even if in the original); the rhyming 'reducción' and 'explotación', added to the cumbersome nominal construction; the faux amis 'cum' non-existing 'desbalance'; the equally faux 'imbalance'; the unidiomatic and wrong 'no es restaurado'; the infelicitous 'hielo mundial'. That, and the unnecessary prolixity of both original and translation, except that the students had been instructed to be as prolix. Note that although barely three words longer, it has 25% more syllables, and may be therefore unutterable.

Let us proceed to a possible second version.

2. "Ya no queda más área continental intocada por el hombre que el extremo austral. La comunidad internacional entera tiene que esforzarse para protegerla. Las tremendas condiciones climáticas, lo tan aislado que está han originado un sitio espléndido y de significación planetaria. Su gruesa y gélida cobertura contiene dos tercios del fluido potable de la Tierra, al tiempo que en las aguas que lo rodean viven los pocos cetáceos azules que quedan. Fuera del Continente, a no dudarlo, no existen ya áreas impolutas ni tampoco más delicadas. Lo usual es que cualquier sistema ecológico disponga de una extensa diversidad de estratos e interdependencias. Tales estratos e interdependencias lo hacen estable. Pero los sistemas australes disponen de escasos estratos bien que de no pocas interdependencias. Como corolario, toda incidencia en ellos posiblemente entraña secuelas de mayor hondura. Apenas una variedad de minicrustáceos acaso represente el 50% del plankton, que nutre a mamíferos, aves y especies marinas. De reducir la actividad del hombre el que sea de tales elementos, quién sabe resulte un desequilibrio. Desequilibrio que ni nosotros ni la madre natura serán capaces de restablecer.

5 In my Teaching Beginners to Shut Up and Listen (1992a), I suggest the utility of counting syllables rather than words, since that is what we actually utter. As in that piece, here I have counted most natural synaloephae as one syllable. Of course, the shorter the version, the more it has to be 'spread out,' not least because intonation gets more and more important as a marker of cohesion and modality. That is why in the case of the abstract there are bound to be less synaloephae than in the other versions.
El rasgo distintivo por excelencia del Continente es su cobertura congelada, producto de mil siglos de nevadas. Se extiende por la casi totalidad de la superficie con un espesor medio de más de 1,5 km., equivalente a las nueve décimas partes del agua congelada del orbe.”

No. No student will ever come up with such a version, but I will use it to show them that it is actually possible. Needless to point out, only the strictest compliance with the rules of a game will have me utter ‘agua congelada’ ['frozen water'] instead of ‘hielo’ ['ice'], but the fact remains that they mean basically the same thing. What I find interesting, though, is not the inevitably dismal moments (not that many or that dismal, by the way), but the actual improvements forced by the need to say it some other way: the beautiful ‘estupenda’, ‘impoluto’, ‘intocada’, ‘cetáceo’, ‘entrañar’, ‘secuela’, etc.; the absence of rhymes and twisted nominal constructions; the disappearance of ‘impactos’ and ‘des/imbalance’; etc. I know I am praising myself, but the point is that I only thought of these beauties because I forced myself to find synonyms: I actually improvised both versions as I wrote them. Another interesting device is the use of fractions as synonyms of percentage figures and vice versa, the switch from hundreds of thousands of years to thousands of centuries, from thousands of metres to kilometres, and from figures to concepts (98% = almost all). Also, words are replaced by constructions: ‘último’ = ‘que queda’ ['remaining’], ‘Antártida’ is referred to as often, but never by name... The students have normally no idea that their language actually offers such an inexhaustible array of possibilities. And that is due to the fact that they do not know it as well as they think, as all of us are so painfully aware.

We shall now say it all, but short:

3. “La Antártida es el último continente silvestre y preservarla es responsabilidad de todos. Su clima y aislamiento extremos la hacen importantísima por su pureza y como refugio de especies. La cubre, congelada, el 70% del agua del orbe. En su torno nadan las últimas ballenas azules. Es, sin duda, la última región silvestre y quizá la más frágil. Todo ecosistema tiene muchas interrelaciones y niveles que le dan estabilidad, pero aun siendo muchas las interdependencias, los niveles son pocos. Y por eso toda inercencia la afecta más a fondo. Una sola variedad de krill puede representar la mitad del plankton que alimenta a focas, aves y peces. Sí el hombre reduce uno de esos elementos puede causar un desequilibrio que ni él ni la naturaleza podrán restablecer sin más. Pero lo más sorprendente es la capa de hielo, fruto de 100.000 años de nieve, que la cubre casi entera a un espesor medio de 1.600 metros con el 90% del hielo del planeta.” (158 words; 310 syllables)

[Antarctica is the last wild continent and preserving it is the responsibility of us all. Its extreme climate and isolation make it crucial for its purity and as a haven for species. It is covered by a frozen 70% of the freshwater in the planet. Around it the last blue whales swim. It surely is the last wilderness and perhaps the most fragile. An ecosystem has many interrelationships and levels which give it stability; but there, although the interdependencies are
many, the levels are few. And that is why any impact affects it more deeply.
A single variety of krill may comprise half the plankton upon which seals,
birds and fish feed. Should man reduce any of these elements, he can cause an
imbalance not easily restored by him or nature. But the most striking is its
ice sheet, a product of 100,000 years of snow, covering almost all of it at a
mean thickness of 1,600 metres with 90% of the planet’s ice.]
No semantic component is missing, except that none is repeated, save for
‘last wilderness.’ It is in fact, the first rule of condensing: the theme need not be
repeated, since, once mentioned, it remains presupposed throughout the
utterance. That is why ‘Antarctica’ becomes just the third person singular in all
its pronominal configurations. The newly gained concision necessitates
combining sentences so that the text does not sound like a shopping list, which
in turn demands specific cohesion markers. If all the information is there, little
remains of the original’s words, which is very much for the better: the new
version is linguistically and rhetorically aper. Unshackled by English, Spanish
begins to blossom: it even sprouts its superlatives, which it seldom does in
translation and almost never in the booth. It could hardly be otherwise, since the
delegate of Malaysia is not a professional linguist, whereas I am. Indeed, the
translation and interpretation of pragmatic texts should well-nigh systematically
be better than their original, since very seldom are they really competently put
together.

The most important objective, however, is for the student to come up
systematically with the shortest equivalent. For instance ‘en su torno’ is four
syllables long, against the five of ‘a su alrededor’; there is no shorter synonym
of ‘causar’; ‘sin más’ is also shorter than ‘fácilmente’ or ‘con facilidad’; ‘congelada’
[frozen’] goes for ‘su masiva capa de hielo guarda’ [‘locked in its massive ice-
cap’]. Note that the condensed rendition is just 20% shorter than the original;
only such a version could be delivered intelligibly if the original is being read
fast.

Now for the telegram:

4. “La Antártida es el último continente silvestre y, por ende, responsabilidad de
todos. Bastión de pureza, refugio de especies, reserva del 70% del agua dulce.
Y además frágil, pues, a diferencia de otros ecosistemas, tiene muchas
interrelaciones, sí, pero pocos niveles. Una sola variedad de krill representa la
mitad del plankton que alimenta a toda la cadena. Si el hombre reduce uno de
estos componentes, el desequilibrio no lo podrán restaurar ni él ni la
naturaleza. Pero lo más sorprendente es que guarda el 90% del hielo
terrestre.” (85 words; 180 syllables)

[Antarctica is the last wild continent and, therefore, the responsibility of
us all. Bastion of purity, haven for species, reservoir containing 70% of the
fresh water. And, besides, fragile, since, as opposed to other ecosystems, it
has indeed many interrelationships but few levels. A single variety of krill
represents half the plankton feeding the rest of the chain. Should man reduce
any of these components, the imbalance cannot be restored by him or
Nature. But the most striking is it contains 90% of the planet’s ice.]
The Praise of Sight Translation

The text is indeed much shorter (less than a quarter of the original in words, about half in syllables), but no less coherent or cohesive. Nor is it that much less informative: nothing has been omitted that the audience do not really know and are able to evoke upon hearing it. The principle of synecdoche works wonders when the shared knowledge is as wide. If the original shows us Hitler extending his arm over a seemingly unending parade of the Nazi army in full regalia, we just show the swastika: the audience's shared knowledge and imagination will take care of the pictorial minutiae. As a matter of fact, I find it much better than the original and any of its versions, especially if vehemently and clearly uttered. A couple of observations: the 'single species of krill' becomes 'variety' because otherwise the word would be repeated in the same paragraph, the use of 'chain' for 'seals, birds and fish' is a typical conceptual hyperonymisation.

My middle-of-the-road rendition would go roughly as follows:

5. "La Antártica es el último continente silvestre y todos debemos preservarlo, importantísima como es por su clima y aislamiento y como reserva animal y de agua dulce. Es además la región más frágil, pues a diferencia de otros sistemas tiene si muchas interdependencias pero pocos niveles, por lo que toda incidencia la afecta más a fondo. Una sola variedad de krill puede representar la mitad del plankton que alimenta toda la cadena. Si el hombre reduce cualquier elemento, el desequilibrio no será fácil de restablecer. Pero lo principal es la tan vasta y espesa capa de hielo que contiene el 90% del hielo del planeta." (103 words, 210 syllables)

[Antarctica is the last continental wilderness and we all must preserve it, crucial as it is for its climate and isolation and as an animal haven and fresh water reservoir. It is, besides, the most fragile region, since as opposed to other systems it has indeed many interdependencies but few levels, so that any impact will affect it more deeply. A single variety of krill can represent half the plankton feeding all the chain. Reduction by man of any component can cause an imbalance not easily restored. But the main feature is the so vast and thick ice sheet, containing 90% of the planet's ice.]

A third of the words, but only 30% less syllables. Again, this text is linguistically and rhetorically better than the original. It can be seen, now, that as soon as the (good) interpreter — or translator — lets go of the words and forms of the original and finds himself on his verbal own, he will come up with an utterance better, though not necessarily, than the original, but certainly better than any more literal rendition. This is a point to be hammered into the students even as they are leaving the School with their diplomas rolled up beneath their arms.

Finally, the discourse synonymy exercises this fragment would give rise to could be as follows:
*a The students must come up (in Spanish) with:
a) Synonyms and paraphrases of 'Antarctica,' 'wilderness,' 'last,' 'seal,' '70%,' etc.
b) Synonyms and paraphrases of 'exploitation by man,' 'is not easily restored,' 'accumulation of snow,' etc.
c) The closest hyperonym, if any, or more general expression.
d) The shortest available synonymmetric word or construction.

So this is the plentiful juice I squeeze out of sight translation, I hope you have not found it too sour.

Bibliography

VIDEO- AIDED TESTING OF STUDENT DELIVERY AND PRESENTATION IN CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION

by

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The end-product of the interpreting process is the basic parameter of the audience's evaluation of the simultaneous interpreter's performance (Gran 1989: 7) but this certainly holds true also in the case of consecutive interpretation, which in the literature on quality evaluation has so far received little attention. An explanation surely lies in the fact that simultaneous interpretation takes centre stage:

ninety-eight percent of assignments of conference interpreters surveyed by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (A.I.I.C.) are in the simultaneous mode (Weber 1989: 162),

and therefore the proportionally fewer consecutive performances are more difficult to monitor and evaluate. This is exacerbated by the limited availability of interpreters as subjects for experiments in the simultaneous context (see Gile 1989: 35, 1990: 69), let alone the consecutive.

In my view, however, more attention should be paid to consecutive performance quality if not at professional level, then at trainee level, considering the amount of time spent teaching this subject in the various interpreting schools around the globe. Its utility as being propaedeutic to simultaneous interpretation is widely accepted. On the job it is preferable when high accuracy is required (legal, drafting, scientific committees, etc.). It is often used during confidential meetings, press conferences, round tables and is still utilised as a means of testing candidates by potential employers:

more importantly consecutive interpretation is an excellent means to test a candidate's aptitudes, presentation, speech patterns and general knowledge (Weber 1989: 162).

During my early experience as examiner of consecutive interpretation (from Italian into English) I was struck by the anxiety students conveyed through the voice or various gestures and mannerisms. Experience has taught me how important the teaching of delivery and presentation technique is, especially in the second half of a consecutive course after much time and effort has been dedicated to the techniques of listening, memorizing, note-taking and the perfection of language skills. But these factors alone are not sufficient, the interpreter must refine his/her skills in public speaking and as Prof. Wilhelm Weber states:
Good public speaking skills are the interpreter's "safety net" when he gets in difficulty. He can then give his full attention to solving the problem at hand and even possibly hide the existence of any such problem (Weber 1989: 164).

In order to enhance these skills in the classroom, it is necessary to give instruction on voice projection, poise, appearance, the use of microphones and generally put trainees through the mill with ample practice. Exercises in most interpreter training courses, consist in individual students giving a consecutive performance, prepared speech or report before the class, with or without video, (see Kurz 1989: 214, Schweda Nicholson 1985: 149, Weber 1989: 164), followed by subjective instructor/student observer critiques aimed at pointing out imperfections to be corrected. Personal interest in the possibility of measuring consecutive performance in a more structured, less subjective, abstract manner, led to development of a means of testing student ability at several stages of their training with the aid of video. This paper deals with the results of the pilot stage of a testing system that will undoubtedly need future refinement, for example through deletions or additions to the criteria chosen to measure performance, but it is aimed essentially at helping students at the SSLM become more aware of imperfections in delivery and presentation and therefore improve their overall consecutive performance.

The Sample

Trainee interpreters at the University of Trieste complete two year courses in consecutive interpretation from and into their A language (usually Italian) and from their B or C language. The test was conducted in winter 1995 on a group of sixteen students (fourteen female and two male), enrolled in my fourth year class. All students tested had completed the third year course and were presumed to have sufficient knowledge of consecutive technique and language competence not to compromise the task required.

