

Università degli Studi di Trieste
Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne
per Interpreti e Traduttori

THE INTERPRETERS' NEWSLETTER

Number 10

2000



E. U. T.

The Interpreters' Newsletter

Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne
per Interpreti e Traduttori
Università degli Studi di Trieste
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With acknowledgments to

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In copertina: Island, foto di Paolo Gran

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EDITORIAL

The seven papers presented in this issue are representative of the close interaction between research and training that has so far characterized the field of interpreting studies.

In her comprehensive paper, Sylvia Kalina addresses the topic of interpreting competence, defined as a “highly complex successful interaction of the various skills”. She gives a detailed account of the development of interpreter training and stresses the importance of interdisciplinary studies as well as the mutual benefits to be gained from an integrated approach to translation and interpreting. Finally she suggests a training methodology based on a structured sequence of learning steps leading to the acquisition of interpreting competence.

Ivana Čeňková reports on the organization of a European Master in Conference Interpreting. The description of difficulties encountered and solutions found may be useful to those planning to introduce similar courses by helping them identify problem areas (and possible solutions) in advance.

Lorena Bottan’s paper is based on her graduation thesis and deals with the crucial issue of presentation skills in consecutive interpreting. After giving an overview of how CI delivery is dealt with at CIUTI institutes, she reports on a pilot study analyzing the relevance of public speaking education to CI training. The findings of the pilot study have paved the way for the introduction of a public speaking course, run by an external expert, at SSLMIT. The course aims at developing extra-linguistic communication competence with a view to improving CI performances.

Giuliana Garzone proposes a new research model for simultaneous interpreting. After discussing several aspects of textual analysis relevant to SI, she addresses the topic of conference papers as a hypergenre focussing in particular on “scientific” papers. In her conclusions she suggests that such a text-based approach to SI may be usefully applied to interpreting training.

Peter Mead’s paper deals with pauses in CI as an index of fluency and presents very detailed results of an experimental study he carried out with interpreting students. Perhaps unsurprisingly, fluency levels were found to be different in the students’ A and B languages. Students were also asked to provide explanations for their pauses – as suggested in the paper’s final comment this could be a way to raise students’ sensitivity to aspects requiring special attention.

Pauses, and disfluencies, are also the focus of Benedetta Tissi’s paper, although the framework is SI rather than CI. The findings of an experimental

study are discussed together with a classification system which seems to be a very useful instrument for product analysis in SI.

Sergio Viaggio presents his interlingual intercultural mediation model, based on the original communication model developed by Mariano García Landa, and considers its implications for the training of interpreting students. In his paper special attention is paid to the basis of successful communication, i.e. what he calls (the linguistic and extra-linguistic) hermeneutic package.

The last item in this issue is a list of graduation theses submitted at SSLiMIT Forlì and SSLMIT Trieste in the period 1995-2000. Only theses in the field of interpreting studies have been included in the list which shows, therefore, just a selection of dissertations completed in the two Schools over the period considered.

Finally, we invite all those wishing to contribute to the next issue of *The Interpreters' Newsletter* to send their proposal to the Editors by the end of June.

Alessandra Riccardi
Maurizio Viezzi

INTERPRETING COMPETENCES AS A BASIS AND A GOAL FOR TEACHING

Sylvia Kalina
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1. Interpreting competence and what it means to whom
- 1.1. Linguistic and other competences

Interpreters working at conferences, in negotiations, dialogues or in the media are expected to render a professional service, based on the skills and competences they have acquired during their training. If they fail to perform properly, misunderstandings may arise, the atmosphere between communication partners may be affected or communication between the different linguistic groups may break down altogether. Thus the skills that interpreters have must enable them to provide their services in such a way that participants in a multilingual event who do not speak or understand each other's language may nevertheless communicate successfully and that no disturbances of proceedings arise from the fact that interpreters are at work.

In a conference situation, the interpreting process is rarely taken much note of and it is rather at points where interpreting does not function properly, either for technical reasons or owing to the performance of the interpreters concerned, that participants who rely on interpreters wonder what it is that makes a good interpreter. In a non-conference situation, where (regrettably, too often, non-professional) interpreters are used, e.g. to mediate in situations where people, unable to speak or understand the language spoken in a country in which they happen to be, have to deal with local authorities, the police, medical staff etc., the interpreter's participation in the communication process is felt more immediately. The role of the interpreter may also vary depending on the interpreting situation in which s/he is expected to perform, and in some situations the interpreter's attitude and competence in interaction may be just as crucial as his/her linguistic skills (cf. Wadensjø 1998).

Among the prerequisites people generally think of as necessary for good interpreting are the linguistic skills, i.e. the knowledge of as many languages as possible, and being able to speak and listen at the same time. It is less widely appreciated that it is not only the purely linguistic skills (and even less the sheer number of languages) that are vital but the thorough knowledge of the cultures of the countries or regions concerned, including political, economic, social and ethnic differences, administrative structures, community life but also literature and the arts. Knowledge of all these aspects is generally acquired by living and studying in the relevant countries for a certain period, which is a prerequisite for

everyone working in the context of more than one culture or in intercultural mediation. Equally important for the interpreting profession are the mental skills, i.e. the excellent functioning of mnemonic capacity and the ability to work at a high level of concentration, as well as self motivation and extraordinary tolerance to stress. But all these skills, necessary as they are, will not by themselves enable an interpreter to do his/her job satisfactorily.

What, then, are the more specific skills that a professional interpreter is expected to apply to his/her job? Which specialized skills do interpreters need in different communication situations in order to be able to render a professional service to the satisfaction of all those involved? Is there such a thing as interpreting competence, can it be defined in the same way for all types of interpreting, and what is its relation to other types of linguistic mediation?

Of course, the linguistic skills of interpreters have to be excellent, which means more than being 'fluent' in one's working languages. They include not only command of the general or conversational but also specialised languages such as banking, medical or data processing language, differences in usage, style, register, cultural norms and peculiarities etc. (declarative and semantic knowledge). A skilled interpreter is not only aware of those differences but also knows how to cope with them (procedural knowledge). S/he will know, for instance, whether a technical term (of IT or stock exchange jargon) is to be translated or rendered in the source language, a decision which depends, among other things, on corporate usage. That is why the popular idea of an interpreter having numerous working languages from which and into which s/he is able to work does not very much reflect real life, where interpreters have to be acquainted with the history, social developments, literature and political constitutions of all the countries of their working languages, a condition which tends to place a limit on the number of languages offered by most interpreters.