Testing Method

A simple procedure was employed to test student delivery and presentation. The students, seated in a classroom equipped with a video camera focused on a desk in full view of participants, were requested in turn to go to a neighbouring class and listen to a two-minute speech read live by an Italian colleague. After having taken consecutive notes of the speech, each student returned to the group and gave a consecutive interpretation in English after the next student had left the room and the performance was filmed. This way there were fourteen students present to listen to individual performances. Following each consecutive delivery, observing participants were required to fill out a questionnaire (see appendix B) designed to obtain student evaluation of performance as simply as possible and taking from two to three minutes to complete each time.
It is important to point out that in this test language quality, pronunciation or content are not taken into consideration. Therefore there was no need for a single text for comparison (see Schweda Nicholson 1985). Sixteen different texts were deliberately chosen to prevent students from improving their delivery and presentation by hearing the same speech over and over again. The wide variety of subjects also contributed to enliven the occasion and stimulate the class for almost two hours. All texts were short Council of Europe speeches delivered by Italian politicians during 1994 sessions (see appendix A for text titles).

Questionnaire Format

The questionnaire is of closed structure with four areas chosen for investigation: voice quality, facial expression, hand control and posture (sections A, B, C and D). Several negative and positive criteria, considered characteristic of consecutive interpretation, are listed under each section and students were requested to tick any thought appropriate. Criteria are not listed in alphabetical order, but where possible in logical sequences, to avoid the eye having to skip to and fro across the page during compilation. For example, all hand movements connected to touching ornaments are grouped together, likewise any contact between the hands and parts of the head. Opposite characteristics are paired, for example, inaudible/too loud, or clear/inarticulate.

An obstacle to obtaining an objective evaluation through this test lies in my own personal choice of variables which is obviously subjective and selected through past teaching experience. However, from the results, and suggestions from colleagues and students, it is hoped that improvements will be possible. I agree with Daniel Gile’s statement that:

La réalité d'une définition "objective" de la qualité de la présentation en interprétation est donc conditionnée par la convergence des évaluations subjectives (Gile 1983: 241).

The above-mentioned questionnaire format offered students a choice between several set possibilities, but, if necessary, any extra observations could be added at the end in writing to permit open responses (section F “Comments”). In addition, it was felt that some form of numerical evaluation was necessary and, to achieve this end, students were required to give a numerical assessment of performance for each section and overall performance. A 5-point scale was chosen ranging from 1-very poor, 2-poor, 3-medium, 4-good to 5-very good. A wider-ranging scale would certainly have led to clearer, more precise graphic representation of individual student results, but was regarded as being too complex for students to handle at this pilot stage.

As no consideration is taken of language quality, pronunciation or content, three sections are designed to test visual impact (sections B, C and D) and one to test vocal impact (section A “voice quality”). But it became clear, after analysis of results, that other factors such as pronunciation and grammatical errors do
have a significant influence on both general and overall assessment. Past literature on the quality of interpreting has focused mainly on user expectations of the simultaneous performance of professional interpreters and the development of a wide range of quality criteria both linguistic and extra-linguistic (see Bühler 1985, 1986, Cartellieri 1983, Gile 1983, 1989, 1990, Meak 1990 and Moser-Mercer 1985). Although this test only takes extra-linguistic parameters into account, allowance for linguistic criteria may also have to be made and, as Cartellieri suggests,

*Much work will have to be put into developing* reliable quality criteria *some of which may have to be* language related (Cartellieri 1983: 213).

Results

Composite tables were obtained for each section recording the total number of responses per student for each variable listed, together with the percentage of total responses. A mean numeric evaluation was calculated on the 5-point scale for each student:

- for overall assessment (section E)
- to obtain the mean composite general assessment for sections A, B, C and D
- for my overall general assessment from live observation during the test (“prof. in class”)
- for my overall general assessment attained through careful viewing of the recorded film (“prof. video”).

The resulting bar graphs are illustrated in figures 1, 2, 3 and 4 with those criteria considered negative on the left and positive ones on the right. What emerges is that my subjective selection of criteria led to too much emphasis being placed on negative characteristics, a point to reconsider in future questionnaire design.

Figure 1 illustrates clearly that by far the most disturbing vocal element that emerged during the consecutive interpretations was “ums” with 56.3% of total responses (100% being equal to a total of 224 possible responses for each criteria). Ums were unskilfully used as a cover-up tactic to disguise hesitation and pauses for reflection (see Schweda Nicholson 1985: 149). Often ums were not sufficient to gain precious time and so, not surprisingly, “hesitant” ranks second in frequency of response (31.7%). Third place is filled by “repetitions” with 14.7% of total responses followed closely by “monotonous” (14.3%). “Too slow” a speed of delivery and “slight tremor” of the voice are two characteristics which received relatively low percentages of total responses (12.9% and 12.5% respectively). Of the positive criteria, “clear” ranks first (33.9%), but others such as “pleasant” (12.9%) or “confident” (19.6%) had less impact on respondents.

In figure 2, the positive characteristic most noticed by the group was “eye contact” (47.3%). “No eye contact” received 12.9% of total responses, which is a
curious result, as careful examination of the video tape revealed that all sixteen students established eye contact with the audience to varying degrees. However, on closer observation, some students tended to look only at me, the camera, one section of the class, or kept their head downwards giving only a few, rapid, furtive glances at the audience, thus excluding most of the group from proper contact. The only other positive characteristic illustrated is “relaxed” (15.6%), whereas several negative ones emerge. The first is “tense” (30.8%), followed by “grimaces” (14.3%), “eyebrow movement” (12.5%), “too serious” (12.5%), “swallowing” (11.6%) and “irregular eye movement” (8.9%). When speaking one normally raises or lowers the eyebrows to give emphasis to one’s utterances but some students in class tend unconsciously to exaggerate this movement and so for this reason “eyebrow movement” was added to the list. Nervous “swallowing” (11.6%) was discovered in the case of seven students after video observation. “Irregular eye movement” was likewise detected in nine students on video (8.9%) and was generally associated with hesitations and skyward gazing in desperate search for inspiration. In one case, an occasional rapid succession of blinks could be observed as the student repeatedly stared into space. “Nervous tics” fortunately ranked very low (1.8%), noted in only two cases. One student tended to adjust her chair at frequent intervals, whereas the other sniffed occasionally and moved shoulders irregularly. “Wetting lips with tongue” (7.1%) noted in seven cases on video, was another non-vocal cover-up tactic to gain time or a way of moistening a mouth made dry by anxiety. It was probably mistaken for “biting lips” (4.0%) in two cases, as on viewing the video, no cases were observed. Three students conveyed the impression of irritation (“irritated” 1.3%) but the lowest ranking characteristic is “face hidden by hair” (0.4%). This was an unexpected result, as during normal class hours or examinations it is of common occurrence. Whether girls do this consciously to shield themselves from direct observation in some way I do not know, but it often leads to the hands repeatedly adjusting the falling tresses, a characteristic added to section C (hand control). More probably, as the students had been told of the test beforehand, they spruced themselves up, tied back their hair and refrained from another albeit rare activity, gum chewing in class.

Turning to section C on hand control (see figure 3), results indicate few problems in the class as a whole. A good number of students controlled their hands (42.9%) refraining from anticipated negative gestures. Apart from “hand gesticulation” (25.4% of total responses noted in eleven students) and “trembling hands” (12.1% noted in nine students) other characteristics were insignificant or irrelevant. (Only one student repeatedly touched her nose and another fidgeted with her pen). It should be borne in mind that hand gesticulation in Italy is a normal culture-specific, non-vocal means of communication, far more so than in English-speaking countries, therefore after analysis of results it was felt that in a future questionnaire, this characteristic should be tested as a positive speech concurrent gesture, if not excessive. Ambiguity arose over the definition of “good” or “poor page turning technique”. These criteria were added in anticipation of fumbling to turn notes, holding pages up to hide one’s face from
the audience, flicking back and forth, etc., but as no one erred seriously in this direction, they will be omitted in future, with possible addition under “comments” (section F), should the need arise. Likewise in the case of “hand in pocket” and “rattling keys/money in pocket” which both tend to be male gestures. The male/female ratio at the school is so marked (in favour of the latter), as to warrant the deletion of these two characteristics from the test too. "Adjusting clothes" intended to test student response to the adjusting of sleeves or ties especially on sitting down and settling. During a seated consecutive interpretation the students usually hold onto their notes with one or both hands, thereby reducing the temptation to adjust attire. It was expected that participants under stress would fidget more with pages or jewellery, but only two students fidgeted with rings (1.8% of total responses) which as in the case of “adjusting hair” mentioned above, probably indicates that prior notice of the test and attendance at lessons on delivery and presentation at the beginning of the academic year prevented many students from falling into the expected traps.

The fourth bar graph (see figure 4), illustrates the results for posture. “Controlled” posture is the only positive characteristic ranking high with 46.9% of total responses. Indeed all students but one were judged as controlled, yet tenseness filtered through nonetheless, providing the highest negative response (24.6%). This is followed by “stooping over table” (10.7% of total responses noted in nine cases), and “shuffling of legs/feet” which ranks a low third (3.6%), possibly because few student observers could see the lower half of the interpreter’s body clearly. “Rocking” the body backwards and forwards or from side to side, was noted in three cases, two of which in association with “shuffling of legs/feet”. Two respondents (resulting in 0.9% of total responses) noted a “nervous tic” in one student, though I was unable to identify it on the video. All that emerged were repeated leg movements which should have been entered under one of the other two appropriate characteristics on the list. “Crossing of legs” and “leaning back on chair” were also rare (both obtaining 0.9% of total responses) indicating that they are problems of minor importance.

The space provided for extra comments in section F was used by only 6 students, firstly better to qualify ticked responses, and secondly, to add extra single characteristics not listed. In the former case the following were added: too relaxed, too hesitant, and very pleasant. In the latter case students suggested: expressive, nervous, communicative, poorly pronounced, convincing and low-pitched. Lastly, a few fuller comments were added:
- only looked at one part of the audience
- eye contact not constant
- frequent uh sound on word endings
- jerky voice delivery
- shy way of looking at the audience
- problems with s-endings.

Characteristics not listed and not noted by the students that emerged from my own viewing of the students, firstly live and later on video, were the following: tense clasping or clenching of the hands, head negation after a mistake or
hesitation, expressions of perplexity, sniffing, smiling, laughing, dryness of the mouth, stammering, lowering of the voice at the end of sentences, and pursing lips at the end of the consecutive revealing self-doubt.

Having outlined the results of the test for each section, I would like now to turn attention to the numerical evaluation that was obtained using the 5-point scale:
- general assessment for each section A, B, C and D
- overall assessment (section E).

Each student obtained a total of fourteen assessments for each section, which were averaged to obtain an evaluation and thus a means of comparison, (see table 1). In order to represent student performance in a more meaningful manner, each of the four assessments was then transformed into a radar graph for each participant. The resulting sixteen graphs can be observed in figure 5. The larger and more diamond-shaped the graph, the better the presentation and delivery. For example the best result was obtained by student 7, whereas student 12 has problems in all four areas tested. Student 15 was assessed as having good voice quality, posture and hand control, but evidently has slight problems with facial expressions. Yet a further example is student 9, who was assessed as having good hand control and posture, average facial expressions, but must work harder to improve voice quality. It was thus possible to give each student their own personal profile of delivery and presentation and by testing the students this way at least twice a year, in autumn and spring, it is hoped that a comparison of profiles (radar graphs) will provide the student with an objective measure of improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Number</th>
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<th>Average A B C D Prof. in class</th>
<th>Prof. video</th>
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<td>4.1</td>
<td>4</td>
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</table>

Tab. 1 Numerical evaluations
A new set of results emerged by comparing "overall assessment" (E) for each student with the average obtained for sections A, B, C and D only, as illustrated in figure 6. It can be seen that the evaluation remains unchanged for students 4, 13 and 14, and in other cases there is not much variation except for a wide disparity in the case of student 10. In only five cases is the "A, B, C, D average" lower than "overall assessment" (1, 4, 7, 11 and 13).

A further comparison can be made by adding my own assessment ("prof. class") measured during the test and it is interesting to note that from students 1 to 6, four students received a higher evaluation than for either "overall assessment" or the "A, B, C, D average", but from student 7 onwards, my evaluation remains constantly lower than that of the class, as would be expected, with the single exception of student 16. This unanticipated inversion may best be explained by the fact that at the beginning of the test I was very much preoccupied with the smooth running of the operation, the switching on and off of the video camera (as no technician was available), the ushering of students in and out of the room, etc., and this probably led to less attention on my behalf than should have been the case. As the test proceeded, ticking and marking became more mechanical and I settled down to a fixed routine. From the results I suspect that students too were more attentive by the third or fourth consecutive, as student means remain rather static from 1 to 5, after which they begin to fluctuate a little more (see figure 6). This finding calls for a trial testing of say two students to enable the class to adjust to the situation before beginning the test proper.

It is interesting to point out that in some cases where overall assessment was low, general assessment in one or more sections was high, or vice-versa. This suggests that other factors such as poor pronunciation or grammar were influential, warranting further investigation.

After completion of the test, I viewed the film very attentively four times for each student. Accordingly it was possible to acquire a new set of responses and thereby obtain a fourth assessment "prof. video", which was added to figure 6. The most evident (and expected) result was a considerable drop in evaluation, which occurred in ten cases. The reverse occurred only once, for student 7. In cases 2, 9, 11, 13 and 14 my original opinion remained unaltered.

Comparison between live and video viewing for each section A, B, C and D is illustrated in figures 7, 8, 9 and 10 clearly showing the drop in evaluation in nearly all cases. During a live viewing, fortunately for the participants, observers do not always notice or are not disturbed by many of the slight "negative" mannerisms and gestures during performance. With the aid of several video viewings, all movements and expressions, no matter how insignificant, slight, or marked, can be pin-pointed by the instructor and evaluated. Thus video becomes an indispensable tool for bettering trainee performance.
Didactic Utility

The principal aim of this video-aided test is didactic, to identify class weaknesses in order to ameliorate class awareness of defects and thus enhance the teaching process, leading to an improvement of students' consecutive presentation. The test in itself was a useful didactic exercise during normal class hours. The four sections and relative criteria were designed to make the students immediately aware of a specific set of problems. The three-dimensional bar graphs (figures 1, 2, 3 and 4), which indicate the percentage of total student responses, give a clear indication of those positive and negative features which the class noticed. The higher the response to criteria, the higher the percentage value, which provides a "class profile" for each section, indicating particular weaknesses to be improved by appropriate exercise.

Several days after the test and analysis of results, each student was called individually and shown his/her personal profile (radar graph). Detailed observations were made regarding individual results for each section of the questionnaire, firstly from the point of view of the class as a whole and then as seen by myself after viewing the video. The student was then shown the video recording twice, which proved enlightening in all cases.

Discussion of the experiment in class also took place. The main element to emerge was that many students admitted to being less nervous than expected (despite the presence of a video camera) as they knew they would not be judged on pronunciation, language or content. They felt that had these parameters been included in the test, they would have fared far worse. Others admitted that prior knowledge of the test had influenced their behaviour. As regards section A "voice quality", on the whole they felt that pronunciation and language errors were in some cases so marked as negatively to influence overall assessment and therefore some form of measurement of these two elements should be included. As Cartellieri pointed out:

*Good pronunciation almost automatically makes for higher quality gradings* (Cartellieri 1983:213).

The test and the resulting video recording were appreciated by all participants to the extent that they suggested a more frequent use of this method in class to improve consecutive interpretation. The graphs gave them an objective measure of performance, individual discussion of results was instructive and video viewing gave them a true reflection of themselves as seen by others.

Conclusion

In conclusion this pilot test has proved an extremely useful instrument for evaluation of trainee consecutive presentation and delivery. It has enabled the calculation of a more objective evaluation than mere subjective classroom critiques of student performance, and has highlighted the validity of video tapes as a didactic tool applied to the training of interpreters. The exercise was very much
appreciated by the students themselves, who found the test revealing. The frequent filming of trainee performance is a widely used method in many schools. Frequent use of this suggested test would also prove useful but rather complicated owing to the laborious data transfer and processing involved.

It is intended, after appropriate modifications to the questionnaire, to use this method only three times during a consecutive course, firstly on trainees before any formal public speaking lessons have been given and then twice more during and at the end of the course.

A possible alternative to this method could be the testing of consecutive interpretation while standing at the microphone. Another experimental application could lie in the field of aptitude testing. It would be interesting to test the delivery and presentation of aspiring interpreters during reading or sight translation. Yet another application could be enquiry into how anxiety affects consecutive performance. Cartellieri reports D. Gerver’s experiment with simultaneous interpretation whereupon it was found that a threshold exists:

above which anxiety had negative results but performance of those with higher anxiety levels would be superior to the performance of others, and anxiety would be clearly reflected in the quality of content interpretation and of vocal output (Cartellieri 1983:210).

Presentation and delivery are such an important part of the interpretation “end-product” that it is desirable for research to continue in the field of professional interpreter user-expectations and quality, but it is of equal importance to teach trainee interpreters about them too and not only in the simultaneous context. It is hoped that this paper will stimulate further interest and research in this direction.

References


Gran, L. (1989): “A brief review of research work on interpretation conducted at the SSLM and of recent similar studies conducted in Canada and the U.S.A.”, in L. Gran and Ch. Taylor (eds.), Aspects of Applied and Experimental Research on Conference Interpretation, pp. 4-20.

Gran, L. and Dodds, J. (eds.), (1989): The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpretation, SSLM, University of Trieste, Udine, Campanotto Editore.


APPENDIX A - List of texts

La questione albanese.
L'adesione di nuovi paesi membri al Consiglio d'Europa.
L'adesione della Slovacchia al Consiglio d'Europa.
San Marino e la pena capitale.
La questione curda.
Razzismo e xenofobia in Europa.
La politica d'integrazione degli handicappati.
Il fenomeno della droga.
Libertà religiosa.
Rapporti della Svizzera con le Nazioni Unite.
Il problema delle minoranze.
Collaborazione nord-sud.
Giornalisti morti in guerra.
Il settore dell'informazione.
Le telecomunicazioni europee.
La situazione nella ex-Jugoslavia.
APPENDIX B - The Questionnaire

**QUESTIONNAIRE: PRESENTATION AND DELIVERY DURING CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION**

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**A) VOICE QUALITY**

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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Lively</td>
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Fig. 1 - Voice Quality - Percentage of Total Responses

- Slight tremor
- Repetitions
- Sighs
- Ums
- Nervous cough
- Pleasant
- Monotonous
- Lively
- Over-emphatic
- Too slow
- Too fast
- Inaudible
- Too loud
- High-pitched
- Hesitant
- Confident
- Fluent
- Clear
- Inarticulate
Fig. 2 - Facial Expression - Percentage of Total Responses
Fig. 4 - Posture - Percentage of Total Responses

- Nervous lines
- Crossing legs
- Shuffling legs/feet
- Leaning back on chair
- Rocking
- Stooping over table
- Tense
- Controlled
Fig. 7 - Comparison of Voice Quality Evaluation
Fig. 8: Comparison of Facial Expression Evaluation
SPEECH ERRORS, SHADOWING AND SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION

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Abstract

Shadowing without a competing message has traditionally been used as an experimental tool to study the perception and production of running speech. A series of experiments (Marslen-Wilson, 1973, 1975, 1985) has demonstrated that the simultaneous decoding and encoding of messages involves not only auditory, articulatory and phonological processes, but relies on syntax and meaning as well.

The present study intends to be a continuation of this line of experiments and focuses on the monitoring of incoming messages during shadowing performance. The experimental design consists in the shadowing of a text containing anomalous sentences, i.e. sentences with different types of speech errors (Fromkin, 1973). The aim of our experiment is to analyze the ability of subjects to detect and to restore phonological, morphological and lexical errors during the shadowing task. The results show that subjects tend to overhear phonological errors more than higher-order errors. Thus, it is possible to draw some conclusions on the monitoring of speech during a shadowing task and on the usefulness of this technique for developing specific skills.

1. Introduction

The most important studies introducing disrupted sentences and anomalous texts in order to test speech processing during the simultaneous analysis and synthesis of continuous prose were carried out by Marslen-Wilson in a series of experiments (Marslen-Wilson, 1973, 1975). The paradigm of disrupted speech was subsequently adopted by Cohen (1980) and Lackner (1980) who deliberately used speech errors in their shadowing experiments.

In his studies, Marslen-Wilson used the shadowing technique to investigate the general process of speech perception. Specifically, he demonstrated that

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1 Although the two authors have discussed and collaborated on the working of the article, Livia Tonelli is responsible for sections 1-2 and Alessandra Riccardi for sections 3-5.
restorations of mispronounced words, irrespective of subjects' individual shadowing latencies, are determined not only by auditory but also by semantic and syntactic analysis of the incoming message. Error restorations performed by close shadowers showed that their word production is determined exclusively by on-line perceptual analysis of the incoming message. These results provide strong evidence for the fact that speech perception does not only depend on superficial analysis. High speed and efficiency characterize both deep and surface structure processing, so that some individuals can simultaneously listen to and repeat the message within an ear-voice span of approximately one syllable.

Cohen based his study on the shadowing of texts containing phonological and lexical speech errors. He demonstrated that the word is the monitoring unit for the first kind of errors and that subjects tend to overhear phonological errors more readily than lexical ones.

Lackner devised an experimental design to investigate shadowing of speech material presented at three different speed rates and containing syntactic and semantic errors. His results provide support for the fact that “at high rates of stimulus presentation subjects correct deviant material without being aware that it is deviant”.

Within interpretation studies, the shadowing paradigm has been compared to simultaneous and consecutive interpretation in order to test to what extent in these three complex tasks speech processing implies different degrees of cognitive load (Treisman, 1965; Gerver, 1974; Lambert, 1988). Moreover, shadowing has been recommended as a useful exercise for evaluating interpreting aptitude (Lambert, 1989; 1992; 1991; Schweda Nicholson, 1990). The validity of shadowing as a training technique for beginner courses has been favoured or questioned or confuted by different authors (for a review of the various positions see Kurz, 1992; Kalina, 1994).

This study on the one hand aims at applying the results of previous studies on the perception of running speech and on the other at providing greater insight into the controversial question about the usefulness of shadowing as a pedagogical instrument.

2. Method

Subjects

Forty interpretation students (9 male and 31 female) at the SSLMIT took part in the experiment as volunteer non-paid subjects. All subjects were native speakers of Italian and had learned at least one second language before puberty. None of them suffered from any known speech or auditory impairment, 38 were right-handed and 2 left-handed. Of the forty subjects tested, 19 had enrolled in the first year and 21 in the second year. All students had received training in interpretation (sight translation, text summarizing in L1 and L2, paraphrasing); the first group had interpreted for at least one month and the second for six months. None had received systematic training with shadowing.
Material

The material chosen for the experiment was a 570-word argumentative text passage (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981) made up of 18 propositional units, each of them comprising on average 32 words.

For the purpose of this experiment two versions of the same text were used: a correct version and a version containing errors similar to lapses which occur during speech production (Fromkin 1971, 1973, 1980; Magno & Tonelli 1993). Errors were of phonological (phoneme substitutions), morphological (substitutions of derivational morphemes), and lexical type (substitutions of content words). All selected errors were perceptually salient. Perceptual saliency for phonological errors was established in accordance with Cohen's results (Cohen, 1980). As to morphological errors, suffixes in transparent derived words were substituted. The error suffix was always more frequent than the original. Malapropisms, i.e. words with identical stress-pattern, number of syllables and onset phonemes (Fay & Cutler, 1977), were used as substitutes for content words.

The incorrect version of the text contained 15 errors, 5 for each type. The errors were uniformly distributed within the text.

The two versions of the text as well as a practice passage were read by a male reader at a rate of 3.40 words per second and were recorded with a Sony HX PRO TC-RX77 tape recorder. The practice passage contained no errors, was of similar complexity and half as long (200 words). In reading the erroneous version, special attention was paid to maintaining word stress-pattern and sentence accent pattern of the original.

3. Procedure

Two groups of 18 subjects were formed, one with students of the first year and the other one with students of the second year. The groups were divided into three subgroups of 6. The first subgroup received the instruction to repeat exactly what was heard. The second was informed of possible errors in the text and was instructed to correct them, the third was similarly informed about possible errors in the text but was invited not to correct any of them. To four students (control group), the correct version of the text was presented.

All subjects were invited to shadow the text at the distance most comfortable for them. The material was presented at a volume level of 75 ± 5 db.
4. Results And Discussion

An analysis of the protocols of the shadowing results showed that both I and II year students performed the task correctly. The number of restorations under the three different experimental conditions are reported in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>No Instructions</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Do not correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PHON  MORPH  LEX</td>
<td>PHON  MORPH  LEX</td>
<td>PHON  MORPH  LEX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>86,6  50,0  50,0</td>
<td>90,0  55,5  66,6</td>
<td>36,6  22,2  33,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>90,0  38,8  50,0</td>
<td>80,0  94,4  66,6</td>
<td>66,6  38,8  16,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 1:** Percentage of restorations produced by beginners and advanced students in a shadowing task with three different types of instructions. Phon = phonological errors, morph = morphological errors, lex = lexical errors.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) with one between-subject factor (year) and one within-subject factor (type of instruction) was carried out for all data. The analysis of variance yielded no significant differences between beginners and advanced students \((F = 2.19; \text{df} = 1,30; \text{p.ns.})\). The different types of instructions had a significant effect on the number of errors correctly restored \((F = 21.9; \text{df} = 2,30; \text{p} < .01)\). The interaction between year and instruction type was not significant \((F = 1.82; \text{df} = 2,30; \text{p}. \text{ns.})\).

As the results have shown, the year of interpretation study bore no influence on the number of error restorations. The following analysis was therefore effected on all data available both for the first and second year. Figs. A, B and C show the number of errors restored versus errors preserved under the three different instruction types.

![Fig. A: Percentage of errors restored (C), not restored (NC) and omitted error words (O) when no instruction was given.](image-url)
Scrutiny of Fig. A shows that when no instruction was given to the students the tendency was to restore phonological errors (88.3%) more readily than morphological (44.5%) or lexical ones (50%).

Fig. B: Percentage of errors restored (C), not restored (NC), omitted error words (O) and substituted error words (S) when the instruction given was to correct.

Comparison of fig. A with fig. B shows to what extent the invitation to correct the errors affected the results. While the percentage of phonological restorations (85%) did not change substantially, the incidence of morphological and lexical corrections was much higher (75% and 66.6% respectively) than under the previous condition.

Fig. C: Percentage of errors restored (C), not restored (NC), omitted error words (O) and substituted error words (S) when the instruction given was not to correct.
Fig. C requires further comment. First of all, it is interesting to note that the percentage of phonological errors restored against expectation (62.7%) is congruent with the results obtained by Cohen (1980) on a corpus of Dutch errors (60%). Strong similarities also emerge when comparing our lexical restorations (27.2%) with those reported by Cohen (15%) and with the semantic restorations obtained by Lackner (1980) for English (13.6%). The comparison of Lackner’s grammatical restorations (28.4%) with our morphological restorations (33.3%) also results in similar percentage values.

Moreover, the data shown in fig. C are the result of an error detection task. Subjects were explicitly invited to repeat the errors as they heard them and, therefore, the corrections made against expectation reflect their on-line error awareness better than the number of restorations during the shadowing task. The percentage of phonological errors correctly detected was 33.6%, of morphological errors 60.6% and of lexical errors 63.6%, so that inferences can be made about the monitoring of incoming message at different linguistic levels.

5. Concluding Remarks

The overall results of this study show that subjects in a shadowing task detect phonological errors less readily than morphological and lexical ones. This suggests that during the simultaneous decoding and encoding of the message subjects are more aware of errors at deeper linguistic levels while showing less awareness of mispronunciations at the more superficial phonemic level.

In shadowing, the sharing of attention between the auditory decoding and the articulatory encoding of speech interferes with the perceptual analysis of input signal, so that the acoustic-phonetic cues are not matched with the corresponding phonemic image, but with the expected phonemic representation. Perceptual expectation at phonemic level is influenced from top-down analysis of the message which in turn has a bearing on the monitoring of incoming speech.

Though no definitive conclusions may be drawn on the usefulness of shadowing as a training tool for interpretation students, nevertheless, some tentative suggestions may be formulated.