If one attempts to define the competence of professional (conference) interpreters more theoretically, one might say that it refers to the ability to perform cognitive tasks of mediation within a bi-/multilingual communication situation at an extremely high level of expectations and quality, often in a team of several interpreters. It includes the ability to interpret in the consecutive as well as simultaneous and any other mode such as whispering or dialogue interpreting. Interpreting takes place either between two languages (bilingual interpreting) or from one or several languages into one language which is generally the interpreter's mother tongue. The different contexts and situations in which interpreters work require comprehensive and specific cultural and communication knowledge, extensive subject knowledge and the ability to quickly extend the relevant knowledge acquired. Moreover, interpreters will have to make use of their procedural knowledge about ways of solving linguistic, cultural, situational or other problems in the interpreting process, and

they will have to act appropriately and professionally when confronted with any new difficulties arising during a given conference. Competence is not only required during the interpreting process itself, it has to go into preparation prior to the actual act of interpreting and is necessary after the event (when newly acquired linguistic and subject knowledge has to be recombined with previous knowledge) as well as with regard to an interpreter's overall attitude, flexibility, and ability to adapt to technical challenges and ethical principles. This professionalism results from the ability to use the skills acquired; the more professional experience an interpreter has gained, the more distinct this professional approach should become.

The competence of a professional interpreter can thus be defined as the competence to process texts within the scope of a bi- or multilingual communication situation with the aim of interlingual mediation. It is also the capability of acting and performing in a situation characterised by externally determined constraints, such as the pressure of time, lack of semantic autonomy and the potential interference between closely connected processes of production and comprehension.

1.2. The competence for strategic text processing

Apart from the purely linguistic aspect, interpreting competence is the ability to perform in a communication situation where people (speakers, text producers) produce texts on the basis of their own knowledge, their intentions and assumptions about those to whom the text is addressed, and other people (recipients, addressees) to whom texts are addressed and whose goal is to comprehend a given text on the basis of their knowledge, interests and assumptions about the producer of the text (cf. Kohn & Kalina 1996). In this communication situation, the cognitive tasks of the interpreter differ from those of text producers and addressees in a number of aspects. In particular, interpreters have to undertake special comprehension efforts, as – unlike the addressees – they are usually deficient in their knowledge of the relevant subject matter, and they are not normally expected or allowed to filter out any information which they consider to be irrelevant or of no interest.

The above general approach to interpreting also makes use of the findings of psycholinguistics and cognitive psychology. It is psycholinguistic in that it takes into account the relationship between the participants in a communication act. It assumes strategic processing, i.e. the ability to determine the goal of interpreting as the production of a target text that enables the addressee to comprehend what the text producer has addressed to him/her, to inference implicit information, producer's intentions etc., and to take further action of whatever type – reply, contradict, or just memorise elements considered as relevant. The conditions in

which the goal of target text production is attained are likely to change through the process so that the way in which the goal is reached has to be adapted dynamically as a function of the processing constraints with which the interpreter is confronted. These constraints include, in addition to the factors mentioned above, the fact that interpreters are not in control of their own processing speed – which is a function of text presentation by the speaker - nor of the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the input they receive, and that they are engaged in competing activities (as described by Gile 1988 and 1991 in his model of capacity management), a circumstance which results in higher susceptibility to disturbances affecting the comprehension process (loss of information) and the production process (e.g. interference (cf. Kalina 1992) and presentational deficiencies, cf. Shlesinger 1994)). To cope with these constraints and yet achieve the goal of target text production, interpreters must be able to choose the appropriate strategies¹ for text comprehension and text production from among and in addition to the strategies used in monolingual text processing. The strategies interpreters use most frequently must become, to a certain degree, automatic so as to leave cognitive capacity for complex operations that occur less frequently².

The approach is cognitive in that it considers the processing operations to be performed at different cognitive levels and in different stages of the process of mediation. Mental modelling (building a representation of a text and of the world to which the text refers, cf. Johnson-Laird 1981) is not only carried out by those to whom texts are addressed but also by those who interpret texts for addressees. This applies to professional conference interpreting as well as non-conference interpreting (and to translation processes). Thus, interpreting competence requires assessing one's own comprehension and that of others, and it involves the ability to use one's memory as efficiently as possible, having to store details (micro-information) but also the macrostructure of a given text, along with contextual, situational, world knowledge and a multitude of other information. Interpreting also requires rhetorical and speaking skills, which have to be fully mastered so as to withstand the disturbing influences that are likely to affect the interpreting process. Moreover, interpreting competence requires the efficient management of one's own processing resources in such a way that the best result possible in the given circumstances can be obtained, and it presupposes that an ethical standard is maintained, i.e. it requires appropriate and conscientious behaviour.

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- 1 The term strategy is used as defined by Færch & Kasper (1984:47) in their psycholinguistic approach to monolingual communication and refers to "potentially conscious plans for solving [...] a problem in reaching a [...] communicative goal".
 - 2 For a detailed discussion of the strategic processing approach see Kohn & Kalina (1996); for a brief overview of strategies in interpreting Kalina 1992.

The strategic nature of text processing by interpreters is more evident - and crucial for the processing result - than strategic text processing as described for monolingual text production and comprehension (cf. the literature discussed in Kalina 1998). It also differs from strategic text processing as observed in the translation process in certain aspects, whereas in others, translation and interpreting strategies can be regarded as similar when contrasted with those of monolingual text processing.

Describing the specificity of interpreting against the background of the disciplines from which its descriptive tools are derived (such as applied linguistics, translation, cognitive and psycholinguistics) may help come somewhat closer toward the establishment of a (sub-)discipline and should enable interpreter teachers to choose priorities and a methodological orientation for their classroom work.