As has been claimed in literature, shadowing is a technique which can be variously targeted to enhance different subskills: shadowing in a foreign language can improve competence in decoding new acoustic patterns and producing unusual articulatory sequences; shadowing combined with recall tasks helps the abstraction of ideas and message retention; shadowing of speech presented at different rates speeds up auditory decoding and articulatory encoding.

To enhance phonological attention, shadowing exercises may be devised consisting, for example, of elements with low or no referential meaning: lists of terms pertaining to a specific semantic field, lists of unordered numbers, connected prose frequently interspersed with numbers and lists of nonsensical
but phonotactically plausible words. The training of phonological attention is suitable, of course, for advanced students as the exercises described above reflect, to a certain extent, the reality of technical conferences where simultaneous interpreters must often rely much more than usual on their capacity to perform rapid phonemic analysis and synthesis rather than processing speech at deeper semantic levels.

References


SELF-EVALUATION: THE AWARENESS OF ONE'S OWN DIFFICULTIES AS A TRAINING TOOL FOR SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION

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Introduction

Simultaneous interpretation (SI) is currently being considered a 'black box' whose complex internal workings make it unsuitable for a single comprehensive explanatory model. Indeed, SI performance implies such a co-occurrence of skills and processes (cognitive, linguistic, emotional and behavioural) that many authors are rightly suggesting that investigations in the field be directed to the analysis of individual components (skill components, Moser and Lambert, 1994; with particular reference to memory, Darò, 1994; delivery quality, Viezzi, 1994; language-pair related difficulties, Snelling, 1992, Russo, 1990).

The present work is an attempt at breaking down the SI process into isolated features through an empirical approach in order to encourage SI students to analyse their performance, discover their weaknesses and strengths and channel their resources during the training period accordingly.

Materials and Methods

From the academic year 1988-89 to 1993-94, 135 questionnaires were submitted to students attending their first year of conference interpretation training at the SSLM of the University of Trieste. The questionnaire (see annex 1) is part of a wider project on a SI aptitude test started in 1989 (see Russo, 1989, 1990 and 1993) and is organized according to the following problem areas relevant to SI: COGNITION, EXPRESSION and EXPERIENCE. As the questionnaire consists of two parts (the first, side A, requesting a spontaneous enumeration of difficulties and comments by the student and the second, side B, containing 5 specific questions), two further problem areas have emerged from the students' own remarks: a well-defined one, EMOTIONS, and a more fuzzy one, here defined "OTHER" which includes aspects not mutually related and therefore not classifiable into one single category plus a few technical features.

The questionnaires were submitted according to the following procedure. At the beginning of their third year (corresponding at the SSLM to the first year of conference interpreting), the students recruited in the above-mentioned aptitude
test project were first asked to practice dual task exercises in order to become familiar with the process of listening and talking at the same time. Then they entered the booth where they had to “translate” a 5-minute political speech simultaneously. The peculiarity of the test lies in the fact that the “translation” is intra- and not interlinguistic: that is, they listened to an Italian speech which they had to paraphrase in Italian. Soon after this exercise, the students had to complete the questionnaires on their difficulties and impressions.

From the methodological viewpoint, it must be noted that despite the clear indications provided, not all the students answered all the questions and, conversely, several students answered more than one question when only one was expected in a mutually exclusive set: that explains why the total of replies does not always amount to 100% of respondents for each individual item.

Results

The highest number of positive replies was given to question 1 (side B) concerning the dual-task nature of SI (111 yes against 21 no): it is difficult to listen and speak simultaneously, but why? It would seem that the major problem area regards the linguistic output (level of expression) rather than the cognitive level (attention, concentration, processing, memory and comprehension).

The data collected will be presented according to problem area, drawing from both sides of the questionnaire simultaneously.

Expression

In ranking the sources of concern to the students in descending order of importance, PARAPHRASING, namely conveying the same meaning using a wording which differs from the original (question 1.3, side B) appears to be the greatest challenge: indeed, 93 students (out of 116) reply that they find it difficult. Side A of the questionnaire confirms the same data: out of 99 students who spontaneously indicate difficulties in expressing themselves, 63 highlight various features of paraphrasing. Breaking down this latter figure: 44 subjects generally admit their difficulties in producing an autonomous speech rather than repeating slavishly, especially as it seems hard to find synonyms and avoid losing relevant information; 8 find difficulty in departing from the syntactical structure of the source language (SL); 6 in finding equivalent expressions; 5 in completing sentences.

FORM (question 1.2 ) is the second major source of concern for the students. 65 (out of 102 respondents) attribute their difficulties in speaking while listening to their preoccupation with expressive form. Amongst the spontaneous answers, 9 indicated the same problem, 5 of whom because of the consistent and
formally acceptable linguistic register requested, 2 because Italian does not "flow easily", despite it being their mother tongue (in one case the student attended high school in GB and the other stated that it is a handicap of which she is daily aware) and 2 lack the equivalent language style (rhetorical, political or bureaucratic, etc.). To complete the data concerning expressive difficulties, from side A it emerges that: 15 have problems in SUMMARIZING (14 cannot manage to produce brief and concise statements and 1 cannot simplify entangled and redundant political language) and 12 have problems of CONTROL (7 on output with a view to ensuring a constant speech flow and correct syntactic and semantic relations, 2 on adequate timing to start speaking, 2 on continuing to speak without syntagmatic gaps or interruptions and, finally, 1 on producing the clearest possible message because she is aware of interpreting for somebody in that particular moment.

Cognition

The third reason why students find it difficult to perform this dual task exercise is linked to TEXT ANALYSIS problems. Analysis is an ambiguous term because it belongs to both the linguistic and cognitive levels and since the processing of incoming information proceeds not modularly but through simultaneous shifts between the different levels (morphosyntax, semantics, memory), reference may only be made to dominance of one processing level over the others (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981). In this respect, here analysis refers to a more general task with emphasis on the cognitive aspect (ranging from parsing to meaning detection and organization). 64 respondents against 45 (question 1.5) confirmed that the complex language surface structure had hampered decoding, even if, when asked for more information, it seems more a problem of memory retrieval than of parsing and comprehension as such, since some students considered difficult the memorization and reproduction of part of the sentence judged important when perceived: 54 against 39 (question 1.5.3). However, a considerable number of students had problems in gaining access to the meaning of the sentence (33 against 54, question 1.5.2) or in distinguishing between constitutive and secondary information items because they had been confused by the language form (23 against 54, question 1.5.1). One student, in particular, spontaneously declared that the fact that the SL was Italian made the analysis more difficult.

While text analysis ranks only third following difficulties of expression among the factors hampering this dual-task exercise, it is certainly the main problem of a cognitive nature encountered by the students.

Other typically COGNITIVE features of this dual task exercise such as memory, attention and processing of meaning emerged from the situations described; in particular, from the spontaneous remarks as many as 66 students (against the previous 99 concerning linguistic difficulties) freely expressed considerations related to this domain.
MEMORY ranks second. The background knowledge of the topic stored in
the long-term memory of the subject (in our case, terrorism and terrorist attacks
against civilians in Europe in the '80s) helped the students in their performance
(86 against 36, question 3), however not quite to the point of anticipating the
speakers' remarks (29 yes against 57 no, 1 partially, 1 did not remember, 1 did
not know anything about it).

On side A of the questionnaire, 25 subjects mentioned their memory
problems: 9 could not memorize the sentence well enough to reproduce it
properly, 5 could not remember the beginning of their own sentences, 5 could
not maintain an adequate décalage (for 4 it was too long and the information was
consequently forgotten and for 1 it was not long enough to enable the desired
reorganization of the incoming message), 2 could not remember the most
suitable words, 2 could not remember the key elements necessary to provide a
meaningful target language (TL) version, 1 could not recall the subject and 1
could not remember lists of words in long sentences.

ATTENTION ranks third amongst the sources of concern spontaneously
expressed: 16 students have problems with it, 12 of whom in preserving the
same attentive level without drops of concentration and 4 cannot pay attention
to the subsequent sentence while already processing one or merely a chunk of
meaningful information.

Another noteworthy aspect related to attention (in the sense of attention to
the global meaning of the sentence) emerged from the replies to question 2 (side
B) of the questionnaire. The recorded text had been partially manipulated in order
to introduce a few well-known disturbing factors for SI: lists of words, numbers,
gaps etc. The gap, in this case, occurred at syntagmatic level since from the S-
V-O progressive sequence the verb was omitted and replaced by the sound of the
speaker clearing her voice. As many as 19 students against 104 (almost one
fifth) were actually unsettled by this slight interruption of the verbal flow and
lost control of the sentence. 4 other students added that they did not remember
the instance, evidently (and rightly, from the point of view of focusing on
meaning in context and not just words) taking no notice of the event thus
displaying the correct approach to SI.

COMPREHENSION of the meaning ranks fourth: 13 students indicate
difficulties related to it, 7 of them in actually focusing on the meaning rather
than mere words, 5 in grasping or following the global meaning (the
macrostructure according to Kintsch and Van Dijk, in Mackintosh, 1985), 1 in
grasping the really meaningful information while repeating quotations.

Information PROCESSING SPEED ranks fifth: 10 subjects have problems of
this nature. 5 of them declare themselves too slow in processing and verbalizing
concepts; 4 cannot keep up with the SL production rate; 1 stated that the
information is so dense that there is not enough time to expand it properly.

Finally, 1 person declared his ignorance in the subject matter: knowledge in
general (world or encyclopedic knowledge) is another cognitive aspect and
therefore it seemed appropriate to mention it in this section.
Emotions

Another problem area that emerged from the spontaneous remarks concerns the EMOTIONAL level.
15 students declared that they were hampered by their emotional state: in particular, 10 said that they had to fight to overcome their emotions due to the “booth effect” (the earphones inhibited some of them) and a sense of fatigue and agitation; 2 wanted to be sure of having conveyed the key message; 2 were afraid of betraying the sense of the message and 1 was afraid to leave the sentences incomplete.

Other

From the unrelated remarks grouped together under the label of “OTHER” (5 replies in all): 2 expressed the need not to fall into the trap of over-anticipating the speaker’s communicative intention; 2 were well aware that their “mind was divided” into three different parts: one searched for synonyms, one monitored the meaning of the TL and one checked the consistency of the subsequent sentence and the occurrence of new pieces of information; 1 stated that, given the novelty of the exercise, only at the end had she understood its purpose and begun to reformulate the incoming text.
Finally, still concerning question 1, some students attributed their difficulties in speaking and listening at the same time to TECHNICAL features such as voice overlapping (34 against 65, question 1.1) and SL speed (14 considered it fast against 84 who considered it right, 2 slow and 2 not adequate, question 1.4). From the spontaneous comments (only 2), 1 complained about the too loud volume (to the point of causing stunning) and 1 about background noises in the earphones.

Experience

To conclude, some information was collected about students’ EXPERIENCE in the field.
In the questionnaire the last two points inquired into the students' personal experiences with similar exercises (question 4) and with SI in particular (question 5). As to question 4, 98 students had none, 8 some (5 shadowing, 1 memorization exercises, 1 sight translation and 1 did not specify). As to question 5, 52 had already tried it once or twice (except for one student who had already attended a formal training course) and 59 never.
Discussion

As expected, comprehension is not a factor that can be taken for granted in human communication and is language-independent. Indeed, as Steiner wrote as early as in the mid-seventies (G. Steiner, 1975: 47): “On the inter-lingual level, translation will pose concentrated, visibly intractable problems: but these same problems abound, at a more convert or conventionally neglected level, intra-lingually. The model ‘sender to receiver’ which represents any semiological or semantic process is ontologically equivalent to the model ‘source-language to receptor-language’ used in the theory of translation. In both schemes there is ‘in the middle’ an operation of interpretative decipherment, an encoding-decoding function or synapse... In short: inside or between languages, human communication equals translation”.

From the self-evaluation carried out by the students this statement is confirmed: despite the fact that the SL and the TL were the same (Italian) and the level of comprehension was assumed to be homogeneous for all the 135 Italian mother tongue subjects, comprehension was not a marginal problem (46 of them, between replies and comments, referred to it).

In this case, impaired comprehension can certainly be explained by the extra processing burden on human resources ensuing from the competitive tasks implied by SI. However the very fact that there is a difference amongst the students’ degree of performance has a two-fold implication. Firstly, from the point of view of aptitude to SI, it means that some will start their training course with greater ease in balancing their resources and secondly, from the point of view of the student, that the awareness of that specific weakness will imply sharpened attention and well-targeted personal effort, during the training course, to offset it.—

From the results, however, it appears that the cognitive features implied by SI are less problematic than expression. In particular, paraphrasing poses the greatest challenge for students. When asked to process a verbal text and reproduce it on-line, they must inductively establish the semantic equivalence between the source and their target speech and this effort may impair their performance.

On the merits of paraphrasing as a way of highlighting students’ linguistic and cognitive skills that are also relevant for code-switching practices, such as SI, more experiments are probably necessary to confirm this intuitive approach. It is however a fact that paraphrasing plays a central role in language activities as Catherine Fuchs wrote:

Nous rappellerons tout d’abord la place essentielle qu’occupe le paraphrasage parmi les activités de langage: pouvoir paraphraser, c’est témoigner que l’on maîtrise une (ou des) langue(s) en particulier, et la faculté de language en général... (Fuchs, 1982: 91).

In particular:
Qu'il s'agisse d'une langue maternelle ou d'une langue étrangère, la capacité de paraphrasage est reconnue comme témoignant la maitrise de cette langue; ceci est vrai aussi bien en production (aptitude à la reformulation paraphrasique) qu'en reconnaissance (aptitude à l'identification de variantes paraphrasiques). ...Ce lien reconnu entre capacité de paraphrasage et maitrise linguistique explique le fréquent recours à des exercices de paraphrasage, tant dans la pratique des "techniques d'expression" que dans les méthodes d'apprentissage de langues étrangères: le phénomène paraphrasique est au coeur des préoccupations psycho- et sociolinguistiques. (ibidem: 91-92).

Paraphrastic structures and procedures have been widely studied (see Fuchs, 1982 and 1988) and therefore will not be dealt with in the present article. We shall only quote Fuchs' closing remarks which epitomize their importance in language:

Nous avons essayé d'aborder le phénomène paraphrasique dans sa globalité, comme un phénomène homogène, quel que soit le niveau où se trouve établi le jugement d'identification sémantique (niveau du sens, de la référence, des valeurs pragmatiques ou des valeurs symboliques) (Fuchs, 1982: 177).

The objection could be raised that the great difficulties in paraphrasing were due more to the conditions under which the task was performed (time and morphosyntactic constraints) than to the task itself. This is certainly possible but, once again, the wide range of results originating from the same starting conditions among the 135 students and ranging from the total inability to react suitably, through the syntactic rearrangement of the same lexical units and glissement sémantique, to a successful overall paradigmatic and sintagmatic restructuring of the original sentences bear witness to the different degree of linguistic and non linguistic skills hitherto developed by the would-be interpreters recruited in this experiment. Since paraphrasing is a meaningful verbal indicator (see above) of the cognitive ability to understand and reproduce a message (unlike exercises such as shadowing during which repetition does not always entail comprehension, since each process involves a different functional area of the brain, see Luria quoted in Kurz, 1992), it seems likely that those who spontaneously and effortlessly show this ability to process a text stand a better chance when embarking upon a training course in SI whose main focus is the processing of meaning and not of words only. A word of caution is however in order at this stage since what makes a successful professional interpreter is not just the command of one language, which is why the final validation of the results obtained in this intra-linguistic aptitude test, namely if the promising would-be-interpreter will actually ever become an interpreter, depends basically, amongst other things, on his command of the other languages spoken. However important, the linguistic aspect of SI is not all because SI is a complex cognitive and linguistic task.
A single isolated remark shed light on the true nature of SI: its being a communicative event. One student described the importance of "being aware that one is interpreting and therefore aiming at producing the clearest and most concise message possible". The insight of her being a link, a cultural mediator, an indispensable tool of communication places SI in the right perspective. All excessive concerns about form vanish and all resources are summoned to convey the speaker's communicative intentions in the most comprehensible way to someone who is listening. This interactive dimension is often forgotten by SI students who practice for hours in the lab by themselves and often lose sight of the fact that they are actually speaking to someone who will react accordingly.

These results provide significant teaching implications. First of all, given the difficulties prevailing at the level of delivery, it seems appropriate to focus on the development of expressive, analytical and language transfer skills.

As to the first two aspects, especially in the preliminary stages, exercises of linguistic formulation of the SL like paraphrasing or oral summaries both intra- and interlinguistically, and improvised or prepared speech presentation seem very appropriate exercises.

But, in addition to the asset of mastering more languages, the real peculiarity of simultaneous interpreters lies in their transfer ability as Dillinger also demonstrated in his experiment on bilingualism vs interpreter professional competence (Dillinger, 1990). As far as transfer strategies are concerned, what Wilss considers the main purpose of the science of translation fits well the objectives of a SI training course:

> The principal tasks of the science of translation are thus to develop operating procedures which will make it possible to factor the transfer from SLT to TLT against the background of the intended meaning in the SL, to organize the individual factors in a plausible frame of reference and extract from them a logical model of description and explanation, and to derive from the latter conclusions which can be applied from different points of view in translation theory or used in the descriptive and/or applied aspects of the study of language pairs.” (Wilss, 1982: 63)

Another important factor which may come into play in an interpreter's performance are emotions. Fear, uncertainty, lack of confidence, nervousness, uneasiness are all feelings hinted at by several students (15). The curricula of a training course in SI does not envisage counselling, of course. Yet there must be room for encouraging the student to face and overcome his discomfort through greater command of the techniques. Self-confidence and performance are indeed mutually influential factors.
Conclusion

SI students are usually overwhelmed by the pressure and the demands of building up their professional competence at all levels simultaneously: they must read to keep abreast of current affairs in all countries of the languages spoken and to increase their vocabulary, listen to enhance their oral comprehension, practise memorization and text-analysis exercises to develop skills of analysis and summarizing, to name only a few daily activities. Perhaps a good starting point could be taking stock of one's own already developed cognitive and linguistic strategies. To this end any self-evaluating tool promoting this awareness becomes a valuable training tool because the students can channel their resources autonomously in a more economic and profitable way.

Similarly, trainers could focus their teaching efforts according to the specific needs manifested by a specific group of students and assign 'ad hoc' tasks.

As far as the questionnaire is concerned, I am aware of the methodological limit of having artificially separated areas whose borderline is not at all clearcut (the cognitive and linguistic levels are very often intertwined) and of having probably underrated other equally decisive factors, but schematization is often indispensable in order to highlight and ponder over the individual components of a complex task implying thorough investigation within a variety of relevant disciplines (psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, semiotics, etc.).

To conclude, the present empirical research offers only a small contribution to the screening of the difficulties entailed by speaking and listening simultaneously. It is based on the opinion of a limited student population and therefore no general rule can be drawn. It would be extremely interesting if others carried out similar surveys promoting self-evaluation and awareness amongst SI students with a view to enhance teaching strategies.
ANNEX 1: Translated version of the questionnaire

SIDE A
Name and Surname
First language
Second language
What difficulties have you experienced?

SIDE B
1. Did you find it difficult to go on listening and hence follow the incoming message? yes 111 no 21
   If yes
   1.1 because your voice covered the recorded voice: yes 34 no 65
   1.2 because you concentrated too much on expressive form: yes 65 no 37
   1.3 because you were restrained by the demands of trying not to repeat the same words of the original speech: yes 93 no 23
   1.4 because the text was not read at an adequate speed: slow 2 quick 14 right 86 no* 2
   1.5 because the length of the sentence and its complex syntax gave rise to problems: yes 64 no 45

   *in particular:
   1.5.1 the sentences are so confusing that one cannot distinguish between more and less important information: yes 23 no 54
   1.5.2 the message does not seem clear and therefore immediately accessible: yes 33 no 54
   1.5.3 it was difficult to remember that part of the sentence judged important when heard (problem of recall): yes 54 no 39

2. At some point you may have heard “to...ehm...terrorism”: has that missing word, hence that gap in the text, impaired the comprehension of the meaning of the sentence? yes 19 no 104 don't remember* 4

3. The knowledge of the subject matter has made the exercise easier: yes 86 no 36
   If yes, to the point of enabling you to foresee and therefore anticipate the speaker's remarks: yes 29 no 57 partially* 1 don't remember* 1 didn't know the subject matter* 1

4. Have you already done similar exercises?: no 98 yes 8 shadowing*5 memorization*1 sight translation*1

5. Have you already interpreted simultaneously ?: yes 52 no 59
   * the replies in italics have been added by the students
References:


INTERPRÉTATION CONSÉCUTIVE ET EXERCICES PRÉPARATOIRES

by
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Lorsqu'on possède un savoir-faire et qu'il faut le transmettre à autrui, on essaie de trouver le chemin le plus direct et le plus efficace pour le faire. Tel est le but des exercices préparatoires à la consécutive et à la simultanée illustrés par d'éminents professionnels, enseignants et chercheurs (Ilg 1978; Lambert 1989; Delisle 1981).

Dans le présent article je mé propose d'analyser quelques problèmes se posant à l'étudiant face à l'apprentissage de l'interprétation consécutive (IC). Chercheur à la SSLMIT depuis quelques mois seulement, je ne suis évidemment pas en mesure, aujourd'hui, de fournir les résultats d'un travail expérimental me permettant de prouver ou de démentir la nature propédeutique des exercices adoptés dans cette École. Je me limiterai donc ici à présenter ces exercices qui devraient en principe contribuer à la création de bonnes conditions de départ en favorisant le développement des capacités cognitives, l'approfondissement de la langue propre aux sujets traités, l'appréhension des stratégies de reformulation et l'appropriation du texte. J'évoquerai ensuite les difficultés que les enseignants ont relevées chez les étudiants et dont les étudiants eux-mêmes ont fait état.

Les résultats obtenus à ce jour sont encourageants. Il reste à prouver leur utilité de façon expérimentale.

Les deux types d'exercices préparatoires adoptés au cours de français sont la traduction à vue (TV) et la mémorisation (M).

Si par TV on entend appréhension globale et transposition libre et rapide du message (Ilg 1978: 73), on ne peut que constater un échec chez l'étudiant. Il se révèle incapable d'appréhender du regard un groupe de mots, d'en comprendre le sens et de le transposer librement et spontanément en langue cible (LC) tout en continuant d'avancer visuellement dans le texte. A mon avis trois obstacles enchevêtrés les uns dans les autres entravent le processus de la TV et par conséquent en compromettent le résultat.

Premier obstacle: l'étudiant se trouve à faire deux opérations distinctes simultanément: lire et parler, lire un texte X et communiquer un texte Y, c'est-à-dire le texte qui devrait résulter du processus de déverbalisation-compréhension-reformulation. Le conditionnel est de rigueur, car c'est justement le processus de traduction qui constitue le deuxième obstacle. Habitué à la traduction écrite et involontairement conditionné par le signe graphique, rarement l'étudiant réussit à s'éloigner des mots imprimés sur la page pour les comprendre, en dégager le sens. Il reste prisonnier de l'écrit et incapable de produire un texte oral, ayant été...
pendant des années un récipient qu'il fallait remplir de notions ou, pire, d'équivalences linguistiques. Il est donc important de l'obliger à retrouver le "chemin de l'oral" (Ilg 1978: 69). Le troisième obstacle est représenté par l'incapacité de comprendre ce que dit le texte. Il s'agit, d'après moi, de l'aspect le plus terrible et le plus difficile à éliminer. Cette incapacité, confirmée par les étudiants eux-mêmes, découle de deux carences: ignorance des sujets traités (débats au Parlement de l'Union Européenne, économie, politique internationale, ...), ignorance de la langue (LC et LD) en contexte.

Il est évident que pour obtenir une TV acceptable, il faut aider l'étudiant à surmonter ces obstacles. J'ai donc tacitement renoncé à la TV canonique et j'en ai fait une pseudo-TV. Après une première traduction orale d'un paragraphe, je mets en évidence les erreurs de sens et de formulation linguistique en montrant les liens étroits qu'il y a parfois entre les deux. Ensuite je demande à l'étudiant de procéder à une deuxième traduction du même paragraphe en se détachant le plus possible du texte original et en renonçant délibérément aux équivalences linguistiques ou au mot-à-mot, même là où il pourrait très bien le faire. Je propose par exemple à l'étudiant de commencer sa phrase par un complément du texte X et d'en faire le sujet du texte Y. Ensuite je pose les questions suivantes: "A-t-on dit la même chose que l'orateur? A-t-on respecté son vouloir dire?" Ainsi je lui montre l'aspect ludique de la reformulation et la potentialité linguistique découvant de la compréhension de l'idée. Cet exercice effectué en langue A et B permet de travailler non seulement sur la compréhension, l'entendement du sens, mais aussi sur la langue, tout en stimulant la capacité de s'exprimer correctement. Cela devrait préparer à un partage équitable des énergies disponibles, ne consacrant à la reformulation linguistique que l'énergie nécessaire (Gile 1985, 1995). Parfois j'exploite le même texte et je demande à l'étudiant d'expliciter, là où c'est possible, les liens logiques implicites à l'aide des fameux mots charnière. Cela l'oblige à vérifier s'il a compris le sens, bref à s'approprier le message, (Israël: 1991). En conclusion on peut résumer les objectifs de ce type d'exercices en deux points:

- reformulation linguistique en tant que moyen pour développer les capacités cognitives personnelles,
- reformulation linguistique en tant que moyen pour stimuler la capacité d'expression en langue A et B.

Les mêmes objectifs sont à la base des exercices de M. Par exercice de M on entend l'écoute attentive d'un passage d'un texte X (généralement un paragraphe, quelques phrases) et sa restitution immédiate en LC. L'effort d'écoute et de reformulation s'accompagne d'un considérable effort de mémoire. Il va de soi que je demande à l'étudiant de ne pas prendre de notes sauf pour les dates ou les

1 LD = langue de départ.
2 Une traduction littérale doit être le fruit de la compréhension du sens et du choix conscient de la formulation linguistique, ce qui fait de l'apparent mot-à-mot le résultat fortuit d'un processus mis en place sur un texte X en LD pour arriver à un texte Y en LC, et relevant des ressemblances morpho-syntaxiques de deux langues romanes comme l'italien et le français (Déjean Le Féal 1993: 178).
chiffres s'il en ressent le besoin. Ce n'est qu'après avoir acquis la maîtrise de ces exercices, que les étudiants reçoivent des indications sur la prise de notes. Chacun d'eux développe alors son propre système, veillant à ce que les notes ne jouent que le rôle qui leur est propre, c'est-à-dire celui de support physique à la mémoire.

Les deux phases qui caractérisent l'exercice de M recoupent d'une certaine façon celles de l'IC³.

Mais voyons d'abord la phase d'écoute et de compréhension. C'est pendant cette phase que s'effectue l'analyse du texte de départ (TD). Je suis tout à fait d'accord avec Weber (1989) lorsqu'il souligne l'importance fondamentale du développement des capacités d'analyse et de mémorisation avant d'aborder la prise de notes. Nul n'ignore les pièges de ce support physique à la mémoire qui entravent le travail de compréhension. Après avoir constaté chez la plupart des étudiants la tendance à transposer chaque mot, chaque structure syntaxique en un alphabet de symboles, je me demande s'il existe un antidote pratique pouvant conjurer cet effet secondaire redoutable. La recherche des mots clés semble en être un. L'étudiant est appelé à restituer le passage entendu de façon télégraphique, se servant de mots ou groupes de mots résumant une ou les idées principales. Cet exercice se fait sans texte écrit sous les yeux, ce qui exige un effort de compréhension et de mémorisation qui le distingue de la recherche des mots clés en analyse du texte. Son objectif prioritaire est celui de faire ressentir à l'étudiant toute l'importance de la compréhension et de l'économie en prise de notes. Cela dit, je n'ai pas l'intention de contrecarrer ce que Thiéry (1989: 207) a affirmé: "(...) personne ne peut dire à un étudiant ce qu'il doit noter ...", encore faut-il que ce qu'il note soit porteur de sens.