To sum up, interpreting competence involves the competence to use text processing strategies in ways that can be distinguished from strategic processing in monolingual settings. Strategies used by interpreters in text processing may be defined by goal-oriented categories. Comprehension strategies include segmentation of input, anticipation, inferencing, accessing previously stored knowledge, building relations between stored and new information, in short, mental modelling. Text production strategies comprise restructuring, paraphrasing, condensing or expanding information, and the use of prosodic or non-verbal features. Global strategies are of a more general and comprehensive nature; they involve memorizing the input, adapting one's mental model, monitoring one's own output for deficiencies but also that of the text producer for coherence, and repairing errors. All these different operations, with their specific goals or sub-goals, interact in a complex way in the interpreting process. The interpreting-specific use and interaction of strategies is more typical of and especially more crucial for the result in simultaneous than in consecutive interpreting or in translation.

2. How the training of interpreters developed

In linguistic research, some scientists suggest that the basic competence to perform tasks of interlingual mediation is a natural gift that comes with the ability to use more than one language (cf. Harris & Sherwood 1978). This theory would provide an explanation for the fact that interpreting services have for centuries been performed by non-professionals. The view has not been entirely shared by other linguists (such as Krings 1992), and it can certainly not be applied to the more complex linguistic mediation tasks required today. But, in line with that approach, the skills of interpreters were explained as a matter of talent alone even just a few decades ago. The phrase coined by Renée van Hoof,

then head of the European Communities' Conference and Interpreting Service, which was quoted in *The Times* of September 26, 1973 (cf. Weischedel 1977:101), "interpreters are born", is evidence of the belief, which prevailed at that time, that no methodological structure of training was necessary. All that students needed was excellent knowledge of their working languages and communicative skills. This approach may in part though not fully be explained by the fact that, at the time the phrase was coined, the majority of interpreters had indeed gained access to the profession through their bi- or multilingual family background, owing to personal or political circumstances, so that they felt more or less at home in the cultures of all their languages. After all, the earliest simultaneous interpreters had either been trained as translators or were bilinguals with an interest in this type of activity³. The early interpreting teachers came to the conclusion that the way they themselves had learned to do simultaneous, i.e. simply by trying and practising until it worked, was the only method by which this skill could be learnt at all. Actual conference practice was regarded as far more vital than classroom practice (Paneth 1957:88). As no method of training existed, this approach was understandable.

Meanwhile, however, the demand for interpreters has grown exponentially, and so have requirements with regard to their performance. The grand old interpreter who was a central actor on the conference scene and would often be publicly applauded and admired for his/her performance is a thing of the past. *Culture générale* and a broad general knowledge, which were regarded as essentials by the early generation of conference interpreters, and education as a *généraliste*, as Seleskovitch (1968) put it (a view critically commented by Ilg 1980), are no longer sufficient as prerequisites, nor are stringency of thought, linguistic skill and intuition; which are rather vague concepts that were and are difficult to define anyway. (And *culture générale* in itself is becoming something quite different today from what it was in the past.) It is true that quotations from works of literature are still making interpreters' lives difficult from time to time, but much more so are the frequent references to rapidly expanding technological fields of knowledge, to the vast shared knowledge of the global community of tv-watchers (soaps are a case in point) and to the common language of IT. The early generation of simultaneous interpreters could afford to refuse their services e.g. if texts were read – and all the more if they were not provided with a manuscript, as they regarded interpreting on the basis of a read out manuscript (which, one must admit, was, and continues to be mostly poor reading) as an impossibility. This was not, in fact, part of their natural skill. Teaching interpreting therefore consisted of teaching to cope with

3 cf. Koch (1992), Gaiba (1998) for details on the recruitment of interpreters for the Nuremberg Trials.

impromptu speech on subjects that well-educated people were supposed to be more or less acquainted with.

Today, the speaker who does not rely on a manuscript but develops his/her speech spontaneously and therefore with a certain degree of redundancy, which makes interpreters' jobs much easier (cf. Chernov 1994), is the exception rather than the rule. Aspects of presentation have gained priority over content in public speaking in many instances (a point which is most apparent in multimedia events or when interpreting for TV), and although this affects not only interpreting, it has specific consequences for interpreters, who can no longer rely on meaning alone. (And often, conference participants do not even like to be seen to depend on interpreters, whom they prefer to work unnoticed, offering them at most an occasional word of thanks.) The teaching community will have to take note of this change in priorities, and adapt training methods accordingly.

The types of interlingual mediation performed by interpreters today are manifold. They range from bilateral dialogue and community interpreting, public service, court and police interpreting, and conference interpreting to TV or videoconference and remote interpreting and even to telephone interpreting which can be switched on by dialling a telephone number⁴. Even though one cannot always consider such services to be quality interpreting services, it is nevertheless inevitable, in view of the complexity of the tasks that professional interpreters have to perform in our technological age (which may include handling a computer while interpreting but also working late at night for a videoconference) and of the broad range of different and highly technical subjects with which they are confronted, to prepare students for tasks the older generation of interpreters would never have accepted to. It is therefore not sufficient to look out for the naturally skilled who can do the job even without any formal training. The sheer number of interpreters needed at multilingual events each and every day of a year and the different character of conferences today (where speeches are often made not in order to impress the audience but to have one's paper printed in the proceedings) as compared with the past (where speeches were made to impress those listening or obtain a reaction from them) shows that the number of interpreters 'born' is far too small. And the question of how to spot these 'born' interpreters has not been solved either (cf. 3.2). Moreover, promoting natural talents alone would not justify the fact that interpreting training is offered at university level in most countries. For this to be justified, there has to be a systematic, structured training methodology based on solid theoretical research findings.

4 The very day the author was writing this passage she received a letter from an innovative communication company offering a 24-hour simultaneous telephone interpreting service, requesting interested interpreters to be available on the phone for a specified length of time per day.

The first scholars to deal with questions of interpreting training were practising conference interpreters who had taken over training courses at university institutions for the training of interpreters. These people, professional as they were in their practical work, had not, however, enjoyed any formal scientific or educational training and were, understandably, tempted to base their teaching methodology on their own personal experience. As some of them, like Danica Seleskovitch of ESIT, were highly talented interpreters as well as teachers, they proved to be quite successful in their training approach. However, the experience these early pioneers of interpreter training made in their own teaching led them to design their teaching methods as a model of interpreting as such – rather than qualifying their insights as teaching experience (see e.g. Seleskovitch 1968; 1974). Personal experience was thus lifted up to the level of a theoretical framework, without the assumptions made being reviewed by any scientific standards (cf. the critical remarks by Gile 1990). The result of such an individual approach was a highly prescriptive teaching theory and a rather dogmatic approach by those that had developed it.