La deuxième phase est celle de la restitution du sens du TD en LC. Le travail de l'apprenti interprète suit le texte présenté par l'orateur. Cette succession permet à l'étudiant de mieux analyser et éventuellement de regrouper, synthétiser, comprimer et organiser les idées exprimées, suivant, le cas échéant, une structure du discours différente de celle utilisée par l'orateur. Cela devrait correspondre plus ou moins à la phase de restitution en consécutive où, balayant d'un regard sa feuille, l'interprète est à même de communiquer de façon organique les idées notées et d'ajouter au bon moment les détails mémorisés. Une fois le sens appréhendé, il devrait être aisé de le transmettre en LC. Toutefois, on remarque que l'étudiant qui d'habitude s'exprime correctement dans ses langues A et B, perd son aplomb en IC. Il serait grave de ne pas percevoir l'inquiétude et l'anxiété qui s'emparent de lui au moment où il doit produire son texte. On pourrait attribuer cette réaction à une compréhension insuffisante et erronée du TD, mais il faut reconnaître que parfois les idées sont là, aussi claires à l'esprit de l'étudiant que sur sa feuille. Cependant, contrairement à ce que nous déclare Boileau, les mots pour les dire ne viennent pas aisément. Il s'agit donc de stimuler et de rendre actif

³ Le partage en deux phases est tout à fait arbitraire et dicté par un souci de clarté. On voit généralement l'IC comme un processus se composant de plusieurs phases où certaines se juxtaposent à d'autres (Weber 1989: 163).
ce qui est passif et latent. D'où la nécessité d'accorder une attention particulière aux problèmes de reformulation pendant les exercices préparatoires, afin de fournir à l'étudiant les moyens nécessaires pour se détacher du TD et s'exprimer le plus spontanément et le plus librement possible, tout en maintenant son effort de compréhension et de retenue du message. Les problèmes de la reformulation n'ont à ce jour fait l'objet que de peu de recherches (Snelling 1992; Straniero). C'est pourtant un domaine qui semble riche d'enseignements et devrait mériter l'attention la plus sérieuse. Souhaitons donc qu'à l'avenir il devienne un champ d'investigation prioritaire.

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ON TEACHING CONFERENCE INTERPRETATION BETWEEN
COGNATE LANGUAGES: TOWARDS A WORKABLE
METHODOLOGY

By
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Preface

Conference interpretation is currently the subject of active research at world level. Old theories are confirmed or discarded on the basis of scientific tests. Consideration is given to language-specific aspects. Of these, the ones posed by interpretation between cognate languages appear to be particularly interesting and worthy of pedagogic attention. Indeed, when very different languages are involved, students are easily alerted to the relevant interpretation problems and are equally easily convinced of the need fully to study their source language (SL) and its culture, as the meaning of SL speeches is otherwise absolutely undecipherable. Furthermore, basic conference interpretation techniques (lagging, attention to the sense of the message rather than to the words in which it is couched, etc.) are immediately seen as unavoidable if target language (TL) intelligibility is to be achieved. When translating a cognate language, however, students often come to the conclusion that the message is generally transparent and that, even if rendered in the TL with little, if any, mediation, it still sounds somehow “right”. Any pedagogic approach to the teaching of conference interpretation between cognate languages must therefore come to terms with this underlying problem. Students must be led to realize that interpretation between cognate languages is as difficult as between very different languages and that failure to implement specific and tested strategies can have devastating effects on the accuracy and, sometimes, the very intelligibility of their delivery.

In the present paper, I describe some typical problems raised by conference interpretation between cognate languages, with examples taken from my professional and academic experience as free-lance interpreter for the European Communities and the private market as well as lecturer of conference

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2 See, for example, The Interpreters’ Newsletter, Special Issue No. 1, 1992, entirely devoted to the specific aspects of translation and interpretation from and into Japanese.
interpretation from Spanish into Italian at the SSLM (Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori) of the University of Trieste. On that basis, I propose a preliminary approach to the development of a teaching methodology with a list of ad hoc exercises, most of which have been empirically tested in the classroom.

Part I: Inherent difficulties in interpretation between cognate languages
Introduction

In an article published in the third issue of The Interpreters’ Newsletter, I gave a brief overview of the areas most likely to impair interpretation quality between cognate languages, with special reference to the Spanish-Italian combination. Here, I endeavour to build on that initial assessment and gain fuller insight into problems most likely to arise when translating, in particular, a Spanish speech into Italian.

Morphosyntax

Morphosyntactic problems often underlie clumsy or even utterly mistaken interpretation between cognate languages. A classification of Spanish problematic structures according to their degree of morphosyntactic dissimilarity with corresponding Italian structures has been the subject of a graduation thesis at the SSLM, later presented in an abridged form during a round table organized at the School (Russo, 1990). The author’s categories and examples already provide a valuable working basis for the preparation of “targeted” exercises in which students are asked to develop translation automatisms. However, practical observations during my professional and academic activity were instrumental in detecting further morphosyntactic aspects that have been the subject of pedagogic attention in my lessons. The following are a few instances of such aspects.

Gender matching

Students learning to interpret a language similar to their own are soon faced with the problem of SL and TL paronyms that have similar meaning but different gender. In the Spanish-Italian case, a large number of Spanish masculine terms, like “énfasis”, “análisis”, “desmentido”, “eclipse”, “apéndice”, and “origen” are feminine in Italian, while quite a few feminine words in Spanish, including “cárcel”, “carga”, “magneo”, “proclama”, “señal”, and “orden” are masculine in Italian. Although, after some training, students generally manage to add the right article to the TL paronym, they often keep using the wrong gender with more distant attributes in sentences like the
following: “En este sentido, considero que deben apoyarse las dos enmiendas presentadas por el Grupo Socialista, una de las cuales tiende a reforzar precisamente la implicación de las autoridades de las regiones con vocación textil [...]”

Word order

The need to change the word order in a sentence is rarely felt by interpreting students when the SL is cognate to the TL. The result of this attitude, almost invariably a clumsy or rather artificial translation, occasionally is actual misinterpretation. For example, the Spanish adverb “también” often misleads Italian interpreters as it does not always appear next to the expression it modifies. Such difficulty is clearly shown in sentences like the following: “Comprendo lo que han dicho algunos de ustedes: “Atención, en el Convenio de Lomé III había también unas previsiones de consulta y no siempre se hicieron”.”

More often than not, students will assume the adverb refers to “previsiones” and deliver a formally correct but practically mistaken translation. Indeed, the modified expression is “Convenio de Lomé” and the quoted statement indicates that [...] “Anche nella Convenzione di Lomé erano previste delle consultazioni, ma non sempre hanno avuto luogo”.

The same problem arises in connection with the adverb “igualmente”: “Señora Presidenta, quiero felicitar igualmente al Sr. Cunha de Oliveira por el excelente trabajo que ha hecho en defensa de los intereses de un colectivo y de unas regiones importantes para la Comunidad, sobre todo para la parte sur de la Comunidad Económica Europea [...]”.

If the interpreter were to introduce the Italian “anche” or “parimenti” in the same position as its Spanish equivalent, the sentence would be understood as meaning that the speaker, after congratulating somebody else, now wishes to acknowledge Mr Cunha de Oliveira’s work, too. In fact, he simply wants to join previous speakers in congratulating his colleague.

Relative clauses

Relative clauses are much more frequent in Spanish than in Italian. Therefore, if indiscriminately kept in the Italian translation, they would often sound correct but unnatural. For example, in sentences like: “El alto mando militar norteamericano ha pedido a la Casa Blanca que no acelere el estallido del

4 Marín, EC Commissioner, E.P., pr. ed., 15.5.90.
conflicto”

In the following case, however: “El desmentido se produjo horas después de que el diario israelí Maariu publicará tal información”, a nominal clause would be the normal Italian choice (“dopo la pubblicazione [...].”

Furthermore, relative clauses such as the following: “Posteriormente, el pleno del Senado fijó en 6 pesetas la subida que experimentará el gasóleo desde el 1 de enero, rebajando en 2 pesetas las pretensiones de Hacienda”, can be omitted altogether with no sense loss and be replaced by a simple or compound preposition (“[...] ha fissato a 6 pesetas l'aumento del gasolio a partire dal primo gennaio [...].”

Finally, much more treacherous instances exist in which maintenance of the relative clause in Italian results not only in clumsiness but also in ambiguity. The following sentence is a case in point: “De hecho, en un primer momento, el ministro de Obras Públicas y Transportes, José Barrell, se mostró receptivo a sus peticiones y elaboró un informe que llegó a estudiar la Comisión Delegada del Gobierno”.

If the relative clause were kept in Italian, doubts would be raised in the listeners' minds as to whether the report went so far as to study the activities of the Government Committee, or whether, as the speaker actually meant to say, indeed it was the Committee that eventually studied the report. In this case, the best way to convey the sense of the original message would be the use of a past participle (“studiato dalla Commissione [...].”)

Modal verb omission

Interpreters are often put off by Spanish sentences beginning with an infinitive that later turns out to be the second element of an elliptic modal verb combination. Sentences like the following, pronounced by a Spanish delegate in a meeting of the “Foodstuffs Legislation Group” at the EC Commission in Brussels, are heard quite frequently in normal interpreting practice: “Sr. Presidente, un poco al hilo de lo manifestado por la delegación británica, decir que también tenemos unas dudas sobre la oportunidad de actuar de esta forma”.

Modal verb omission (“quiero, or quisiera”) before the infinitive “decir” might lead the interpreter to regard the infinitive as the subject of a non-existent subordinate clause. In this case, the suggested strategy would be to try and guess the real sense of the verb from the speaker's tone and, if uncertainty persists, resort to neutral sentence beginning, only adding the modifier, if necessary,

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7 El País, 27.12.90: 2.
9 Ibid.
when the sense of the message becomes clear. In the previous example, one could start as follows: “Signor Presidente, [...], anche noi nutriamo dei dubbi sull’opportunità di questo modo di procedere”, and conclude the sentence there if modal verb omission eventually proves to have been the case, or add something like: “[...] ma questo non ci impedisce di accettare la soluzione proposta in uno spirito di collaborazione” if the infinitive turns out to have been the subject of a clause ending, for example, with: “no es óbice para que aceptemos la solución que se nos propone en un espíritu de colaboración”.

Lexicon

Paronyms, that is word pairs that look and/or sound similar but may have deep semantic differences, are the most serious and common lexical problem when translating a cognate language. For teaching purposes, a distinction between generic and technical paronyms has proved useful in raising students' awareness to the problem's different dimensions.

Generic paronyms
Connotatively different

Although probably less serious than outright misinterpretation, the use of a TL term that more or less conveys the same meaning as its SL paronym but would not normally be used by a TL speaker in the same context because of misleading connotations remains a hurdle to “transparent” interpretation. Furthermore, if frequent, it seriously impairs interpretation quality. Indeed, when an unusual, although understandable, term is used, listeners' attention shifts from the speaker's message to the words in which it is couched. Moreover, listeners may be led into thinking that the unusual term was employed by the original speaker for some unclear reason, with the result of further distraction and confusion.

Consider, for example, the following sentence: “El esfuerzo del Sr. Saridakis y de la Comisión de asuntos jurídicos para hacer lo más abierto posible y diáfano el mercado del seguro de vida es un esfuerzo realista que tiene en cuenta las dificultades existentes”10.

If the interpreter were to translate the Spanish “diáfano” with its Italian paronym “diafano”, listeners would probably have no doubts as to the ultimate meaning of the word but would either get distracted by its unusual use in that context (the correct Italian equivalent would be “trasparente”, as “diafano”, although having basically the same meaning, immediately conjures up images of ethereal maidens) or start wondering whether the original speaker was being deliberately ironic.

The same can be said for the paronymic syntagms “dominio público” and “dominio pubblico” (which are almost homophones, too) as applied to the following statement: “La inclusión en este espacio, también, de bienes señalados en el artículo 3.° de la Ley de 28 de julio de 1988, es decir la Ley de Costas, o sea, las zonas de dominio público marítimo-terrestre, y la influencia de los procesos geológicos que allí se dan sobre la conservación del Parque Nacional [...]”\(^{11}\), where the use of “dominio pubblico” instead of the correct “demanio” (“State property”) once again draws the listeners’ attention to the peculiar use of the expression, away from the speaker’s message.

Classic

Classic paronyms, that is word pairs that even people with little or no SL knowledge have learned to mistrust because of the plethora of anecdotes recounted by tourist friends or which have been experienced first hand during a journey abroad, do not pose serious problems to interpretation students, who are expected to have been alerted to their existence in the early stages of language learning. Some pedagogic attention, however, should be devoted to the fact that some of the SL terms whose TL paronyms students would never use may have more than one meaning and accordingly pose problems to the unware interpreter. Just to mention an example among many, the Spanish “amasar” is generally known to mean “impastare” (“to knead”) rather than “ammassare” (“to accumulate”), but few students would recognize the verb as meaning “to plot” in sentences like: “¿Qué está amasando tu hermana?”

Lesser known

Lesser known paronyms include word pairs that are not easily recognized as treacherous but cause serious misinterpretation problems unless their full semantic contents are well known beforehand. The Spanish-Italian combination is particularly rich in such paronyms, which include, on the Spanish side, words like “bizarre” (“valoroso”, “valiant”, not “bizarro”, “bizarre”), “boato” (“fardo”, “pompa”, “ostentation”, not “boato”, “roar”), “comparsa” (“gruppo di persone in maschera”, “group of dressed-up people”, not “comparsa”, “bit player”), “dormitorio” (“camera da letto”, “bedroom”, not “dormitorio”, “dormitory”), “éxito” (“successo”, “success”, not “esito”, “result”), and “farfallón” (“balbuziente”, “stammerer”, not “farfallone”, “womanizer”).

An instance of gross misinterpretation arising from a Spanish word with an Italian paronym having a completely different meaning occurred at the SSLM during the 1991 Summer session of the final exams, when a candidate was

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11 Martínez-Campillo García, Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados, 26.6.90: 2225.
translating a speech by the then UN Secretary General, Pérez de Cuéllar, on drugs abuse and control.