In the literature, one finds a number of articles on the merits or dangers of specific types of exercises, such as on sight translation (cf. Coughlin 1989), anticipation in simultaneous interpreting (cf. Moser 1978 and Chernov 1994), disputes on shadowing (Schweda Nicholson 1990, Kurz 1992, Kalina 1994, all discussed in Kalina 1998), The two books by Seleskovitch & Lederer (1989) and Gile (1995) offer a full range of valuable suggestions for organising and structuring interpreting classes. They are all based on years of experience, but, again, they constitute individual experience and in some cases are in stark contrast with each other.

For instance, the prescriptive approach of the Paris School which is convinced that consecutive has to be fully mastered by students before they try to work in the simultaneous mode, has been challenged by scholars who base their thinking on the Paris School model (Aarup 1993) as well as those who have criticized the Paris School approach as insufficient anyway (Kalina 1994). And yet, empirical findings proving either one or the other method do not exist.

The same must be said with regard to note-taking for consecutive, where there are a whole range of different approaches on questions such as the language of notes (cf. Rozan 1956, Ilg 1988). Matyssek (1989) and others recommend source-language notes or symbols. The Paris School (Déjean Le Féal 1981, and on this, Aarup 1993 agrees entirely) recommends target-language notes, if at all. Aarup even goes so far as to suggest that notes made by students could serve as an indicator of analytical capability. But as long as there

is such a lack of hard facts about how memory works and interacts with notes taken, such conclusions are extremely problematic⁵.

It is therefore of the utmost importance to have more facts on the effect of interpreting training, based on a set of empirical studies on the use and success of different teaching methods. A number of scholars have meanwhile developed a considerable interest in such matters (cf. e.g. Kurz 1989, Mackintosh 1990, Schjoldager 1993 and recently Pöchhacker 1999). But the teaching of interpretation needs a broad basis of scientific findings from which it will be possible to develop a scientifically-based teaching methodology. Pöchhacker's 1999 study is descriptive; it presupposes that there is agreement on the skills that are to be taught. The criteria he chooses for the teaching context are those specified by Bühler for an evaluation context and are not being discussed any further. However, one might assume that evaluation of students during different training stages does not necessarily have to be based on the same criteria as evaluation of authentic professional interpreting. So many more studies are needed on the ways in which student performance in various stages of training differs from that of professional interpreters.

3. Basic skills and basic training

3.1. The research situation

The early interpreting experts regarded interpreting as an activity the main characteristics of which are not related to language⁶; the fact that, for them, interpreting was based not on language but on meaning, meant that it was something quite different from translation, and it could therefore not be explained with the tools of translation theory nor with linguistic theory in general. It took a number of years before attempts at interdisciplinary cooperation were made, and these did not emanate from the interpreting community but from linguists (e.g. Bühler 1989).

At a time when consecutive interpreting was more and more replaced by simultaneous, psychologists, on their part, became interested in some of the phenomena to be observed in the simultaneous mode (the ear-voice span, the simultaneity of speaking and hearing etc.). However, their interest was not directed at explaining interpreting but at finding answers to questions that had

5 Several diploma theses submitted to the University of Heidelberg Institute of Translation and Interpreting in recent years have contributed to establishing a corpus of data on these questions, of what notes are taken by students and professionals, cf. Skerra 1989 and Hegels 1993.

6 The so-called deverbalisation model (e.g. Seleskovitch & Lederer 1989) has been broadly discussed in the literature, cf. Kalina 1998.

come up within their own disciplines, and they regarded interpreting as a case in point to be studied to find these answers (e.g. Treisman 1965 on selective attention and on ear-voice span). It was only in the late 80s and early 90s that a broader range of approaches for a theoretical description of interpreting developed, and the number of publications has risen accordingly in the past few years. As to the ambition and quality of these recent contributions, opinions differ (see Gile 1990, Pöschhacker 1995).

Moser-Mercer (1997) discusses the difference between novices and experts in interpreting and points to the fact that differences in strategic processing have never been investigated with a view to making teaching more efficient. She hypothesises that expert interpreters (professionals) rely more on contextual strategies than novices, going from the known to the unknown, whereas novices turn first to the unknown, trying to solve the problem it raises. Knowledge organisation is also more efficient in professional interpreters, regarding semantic, procedural but also schematic knowledge (cf. Moser-Mercer 1997:257). These assumptions are corroborated by the preliminary findings referred to in Kalina (1998, Chapter 4.3), which suggest that professionals use strategies contrary to those of students: while students split sentences to reduce workload, professionals do not seem to need such relief; while students tend to make frequent micro-corrections but not to correct serious errors, professionals, who seem to monitor their output more efficiently, are likely to correct rather the serious errors and leave micro-slips unrepaired.

Interpreting research is still struggling with the task of identifying what exactly it is that interpreters do when they interpret, or rather how they succeed or fail. A model of interpreting that could explain this would have to describe skill components with a number of subskills to be identified, as Moser-Mercer et al. (1997) suggest. Once all skill components are defined, it should be possible to develop a method of training that can help achieve the results desired, namely train those skills that are needed for interpreting as efficiently as possible. Kutz (1990) has attempted to define global targets and break them down in sub-targets that can be achieved in a cognitive learning process. Based on the views referred to above, it should be possible to break down the vague definition of skill to be acquired into subskills that are to be mastered one after the other, in distinct, well-defined learning stages, so that a fully developed teaching method for training future interpreters can be established.

3.2. Aptitude and testing

Skills are partly acquired during the training stage, but some of them must be present even before training is started. As the training of interpreters is a time- and effort-consuming enterprise, many universities and schools have introduced

aptitude tests, where, apart from language skills, a number of other prerequisites are tested. Aptitude testing is one of the perspectives of interpreting research (for an overview see Dejean Le Féal 1998) but also a practical need, so that tests had to be administered before any scientific findings existed as to which skills should be tested and whether the tests did in fact test these skills. The objective of most tests is to measure linguistic and cultural competences and such attributes as quick, extrovert, intuitive personality etc. Criticism of these tests, which are used to decide on whether a candidate may proceed to interpreting studies proper, focuses on the problems of the reliability and validity of test procedures (cf. Pearl 1995). There is as yet no clear evidence that the skills deemed necessary as prerequisites for successful training efforts are really the ones tested, and that it is those skills students must have before they go into interpreter training. Moreover, the tests do not as yet seem to be sufficiently objective and transparent to be used for decisions that affect the future (chances) of many students.

In this context, it poses a serious dilemma that, despite considerable research efforts, there is still no model for assessing the quality of interpreting, either in class, at the end of the training period (examinations) or in the authentic conference situation (cf. Gile 1995, Kalina 1995). As long as there is no agreement on what quality is and how it can be measured, it is difficult to imagine how tests can ascertain whether an individual will at some future point be able to provide such quality.

3.3. Training competence

As long as there is no clear evidence as to which skill components are absolutely required (and cannot be compensated for by others) for a successful career as a professional interpreter, the question of what exactly the training of future interpreters should consist of remains open. Should they be trained – as in the past – by exposing them to a trial-and-error method, with abundant practicing but no systematic methodological guidance? Interpreting schools in search of interpreter trainers usually require candidates to work as professional interpreters, preferably with some years of experience, and they expect them, above all, to confront students with real life conditions. The literature on interpreting training agrees that authentic, real-life texts should be used in class. This unanimity was one of the results also of Pöchhacker's (1999) study. However, what are real-life texts? In authentic interpreting situations, anything can happen. Therefore, professionals who teach should be expected to offer more than just the texts they may have had to interpret themselves. They should have some approach to training which identifies global and more specific training goals, methods to reach these goals and which takes into account the

complexity of the cognitive tasks they expect students to perform, and the problems with which the latter are likely to be confronted.

Training of trainers is not yet the rule for those who teach, and training institutions rarely look for interpreter trainers with such qualifications. Even in the literature, we find broad agreement in the interpreting community that the most important teaching qualification is that a teacher is a professional interpreter. This may have been sufficient in the past, but today those who train interpreters should be at least acquainted with the concerns and problems of interpreting research and have basic educational qualifications. These are needed if they want to find answers to the questions to be asked, which are: In which way, with what kind of training is it possible to learn or teach which skills and capabilities? How are the objectives of interpreter training in different training stages to be defined and reached? And what is the need for and the position of academic interpreter training programmes for interpreters (as, for that matter, for translators)?

Interpreting teachers who consider themselves to be not trainers of one single activity but also teachers of ways and means, using methods and strategies with which their teaching objectives can be obtained, feel uncomfortable having to wait until research presents them with findings that enable them to do their work properly. They have to train interpreters now. Some have therefore devised a number of specific exercises such as e.g. cloze, text completion or compression, shadowing and others to bridge the gap. As there is no theory of interpreting or teaching and learning as yet which would allow us to justify or falsify such methods, the argument about some of these practical exercises has tended to become quite ideological (for a discussion see Kalina 1998). Continuing the fierce argument about the pros and cons of individual teaching practices is therefore futile and will not result in any further insight into how interpreting competence is achieved. What we need, rather, is the understanding by those who recruit interpreter training staff that they have to look for people who, in addition to being professional interpreters, have a theoretical background and are prepared to undergo some kind of training (e.g. learning theory, cf. Kiraly 1997 on translation teaching) themselves. Giving interpreting students an insight into interpretation theory and research is therefore a necessity, as this may provide the basis on which some of them will qualify for teaching later in their careers.

4. The potential of a T&I approach

4.1. Interdisciplinarity

In recent years, interpreting research has made more and more efforts at interdisciplinary cooperation. These have so far concentrated mainly on

information and communication sciences, cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics and neurophysiology (cf. many of the articles in previous numbers of *The Interpreters' Newsletter*). They have resulted in a range of valuable conclusions as to processes at work during interpreting. Nevertheless, there is scope for cooperation also with other disciplines, such as language acquisition and bilingualism research; as for teaching, educational studies may provide useful insights into learning processes, learning progress and teaching strategies that can be of use in the teaching of interpreting competences. Teachers of interpreting would then be able to qualify as such. This would provide a framework in which interpreting competence can not only be defined but also taught more systematically.

4.2. Translation and interpreting (T&I)

In view of the fact that interpreting training takes place in institutions which also train translators and that, in some of these, there is a common basic training, a closer look at translator training would suggest itself. But, as explained in the previous sections, early interpreting studies did not regard translation as very helpful. Translation studies, on its part, has not undertaken too many efforts to integrate interpreting into the models that it developed. Interestingly, the authors that have, even to a limited extent, considered interpreting in their studies are those with a didactic interest.

In the framework of T(ranslation) and I(nterpreting), and especially in a general theory of translation (see below), interpreting and translation are regarded as two components or subdisciplines of one single discipline. If that approach is valid, there should be elements common to both subdisciplines. The identification of these common features and of the distinctions between the two should be of great interest to the field of translation studies and to interpreting research. That is why I am convinced that such cooperation within the overall discipline can be fruitful for both, although this article focuses on what translation studies can contribute to interpreting research, didactics and professional practice and not vice versa. The key question to be asked is: What can translation contribute to acquiring interpreting competence?

There are several perspectives from which translation may be conclusive with a view to interpreting research. One is the perspective of strategic processing, (see 1.2). In translation research, strategies and the acquisition of translation competence have been described, among others, by Kußmaul (1993), House (1986), Krings (1986b) and Lörcher (1991). These approaches could be examined closely with a view to identifying strategies that are used more extensively both by interpreters and translators than in monolingual communication. Moreover, in research on strategic processing in interpreting,

methods of empirical research that have been applied to translation may be tested for potential application to interpreting.⁷

A second focus of modern translation studies is that of skills, where Wilss (1984) has described types of skills and their development in a training context, even though his model is strongly language-oriented. Nord (1996) suggests a comprehensive approach and describes categories of knowledge skills and competences, which together build a network of competences and are coordinated to reach the goal in question.

However, the literature on translator training has hardly been reflected in that on interpreter training, and there is no indication in the latter about whether and how translation skills may be of any help in interpreting. This is an area where a thorough examination and more cooperation between translation and interpreting didactics should be very promising.