"Me satisface, naturalmente, que la iniciativa surgiese en buena parte de mis coterráneos de América Latina; y, en forma más general, me ha complacido el amplio apoyo y aliento que los Estados Miembros han dado al fortalecimiento de los programas del Fondo de las Naciones Unidas para la Fiscalización del Uso Indebido de Drogas, la Junta Internacional de Fiscalización de Estupefacientes y nuestra División de Estupefacientes".

The student's usage of an Italian paronym ("fiscalizzazione") to translate the Spanish "Fiscalización" gave the Secretary General's statement a ludicrous overtone, as if he was proposing to levy a tax on the illicit use of drugs. Indeed, while the Spanish term implies the idea of enforcing controls, its Italian paronym only refers to taxation.

"Double edged"

SL lexical ambiguity is sometimes complicated by the fact that one of the senses of the ambiguous lexeme is roughly equivalent to that of its TL paronym. For the Spanish-Italian combination, a fitting example of such "double-edged" paronyms is given by the Spanish adjective "tremendo", which adds to the meaning of "terrible", shared by its Italian homonym, that of "enormous" or "extraordinary". While in sentences like: "Señor Presidente, creo que nadie puede negar el tremendo interés con que este Parlamento ha seguido siempre la evolución de los acontecimientos en la República de Sudáfrica, reflejo de esa preocupación que sienten todos los pueblos de Europa", an interpreter with a good knowledge of the language and of the profession would have no difficulty in rendering the real sense of the adjective, matters get more complicated if the speaker mentions the "tremenda experiencia que tenemos nosotros en este campo", because in this case the meaning only becomes clear after listening to the following bit: "[...] ya que llevamos casi diez años trabajando sobre este asunto".

Technical paronyms

Technical paronyms, that is paronyms pertaining to specialized areas, are the subject of particular attention in interpretation classes. In this case, proficiency in both the students' mother tongue and SL is no longer sufficient to avoid misinterpretation. A thorough knowledge of the relevant discipline is required to

12 Javier Pérez de Cuéllar, statement before the UN Third Commission, 28.11.84.
14 Spanish delegate in a meeting of trade union representatives, EC Commission, 17.3.92.
ascertain whether the TL paronym is indeed used in the same field with the same meaning or whether another technical term is more appropriate. Consider, for example, the verb “reescalonar” in sentences like the following: “La deuda pública ya ha sido reescalonada, el pasado 27 de febrero.”15

Although the verb “scaglionare” does exist in Italian and, by extension, its compound “riscaglionare” could appear to be a legitimate translation of the Spanish lexeme, the correct technical term would be “rinegoziare” (“reschedule”).

National institutional terms

Institutional terminology, a special sub-category of technical terminology, poses serious problems to all interpreters, but creates particular confusion and sometimes serious misunderstanding when it concerns a cognate language, as the SL term often has a TL paronym in the same institutional area, which may however stand for a different referent. For the Spanish-Italian combination, particular difficulties are posed by the institutional terminology related to the recently established Comunidades Autónomas, which are roughly equivalent to the Italian Regioni and have come to play an extremely important role in Spanish public life (see Fusco, 1991). Indeed, not only are problems posed by the fact that different Comunidades use different, and sometimes even contrasting, terms to indicate the same bodies, but also by the existence of Italian paronyms that indicate completely different bodies at regional level. For example, the Spanish “Consejo” (de Gobierno) translates the Italian “Giunta”, while its paronym “Consiglio” is, in the case of Asturias, a fitting translation for “Junta”. Likewise, the Spanish “Junta”, which is used in different Comunidades to indicate the legislative body (Asturias), the executive body (Galicia, Estremadura), and all governing bodies taken together (Andalusia, Castile-La Mancha), should only be translated with its Italian paronym “Giunta” if employed with reference to two Comunidades out of the five in which it has been adopted. Therefore, in a sentence like the following: “Existen, además, en la zona dos parajes naturales declarados por la propia Junta de Andalucía”16, the real cultural equivalent would be the term “Regione”.

The same applies to another sentence taken from the same speech: “En cambio, referente a la propuesta de incorporar al Parque Nacional las superficies calificadas por el Parlamento andaluz como Parque Natural del entorno de Doñana, entendemos que sería necesario sustentarla con la elaboración de un exhaustivo estudio [...]”17, where the Italian paronym “Parlamento”, although

16 Martínez-Campillo García, Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados, 26.6.90: 2225.
17 Ibid.: 2229.
not creating serious misunderstanding, belongs to a higher government level (national) and is not as immediate as the real equivalent "Consiglio" (regionale).

Culture-specific terms and idioms

This category of the SL lexicon is normally the subject of special attention in interpretation courses whatever the language combination involved, because it accounts for a large part of interpretation problems and mistakes. When cognate languages are concerned, however, it becomes a critical paedagogic tool in that it helps the teacher show students, who are all too often appeased by external similarity, that the language they are translating is the expression of a very different culture from their own and that only its in-depth study can prevent blunders. In the Spanish case, a pervasive aspect of the country's culture is bull-fighting (see Fusco, 1990a). Indeed, it so affects the Spanish character that the language itself is full of idioms born from this world, often difficult to understand and translate without a good knowledge of the underlying phenomenon. Consider, for example, the following statement: "Y eso no se puede resolver al revuelo de un capote por el simple expediente de convertir a dieciocho colegas [...] en diputados de este Parlamento"\(^{18}\), in which the expression, that literally refers to a variant of relance, a move executed taking advantage of the bull's exit from a previous such move, is used figuratively to mean escamotage.

References to actual bull-fighting are quite frequent, too: "En este caso no lo ha tenido en cuenta, ni ha tenido para nada en cuenta que existe una asociación internacional de futbolistas profesionales que también debe intervenir - es lo mismo que decir, cuando se hablaba de los toros, que solamente pueden hablar los toreros. No señor, han de hablar los toreros y han de hablar los apoderados y han de hablar todos los funcionarios que viven del toreo-. Por lo tanto, el futbolista, que es un elemento esencial dentro del futbol, deberá tenerse en cuenta"\(^{19}\).

The previous excerpt, taken from a speech used at the SSLM in the February 1991 exam session, was translated by a candidate as follows: "[...] E' come dire, parlando delle corrida, che possono parlare solo i toreri. Bisogna invece far parlare anche i tori [...]."

Faced with the impossibility of grasping the full message (probably because of lack of concentration and terminological confusion), the candidate resorted to inferencing\(^{20}\). However, the only ideas she had about the bull-fighting phenomenon were the ones aired outside of Spain by animal-rights movements.

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19 Lafuente López, on the free movement of professional footballers, E.P., pr. ed., 19.11.91: 144.
20 In the sense given to the word by Beaugrande (de) & Dressler (1981).
Therefore, in the absence of a sound knowledge of this cultural phenomenon and of its terminology, she attributed to the speaker a statement ("Let the bulls have their say, too, when it comes to bullfighting") that would have been plausible in other contexts but was fully out of place, and utterly misleading, in the actual circumstances. The very reference to the world of bull-fighting as a case in point and the usage of the relevant terminology ("apoderados") should have suggested that the speaker was more likely to be an aficionado than an animal-rights campaigner.

Part II: Didactic strategies
Introduction

In general terms, most of the exercises described in the following part fall within a single, multi-stage didactic strategy. First of all, situations are created in which students by themselves acknowledge the existence of a specific problem and submit it to the teacher's attention. This occurs during the first two analysis levels that always follow any student's performance, that is self-assessment and comments by fellow students. Secondly, a brainstorming session is held in which the problem is thoroughly discussed, explanations are provided by the teacher if necessary, and solutions are proposed. Once the most suitable solution is found, the behavioural automatism that is needed for its implementation is built. This is done through a series of ad hoc exercises that are essentially based on deliberate repetition. In the fourth and last stage, an assessment is made to see whether the desired behavioural pattern is more or less automatically elicited. A first check is introduced at the end of the lesson in which the automatism was built, generally by asking students to translate a full-length speech in which the problem is only a part of a much larger structure. Later, with a few lessons' follow-up, actual interiorization of the required mechanism is re-assessed.

The rationale for the development of such behavioural and mnemonic automatisms can be found in Gile's Effort Model (1992:13-14), which decomposes interpretation into different components called "Efforts" that, in turn, require certain amounts of processing capacity (PC). As, in Gile's words, "Total PC requirements appear to be generally very close to the total available capacity and occasionally exceed it", any strategy that enables interpreters to solve recurring interpretation problems right away because of acquired automatic reactions is most welcome, in that it reduces the amount of PC used as a routine and leaves a wider margin of it available for really unforeseeable circumstances.

21 The third and last level is the teacher's comment that, if necessary, adds to previous remarks and guides the discussion while introducing the necessary advice.
Proposed exercises
1. Compulsory décalage

As indicated in the Introduction to this paper, students learning to interpret a very different language from their own are easily convinced of the need to lag considerably behind the speaker if they want to say something intelligible in the TL. When the SL is a cognate language, however, only the teacher's forceful intervention can prevent them from translating the speaker's first word right away and subsequently follow the speech word by word. Awareness, here, is generally raised by submitting to students a speech that begins with a problem structure and by having them listen to a recording of their translation. Alertness to the pitfalls of following the speaker too closely, however, has proved not to be sufficient to prevent students from doing the same in further exercises. Hence the introduction of compulsory lagging, probably nothing new under the interpreters' sun, but certainly a very effective way of driving the message home in students' minds. Students are asked to translate a speech, but are only allowed to start speaking at a teacher's sign, which will come too late for them to remember and repeat the language structure used by the speaker and will therefore oblige them to render the sense of the message only.

2. Neutral sentence beginning

Whenever faced with an unusual sentence beginning, or with verb-object separation owing to a more or less long interpolated clause, students are advised to omit the unclear part and retain it as a merely linguistic element either in their minds (active storage) or on a piece of paper. The latter procedure is to be preferred because it frees the interpreter's mind from an unnecessary burden. Then, when the sense becomes clear, the initially omitted element may be reintroduced in its most appropriate TL form. Here, after the first two stages, the automatic reflex is built through translation of a list of speech excerpts containing unclear sentence beginnings or verb-object separation, in which students are obliged to implement the proposed solution.

For example, in a sentence like: "Yo tengo que añadir que, por la intervención del Presidente en todos estos sucesos de acuerdo con el ejército, el golpe de Estado no es menos golpe de Estado: la gravedad aumenta cuando la persona elegida por el pueblo y por las instituciones de la democracia es el soporte o el impulsor de la negación de las libertades del Estado de Derecho"22, the adverb introducing the interpolated clause would be omitted, and the sense it gives to the whole sentence would be rendered at the end of the clause, in this case with an appropriate verb: "Devo aggiungere che l'intervento del Presidente in tutto questo d'acCORDO con l'esercito non rende meno grave il colpo di stato: [...]".

3. Compulsory sentence conclusion

Unlike others, this exercise is not pre-planned and is introduced whenever a student, despite the strategies acquired with the above exercises, makes a bad start and feels that correct sentence conclusion becomes a problem. In these cases, the speaker stops delivering his/her speech and the student is invited to find a face-saving solution, which will invariably entail conclusion of the problematic sentence. To this end, the student is first asked to specify whether the problem was caused by failure to grasp the message altogether or by the fact that no matching conclusion was found given the syntactic or lexical choice made for the beginning of the sentence.

In the former case, the brainstorming session should lead students to consider that a plausible and neutral conclusion is the most advisable solution. The meaning of the words “plausible” and “neutral” is discussed and elements of judgment listed. They will typically include considerations regarding the speaker (age, gender, nationality, political and religious beliefs, profession) and the situation (place where the speech is delivered, time, subject of the speech, audience). The automatic reflex is then built with a series of unfinished sentences, first in Italian and subsequently in Spanish, for which adequate contexts are provided and which students are asked to repeat in Italian with a plausible and non-compromising conclusion.

If, however, the problem is due to unfortunate formal choices in the beginning of the sentence, the student is first reminded of the importance of lagging and then invited to find either a formally acceptable way to conclude his/her utterance or, when that proves not to be viable, to introduce something like “Or, rather” followed by a repetition of the first part in a manner compatible with the second. The flexibility required to implement the first, and more advisable, choice is improved by exercises in which students are asked to find different formal ways to express the sense conveyed by a series of given sentences.

An instance of problematic sentence ending due to formally incorrect beginning is likely to occur when translating the following sentence: “Los miembros de la Asamblea ACP y de la Comisión de Desarrollo agradecemos especialmente las propuestas de la Comisión Ejecutiva y el Parlamento Europeo, sobre todo en lo que toca a la participación de éste en el trabajo de la inspección, a la luz de sus funciones y competencias de aprobación y control presupuestario”.

Here, the apparently harmless beginning might lead a not too skilful interpreter to neglect the lagging imperative and start translating right away. When the verb eventually comes, however, the problem arises of how to reconcile a plural third person subject in Italian, which does not include the speaker, with a plural first person predicate in Spanish. A possible practical

23 Arbeloa Muru, on EC presence in Member States and Third Countries, E.P., pr. ed., 11.3.92: 204.
solution could be the following: after mistakenly saying “I membri dell’Assemblea ACP e della Commissione Sviluppo”, and before introducing the verb, the interpreter might add “tra i quali mi annovero”, thus saving both the sense of the message and the subject-predicate concord.

4. Clozing

This exercise, which has been part of interpreters’ training for a long time and was recently re-proposed by Sergio Viaggio [1992b] in a different format, seems to be particularly fit for teaching interpretation between cognate languages as a further tool to help students concentrate on the sense of the message. I also propose to use it as the suppression of sublexemic elements from the SL phonetic chain as would normally occur in real situations (because of the speaker’s blurred pronunciation, sound interference, or temporary loss of the interpreter’s concentration). This exercise should further convince students of the importance of having a thorough knowledge of a language that they believe they fully understand already, but that suddenly becomes obscure if some phonemes are lacking. Students are first shown that in sentences like the following: “Esta dificultad proviene básicamente del cambio de escenario en el que discurrirá la actividad de la empresa española”24, - where the syntagm “de escenario” (“of scenery”) was perceived by a fourth year candidate during the February 1992 exams session at the SSLM as “decenario” and translated with “decennale” (“ten-year”) - misinterpretation could have been avoided if the candidate had known that the adjective “decenario” is extremely uncommon in Spanish25 (“decenal” being the most frequent choice) and that therefore the phonemic expression she had heard almost certainly stood for something else. Afterwards, exercises with clozed sentences are made according to the protocol illustrated in the Introduction to this part of the paper.