In the past, translation scholars described interpreting as just an oral form of translating, with translation being the generic term that covered both activities (Kade 1968 and the Leipzig school, and later Reiß & Vermeer 1984 in their *General Theory of Translation*). No need was felt to describe the peculiarities of interpreting or defining those aspects in which interpreting differs from translating. The early interpreting scholars and teachers, on the other hand, tended to draw a rigid line between the two, arguing that in translating, one was compelled to work much more on the basis of and along the wording of a text, whereas interpreters were much more guided by the meaning and the intention of the author and therefore performed a more ambitious cognitive task (cf. Seleskovitch 1976; Seleskovitch & Lederer 1989). Neither view lends itself, I think, to describing interpreting on its own or even providing a theory of interpretation, but it could be worth while to search for fruitful insights for both disciplines by also considering results of the study of the other. This is another reason why I think that closer cooperation between the two subdisciplines and a more open mind on the part of one towards the other would be desirable.

Translation studies have a longer history than interpreting studies, which only developed after the technique of simultaneous interpreting had become popular. Both disciplines are taught in similar or identical institutions, and some university curricula stipulate exams in both of them for obtaining diplomas. In other institutions, one has to pass a translation degree before one is allowed to do interpreting, whereas some offer exclusively interpreting courses, often at

7 The author has attempted to adapt the think-aloud method, used to reveal translation processes by Krings (1986a), where it yielded interesting results, to interpreting (for details cf. Kalina 1998); for this, the method had to be adapted to account for the constraints of the interpreting process. Despite the obvious difficulties, the method of retrospective think-aloud may help gain additional information about interpreting processes and should be tested by different research groups.

postgraduate level. But how close is the relation between the two? Can interpreting be defined as oral translation and therefore be taught like translation with account taken of the oral character of interpreting and consequently the addition of public speaking skills? Which are the differences between what is expected of the professional translator and the professional interpreter, and in which ways are the problems different in translating and interpreting? Are there some types of interpreting and translating that share the same problems more than others? Why do interpreters encounter difficulties where translators do not even have to translate but only to copy, e.g. when numbers, names are at stake?

4.3. The integrative approach

The first interpreting researcher who endeavoured to examine translation and interpreting from an integrative perspective was Franz Pöchhacker (1994); his objective was to test the general theory of translation as developed by Reiss and Vermeer (1984) by applying it to simultaneous conference interpreting. In doing so, he found a number of aspects in the theory which would need further elaboration or amendment if it were expected to be valid for simultaneous interpreting in a conference situation, a goal which Pöchhacker would not dismiss. Had Pöchhacker not chosen simultaneous conference interpreting - though this is, admittedly, a very typical and frequent type -, but other types of interpreting and perhaps such forms that are to be defined neither as pure translation nor as pure interpreting but rather as some intermediate type of processing⁸, he might have come closer towards his objective.

From a perspective of mediated (translated or interpreted) strategic text processing in a given communication situation (see 1.2), one finds a number of general conditions that apply to translating and interpreting alike. The language/culture mediator has to comprehend, i.e. analyse the text more thoroughly or fully than the normal reader/listener and will focus as much on what the text producer has wanted to say as on the effect his/her rendition has on the recipient. Text processing strategies will be extensively applied, though in translation these are not as different from monolingual text processing strategies as in interpreting (see above). Basic competences, such as linguistic and cultural competence as well as world and relevant special knowledge, must have been acquired by the translator just as by the interpreter. Equally important are the

8 Translators may be requested to do an oral translation of a written text, or to translate from an audio-/video tape, and likewise, interpreters are frequently confronted with the task of interpreting on the basis of written manuscripts or overhead transparencies, or will have to interpret/translate draft documents for adoption or rejection by conference participants.

ability to process texts cognitively and analytically (comprehension) and to produce texts comprehensibly and communicatively with the appropriate means; the latter will, of course, differ in translating vs. interpreting. Stylistic competence, the ability to make swift decisions and to access one's knowledge and relate textual information to previous knowledge are as important, and so is the competence to tackle interlingual problems. Neubert (1994:412ff) and other translation scholars define this skill as a transfer competence which is achieved if all part and sub-competences interact successfully.

However, though this general transfer competence is a factor T and I should have in common, the various subcompetences will necessarily differ, as will the degree or need of strategic text processing. Such differences can be traced back to the difference in the processes at work in T and I respectively.

4.4. Skills and strategies in T and I

If we assume that there is such a basic transfer competence, it should include a number of basic skills common for translation and interpreting, which must be complemented by translation-specific and interpreting-specific competences. A condition common to T and I is that specific subcompetences must interact, and possibly some translation-specific skills can help in acquiring interpreting-specific competences and that, in particular, interaction may involve translation-specific and interpreting-specific competences in those types of translating or interpreting which are of a more intermediate character in the continuum that links T and I than e.g. simultaneous conference interpreting is (cf. Kalina 2000b). This would imply that there are certain components of training that translators and interpreters can acquire together and others, which must be trained specifically.

A basic commonality of T and I is the strategic approach, i.e. identifying problems and searching for appropriate solutions. Even though there may be a number of similar problems identified for the two types of interlingual text processing, problem solution is bound to differ, with the translator isolating individual problems for separate solution and continuing only after having solved them, the interpreter having to solve problems on-line while the process continues (i.e. more source text is coming in) and even while new problems may be cropping up, and at worst finding only second-best solutions or none at all.

Deficiencies in the texts produced (but also in the original) are another factor to which translators as well as interpreters have to be sensitized. Handling such deficiencies may require the translator to get in touch with the author, other experts or find some other way of solving the problem if the deficiency confronts him/her with a translation problem. An interpreter has only very limited – if any – chances to turn to the text producer for extensive clarification or improvement of source text.

As for target text deficiencies, the translator can review the text s/he has produced as often as deemed necessary within the given time limits. Going over a translation, its style and register, correcting here, amending there, rephrasing, replacing one solution by another is indeed one essential component of the translation process, as has been proven in empirical studies (cf. e.g. Krings 1986a).

If the interpreter finds any target text deficiencies – and more often than not those deficiencies will go unnoticed –, there is not much s/he can do; the decision whether to correct (and thus lose time, incoming information and cognitive capacity) or to do with the flaw as it is (based on a quick assessment of the effect either decision may have on the recipients, versus overt correction, or, if possible, to correct covertly) has to be taken within fractions of a second and cannot be revised easily. Interpreting competence therefore also implies being able to take such decisions swiftly and to live with them, even if they are second best.