5. Compression

This is another classic exercise that was recently re-proposed by Viaggio (1992a) and has proved useful in teaching interpretation students between cognate languages to avoid TL repetition of SL structures that do not sound utterly mistaken but the sense of which would normally be rendered in a much more concise way in the TL. Examples like the one already illustrated on p. 20: “Posteriormente, el pleno del Senado fijó en 6 pesetas la subida que

24 Canalejo, M., Chairman and Director of Alcatel-Standard (further details about the source are unknown).

25 In point of fact, the Maria Moliner dictionary only refers to the term as an uncommon noun with two meanings: “decadence” and “old type of rosary with ten beads”.

experimentará el gasóleo desde el 1 de enero, rebajando en 2 pesetas las pretensiones de Hacienda” are cases in point. Although “l’aumento che subirà il gasolio” is formally correct in Italian, the more normal, and concise, Italian form would be “l’aumento del gasolio”. As the importance of stylistic considerations is not easily recognized by student interpreters, the message is driven home in the classroom according to the following protocol: students are asked to interpret a speech including examples of the above structures, which is delivered at a speed that prevents them from keeping up with the speaker if the original Spanish structure is followed. Faced with the impossibility of rendering the full sense of the speech, students come to recognize the importance of finding more concise, and generally more natural, ways of rendering SL structures. They are identified during the analysis stage and then implemented through repetition exercises with ad hoc speech excerpts.

6. Deliberate omissions

This exercise is used to teach students how to manage emergency situations in which the speaker's speed is such as not to allow full translation even if compression mechanisms, learnt with the previous exercise, are implemented. Discourse analysis lessons are held in which students learn to distinguish major from secondary chunks of information. They are followed by application sessions in which deliberate omission of secondary information is required. The exercise is not language-specific, but is particularly useful for interpreters dealing with cognate languages, as the latter generally have similar levels of concision and do not allow for considerable linguistic compression.

7. Creation of mnemonic automatisms

With this exercise, which follows the normal protocol, linguistic conversion automatisms are developed. Students find adequate TL equivalents for frequent problematic structures and learn to implement them almost automatically through deliberate repetition. The basis for the exercise is made up of Russo's categories (1990) and other typologies mentioned above.

The same method is used, in association with others, to solve specific lexical problems, such as the ones posed by numbers (for example “mil millones”, which interpreters tend to translate with the Italian paronymic expression “mille milioni” instead of the more common “miliardi”).
8. Concentration on lexical aspects

Whenever a TL paronym is improperly used to translate a SL term or syntagm, students are invited to analyze the semantic components of both expressions to see where they differ and why. Normal contexts for both are found and compared, and an effort is made to identify the expression(s) that a TL speaker would normally use in specific contexts. For recurring problematic lexemes or syntags, lists of clozed sentences are used, in which the deleted expression is the one that creates difficulties. Students are asked to sight translate them and automatically reintegrate the omitted part. Since situations vary from sentence to sentence, comparison between sight translations and the full SL sentences should convince students of the fact that no fixed word-pairs exist and context only can determine the right linguistic equivalent for a given SL expression.

Gender matching problems, too, are tackled within this framework even if they are of a morphological nature. Indeed, they result from the lexical choice made by the interpreter, who opts for a TL paronym that has a different gender from the SL term and often forgets to adjust the rest of the translation accordingly. Once again, the normal protocol is followed, with lists of long sentences containing various attributes of terms that have TL paronyms of different gender as material for the deliberate repetition stage. Students are invited to note the TL paronym on a piece of paper and refer to it whenever they hear an attribute of the SL term.

9. Analysis of parallel texts

Spanish and Italian texts on the same subject (for example, speeches delivered during the same debate) are studied to see how Spanish and Italian speakers would express the same ideas. Lexical and morphosyntactic differences are identified and commented on. It is a useful exercise further to demonstrate how different two cognate languages can be, and is instrumental in introducing students to the interpretation of specialized speeches. Indeed, during the second year of the interpretation course, which is divided into a series of “technical” units (normally economics and law, science, medicine, and information technology), students' attention is drawn to technical expressions in Spanish that have Italian paronyms which, however, do not translate the meaning of the Spanish term. To this end, parallel texts on a specific technical subject are studied to obtain contextualized phraseology and terminology (see Cellerino, 1992, on the principles governing the science of terminology and their practical application in the interpretation process).
10. Familiarization with congress phraseology

On the basis of the previous exercise (analysis of parallel texts), students are invited to collect, study and compare SL and TL sentences and expressions for most typical congress situations (e.g. welcome, thanks, congratulations, ...). Class usage will include translation of a series of SL sentences belonging to the same category and subsequent comparison of the translation's recording with real-life examples of Italian speakers to assess the stylistic appropriateness of the interpreter's performance.

Conclusions

Upon taking up lecturing at the SSLM, I soon realized that the pedagogic strategies I had implemented so far as teacher of conference interpretation between English and Italian needed to be adjusted in the light of the peculiar problems posed by the cognate languages between which my students were asked to translate. After initially identifying some of the most frequent problems met by my students, I started thinking of possible didactic strategies to overcome them. Implementation of some of them has seemed to confirm their usefulness. Further refining is obviously required, and some form of scientific validation for the ones that eventually pass longer-term empirical tests will have to be found. Discussion and comparison with different approaches followed by colleagues in similar positions are, to my mind, equally essential for the development of a fully-fledged methodology. This is the reason why I am grateful for the opportunity of sharing my experience with you.

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26 At the Civica Scuola per Interpret e Traduttori of Milan.


BOOK REVIEW


Le petit livre bleu paru il y a quinze ans chez Payot (Paris 1979, PBP n° 366), lu avec agacement parfois, mais toujours avec profit, était celui qui avait mis en circulation la paire « ciblistes » et « sourciers ». J.-R. Ladmiral, un nom vu depuis dans toutes les bibliographies, nous revient sous la couverture blanche de Gallimard. C'était, à l'origine, un compendium de différentes études à caractère passablement disparate et au style compassé.

Professeur à l'Université de Paris-X et à l'I.S.I.T. de Paris, J.-R. Ladmiral a tout bonnement laissé reproduire par procédé photomécanique son travail d'il y a quinze ans. Ce germaniste réputé persiste et signe avec sa "République Fédérale d'Allemagne" (p. 215, note 56), avec le nom de Eugenio Coseriu affublé d'un signe diacritique (p. 208) et avec basic english orthographié n'importe comment (p. 79, note 49). La préface, seul élément nouveau, est pompeusement signée du lundi de Pentecôte, 23 mai 1994. Mais où est donc le Saint Esprit?


D'Amérique nous vient un ouvrage qui comble un grand vide dans la littérature spécialisée de langue anglaise. Quel magnifique livre écrit en collaboration, auquel je souhaite vivement qu'il devienne un classique! D'abord pour la description complète du cadre juridique américain et en plus particulièrement du droit pénal (Units 1 and 2); ensuite pour l'exposé des complexités de l'usage linguistique au prétoire chaque fois qu'on y pratique, sur la côte ouest des USA, l'espagnol à côté de l'anglais (Unit 5, Legal Language, Questioning Style, Interpreter Error); enfin, et surtout, pour la centaine de pages consacrées à la traduction à vue, à l'interprétation consécutive et simultanée, à leur apprentissage et leur contrôle au cours des dépositions et des interrogatoires (Unit 6). Abondante bibliographie, index thématique, liste de références de la jurisprudence et de noms souvent cités devant les tribunaux.

On connaît les textes réunis en 1990 par le même Michel BALLARD sous le titre La traduction plurielle, chez les PUL également. La fort substantielle étude que voici justifie certainement aussi beaucoup d'éloges.

Cette fois-ci, M. Ballard a eu l'ambition de rassembler aussi bien l'histoire de la traduction dans sa pratique que dans sa théorisation. Mission accomplie avec panache. Le Chapitre I mène des "sources" (les "interprètes" des princes d'Éléphantine, en passant par Sumer et l'Égypte ptolémaïque, la pierre de Rosette) à la Bible et à la version des Septante, premier enjeu de la bataille des littéralistes - en ce qui concerne les textes sacrés - et de ceux qui ne rendent pas "mot pour mot" (dans le monde romain, Cicéron, De optimo genere oratorum). Si Saint Jérôme fait une exception pour les Écritures, il rejette en général le littéralisme ("pas un mot par un mot, mais une idée par une idée", trad. J. Labour). Au Chapitre II, après la chute de l'Empire, on distingue encore Boèce, puis l'attention se tourne vers Damas, l'époque abasside et la célèbre Bayt al-Hikma à Bagdad avec Hunayn. Amalfi, Pise, Tolède défient, puis l'École de Charles V en France, qui prône la clarté et rejette la servilité littérale. Au Chapitre III, c'est la Florence de Cosme de Médicis. Marot et Dolet donnent ensuite l'occasion à l'auteur de corriger la perspective que Edmond Cary a donnée de ce dernier, en qui il voyait le fondateur d'une véritable théorie de la traduction. On passe à Amyot et aux Anglais étudiés de plus près par George Steiner, Ben Jonson en particulier, puis à Erasme et enfin à Luther, l'apôtre de la traduction dynamique, respectueuse autant que l'on puisse de l'usage en langue d'arrivée. A partir du Chapitre IV, "Les «belles infidèles» et la naissance de la traductologie" on se retrouve sur un terrain plus connu, grâce à Cary (Les grands traducteurs français 1963) et à Georges Mounin (Les belles infidèles 1955) mais l'exposé des enjeux gagne en clarté sous la plume alerte du prof. Ballard. Le Chapitre V, "Divergences et réactions", définit l'apport essentiel de l'Angleterre et de l'Allemagne, avec George Steiner et Antoine Berman comme cautions, et s'arrête à la "borne" que représente Walter Benjamin (soit son essai sur le langage en général et le langage humain, écrit en 1916). Survit désormais indispensable à tous ceux qui voudront se reporter au cadre général de la traductologie des temps modernes.

David SNEILLING Strategies for Simultaneous Interpreting from Romance Languages into English Udine, Campanotto, 1992 patronné par l'Università degli Studi di Trieste, Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori (= Zeta Università 51) 183 p.

Un lettré fâché de Shakespeare, un traducteur introverti à la curiosité aiguë, une structurelisme qui s'ignore, et un amoureux des sources latines... que fallait-il de mieux pour composer un ouvrage aussi pratique que
solidement argumenté? Vérités toutes simples, par exemple que la transposition dépend de la paire de langues considérées (Kirchhoff 1976 et Stenzl 1986) mais qui déploient aux pasticcioni des "images mentales du signifié". Ceux qui dissertent sur l'aspect cognitif et sémantique de l'opération interprétative laissent de côté les capacités d'expression et l'apprentissage de la parole en vue de la reformulation équivalente. Or, justement, c'est parler que nos jeunes étudiants savent le moins! D. Snelling a donc cent fois raison de citer Peter Newmark (1977) "Meaning does not exist without words".

Il se place dans le contexte d'un enseignement bien défini, d'apprenants italophones (qui possèdent donc une langue maternelle dite "minoritaire") appelés à travailler dans leur première langue étrangère (en l'espèce l'anglais). Il se propose de leur montrer comment rendre de manière économique mais efficace, avec les moyens oratoires propres à une langue "B", les artifices des tribuns portugais, espagnols, français et italiens, sans rien perdre d'essentiel et sans en rajouter. Ce n'est point un hasard que ce livre soit placé sous l'invocation du Hermès psychopompe, celui qui effectue le portage d'un état à un autre. A nous donc les sesquipedalia verba, à nous le domptage des clauses subordonnées et la capture du sujet insaisissable!


Lectrice de français à la Faculté des Sciences économiques de l'université de Gênes, l'auteur a récolté au cours de sa pratique de la traduction d'affaires un corpus de milliers de phrases authentiques complétées par de nombreux exemples "construits mais plausibles" de l'usage économique et commercial italien et français. Entreprise considérable, de haute actualité et, en principe, du plus grand intérêt. Hélas, la lexicographie la plus élémentaire y fait défaut. Par exemple, l'entrée attività (p.612) cite pêle-mêle a. liquide et a. imprenditoriale, a produttrici di reddito et a. manuale (un singulier, tout à coup). On trouve a. di pronto realizzo ou prontamente realizzabili trois fois de suite sur dix lignes.

La banque est fortement représentée, mais sans qu'il soit nulle part question de vigilanza bancaria. Le S.M.E. y est, mais uniquement dans la partie français-italien; pas un mot du «mécanisme de change» (E.R.M. en anglais), concept proche et doublement intéressant puisqu'il porte le nom officiel de Accordi europei di cambio (A.E.C.).

Simplex peccadilles, face à tassi di occupazione giovanile = taux des jeunes occupés (p. 727), (i fondi che non prevedono spartizioni sono) meno impegnativi per il risparmiatore = moins compromettants pour l'épargnant (p. 797), (le banche commerciali, di fronte alla) crescente sensibilità della raccolta al livello del tasso di interesse = la croissante sensibilité des recettes (!) au niveau
du taux d'intérêt (p. 860), la lotta alla criminalità = la lutte à la criminalité (p. 967). Je n'ai vérifié que la partie italien-français, où j'ai trouvé des italianismes plus caricaturaux que vicieux: la vendita di consistenti fette del patrimonio immobiliare = la vente de consistantes (sic) tranches du patrimoine immobilier (p. 676), dissipare i contrasti = dissiper les contrastes (p. 682), le linee guida sono state illustrate al vertice della banca = les lignes directrices ont été illustrées au directeur de la banque (p. 794). Est-il imaginable d'entreprendre un tel travail de bénédictin entre langues si voisines et d'ignorer de telle manière le danger de la contamination linguistique? Alors que Les faux amis aux aguets, de Raoul BOCH, ouvrage autrement mieux fait, a paru il y a quelques temps chez le même éditeur.

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