Functionally induced changes of source text in translation are operations on which some translation scholars have focussed heavily (Reiß & Vermeer 1984). Drawing attention to potentially different functions of texts as to differing expectations of recipient groups, provides valuable insights both for translators and interpreters; the fact that text function tends to be less of a variable in conference interpreting should not be seen as a reason for ignoring this subject altogether. Meyer (in press), e.g., describes situations in hospital interpreting where information given by doctors may (or may not?) have to be adapted by the interpreter to make it comprehensible for patients – the question of whether this corresponds to the principle of fidelity is wide open for discussion.

One major difference between T and I relates to the effort/result ratio. In translating, one takes every justifiable effort to achieve the best result possible. Interpreters cannot always take efforts to the extent they would like or deem necessary, a point which is best demonstrated with the example of the time factor. Within the limits and constraints given, interpreters have to find the best acceptable solution to hand, i.e. the constraint on the time and effort that can be invested determines the quality of the result. This means that operations that recur frequently have to be performed as routines that have become automated to a considerable degree. The teaching of interpreting has to develop ways for students' acquiring the necessary automatisms or routines (cf. Kalina 1998).

My conclusion from the above is that although ways and means of problem-solving (and many of the problems themselves) may differ in T and I, there are a number of similar or related factors at work in the two subdisciplines that can be pursued within the scope of an integrated approach. Moreover, an integrated T&I approach which takes account also of the results of interdisciplinary research of the two subdisciplines with other disciplines may help shed more

light on some of the intermediate forms of linguistic mediation, such as oral translation or interpreting from/with written material, which are not covered extensively in the literature and deserve far more attention than has so far been devoted to them.

5. Teaching skills and subskills

5.1. Teaching methodology

If we accept that a general theory of translation and interpreting can be established within a T&I framework, this should have consequences also for the teaching of both translation and interpreting. For both, it is necessary to train capabilities (to learn, think, be creative, solve problems). and skills (automatic processes). In translating as well as in interpreting, there are various authors who cope with training as the teaching of subskills and propose some of these. Subskills for translation that should be taught separately are mentioned by Reiß (1974), Wilss (1984), for interpreting by Moser (1978), Kutz (1990) and Gile (1995). House (1986) and Nord (1996) have suggested that interpreting practice may serve to prepare students for acquiring translation competence⁹; Nord also emphasizes the importance of networking for the different skills and capabilities when translation competence is acquired.

Gerzymisch-Arbogast & Mudersbach (1998:45ff) have described a sequential translation method which, if followed when translating, should result in a translated text in which the solutions found can be scientifically justified by the translator. Such approaches are likely to have consequences also for the teaching of the art, as they offer methodologically well defined sequences of steps which, when followed, will lead to a translation where strategic processes and decisions become transparent and reconstructable. This method, attractive as it is, cannot be followed in interpreting, as processing does not take place as a sequence of steps but rather in interaction of different processing decisions that must be taken without full awareness of how they will affect other processing decisions. Nevertheless, sequential approaches may be of help in the teaching of interpreting, if this complex activity is to be decomposed in individual processing steps or stages to be taught separately. Only then does it seem reasonable to expect students to cope with the real task in its entire complexity.

If there is general agreement among interpreter researchers and teachers that [simultaneous] interpreting is a “high-skill information processing activity composed of interdependent subskills” which “should be taught by progressing from easy to more difficult” (Kurz 1992:245), the question is: which subskills of

9 Some of my translation colleagues told me that their students benefit from the inclusion of relevant practical interpreting exercises in translation classes.

the overall goal of interpreting competence should be taught separately, and by which means and in which order are they to be trained? The literature on interpreting training offers no methodological guidance, and teachers may be at a loss to decide what is to be learned first, what is required next, and what degree of interaction can be managed by students at which stages. To complicate matters, there are many more extraneous factors to be considered in interpreting than in translation, as the different processes interact far more also with extratextual elements than in translating processes.

5.2. Learning to interpret

As explained above, there are numerous publications on individual training experience, but too few on training methodology proper. Taking up the issue of training competence (cf. 3.3), interpreter trainers' methodology often consists of the view that texts used in interpreting classes should be real-life texts, with all the difficulties of real-life interpreting. This view is maintained and corroborated in the empirical study by Pöschhacker (1999) based on data from one of the reputed schools, but neither here nor anywhere else is there any indication of the steps that must be completed before students feel in a position to process real-life speeches reliably. The all too categorical demand for real-life conference proceedings in class ignores the need for the filtering out of difficulties for beginners and thus for a systematic introductory phase. In early training stages, I maintain, texts should not reflect all the pitfalls of real life interpreting but be carefully adapted to students' abilities and needs. For example, simplification of input texts regarding various parameters (reducing complexity and density, replacing difficult lexical items and grammatical choices by less problematic ones, making optimum use of prosodic means such as intonation and stress and of nonverbal signals, adapting speed of presentation, providing ample information on the communicative context so that mental modelling can take place in advance of interpreting processes etc.) appears to be a valid method for use in initial training stages. Step by step, more and more of these parameters may then be approximated to real-life situations.

As referred to above, there are very different approaches to certain types of preparatory exercises such as shadowing or dual task performance, but there is no methodologically structured approach saying from which easier subtasks systematic progression to more difficult ones can be expected. No doubt some kind of progression is made in class, but this is not seen to be based on any well-defined, constructive way of proceeding or methodological principle of teaching, starting from a point of departure to achieve a clearly defined learning goal.

How, then, can a more systematic teaching approach be developed? Even with what little we know about the competences a professional interpreter has to command and the basic competences that are required of both interpreters and translators, it should be possible to identify, with some degree of objectivity, at least some specific competences and skills that characterise good interpreting. It is to those that teaching has to be geared.

If we turn to learning theory and psychology to know which types of cognitive tasks are learnt first or more readily, which skills are prerequisites for the acquisition of others, and at which stage students are best able to cope with the interactive character of the interpreting process, this could provide a basis of learning and teaching expertise which teachers of interpreting are so much in need of. It would then be possible to build up sequences of specific exercises, with the relevant learning steps and teaching goals clearly defined, transparent teaching methods and teaching results (i.e. goal achievement) being controlled. If, based on the identification of subskills, a method of teaching certain basic interpreting-specific tasks within the framework of a scientifically tested methodology of interpreter training is developed, then one would be able to speak not of interpreter training alone, as necessary as that is, but also of the teaching of the sub-discipline of interpreting within the scope of T&I.

5.3. The teaching of subskills for different goals: sight translation as an example

Teaching subskills is necessary for translation and interpreting training. Even if the type of subskills to be taught is different for the two activities, there are practical classroom exercises which can serve different purposes for the two. They may therefore be recommended both for translation and for interpreting classes. There are numerous ways in which preparatory teaching units can be organised. To my knowledge, many teachers use some of them; however, when asked, they would be unable to specify what exactly the goal of the exercise is and how it is related to others.

The example discussed here is given for demonstration and refers to sight translation, an intermediate type of interlingual transfer, as seen from the comprehensive perspective of T&I. The example is intended to demonstrate how different subskills can be trained if the unit is embedded in a methodological teaching framework. On the basis of the strategic text processing approach, it is assumed that one of the subgoals of teaching (i.e. the achievement of a subskill) is a receptive competence (comprehending, analysing a source text, structuring input and attributing ranks of importance to different information segments, anticipating and inferencing, short-term memorizing, processing for storage in working memory and building new mental models).

For this, the tasks do not necessarily have to involve code switching. Another subgoal is a performative competence to be made use of in a situation of semantic dependence, of prolonged existence of signals of the source language - a factor which has to be overcome when simultaneous listening and speaking involves switching between languages. Goals may be defined at even lower levels, such as the ability to paraphrase, generalise, condense or explain/expand information, changing register, using different linguistic and extralinguistic means. A subgoal which, however, is of a strongly interactive nature is the competence to monitor all the processes described above. It can be split up in individual monitoring tasks (monitoring only for grammar, or for prosody etc.).

5.3.1. Receptive competence

Let us define the semantic analysis of the source text as one initial subgoal. For this, students are given a written text with the teacher indicating the setting in which the text is supposed to be presented. After a short glance at the whole text, students mark the essential information segments. After putting the text aside, they have to summarize the text on the basis of mnemonic storage of text and marked passages. The summaries given serve only to check on reception and are not further discussed linguistically.

Another subgoal may be the ability to make specific strategic use of the capacity to anticipate and/or inference. Of a text, single phrases (in a later stage, even only segments) are displayed on overhead, with students having to start taking up and continuing the text before they are shown the following phrase/segment. Processed segments may even disappear from the overhead.

As the two tasks mentioned above were monolingual tasks, the next goal could be reaching a certain degree of transfer competence. For this, sight translation of the same text and in the same modes can be used as a method; to further refine the competences needed, this may be combined with tasks of text compression or with a time limit for processing. A further step would then be sight translation of unknown segments of the text, with the same conditions applying.

If memorizing capacity is the subgoal, students are to note one word or one relation as a cue for each of the segments (cf. above), with rendition of texts either in the source or target language after a sequence of segments has been displayed.

These units may be run with progressively more demanding texts or with rising pressure on processing time. In Kalina (1992; 1998) I have suggested similar sequences for cloze and shadowing exercises.

5.3.2. Production competence

The units described are targeted at interpreter and translation students alike, as the assumption is that basic receptive skills are as necessary for the translator as they are for the interpreter. The following exercises have been devised for use in interpreting classes, but on closer examination it would seem that they can be used as validly in translation classes, as the goals to be obtained are relevant also for translators. They are aimed at production and presentation competence.

If the subgoal is the production of a grammatically correct text, students are presented with a source text in the oral mode which contains grammatical and other deficiencies. During shadowing of the text, they are expected to produce a flawless target text (in the language of the source text) without making any changes to the semantic content of the text.

If the subgoal is the ability to apply syntactic transformation strategies to a source text, material with extremely complex syntactic structures is to be split up in such a way that short segments are built. Another task of this type may be to process a text which contains syntactical structures that violate the norms of the source (and target) language and are borrowed from a language in which students have to interpret in subsequent stages of their training. In the shadowing mode, students are expected to produce a linguistically correct text where syntactical structures have undergone transformation operations so as to bring them into line with the norms of the source/target language.

For paraphrasing as a subgoal, a text with a high content of proverbs, metaphors or idiomatic expressions is to be paraphrased without using the wording of the source text. Time pressure may be a task-burdening component of this as of other exercises.

5.3.3. Interaction of competences

If the subgoal is one which requires interaction of different processes, such as monitoring, there are several ways of practicing the strategic use of this general processing approach. Students may be asked to shadow – and later interpret – sections of text that show either one or several different deficiencies – lexical and grammatical errors, frequent corrections, false starts, weaknesses in presentation – and produce their target text in such a way that no trace of the deficiency in question is left.

These training units may be combined and made more difficult to pursue other or more complex teaching goals. For the time being, the list given above is nothing but a teaching suggestion. For developing a teaching methodology, it would, of course, be necessary to analyse the effect of all these units and their combinations.

5.4. Other skills

There are, of course, other subskills which may be taught in different ways. Competences that indirectly affect translation or interpreting products are those related to the behaviour of the mediator. Reliability and confidentiality are but two of the ethical requirements that both interpreters and translators have to fulfil. Being confronted with ethical questions but also with problems of behaviour and interaction in the learning stage will enable the future translator or interpreter to find solutions to questions e.g. of neutrality or active participation in situations as different as that of a conference setting where absolute neutrality is expected versus a dialogue situation involving refugees expecting to be helped, which sometimes means for the interpreter having to give up his/her neutrality.

5.5. Integration of subskills

There may be different ways of integrating the separate subskills mastered in this way. These ways will depend on the specific training goal to be achieved. However, one should not ignore the fact that even with all the different processing conditions and requirements of the numerous forms of T and I, there are quite a few lessons one sub-discipline can learn from the other.

Translators, when confronted with tasks of text compression or of translating under time constraints, or of oral presentation in the presence of listeners who want to react to a text offered to them, will learn to look beyond the mere words of a text and view it from a bird's eye perspective, identifying more easily what is absolutely essential and neglecting what may be redundant information. This will help them re-examine their own procedures and will enable them to see the relative strengths and weaknesses of one or the other theory of translation.

Interpreters, when confronted with translating tasks, may find it easier to progress, as they move from processing text which is presented without burdening their memory capacity to text that is presented in the oral mode and has to be memorized. They will better understand the function of memory and the capacity they have for memorising text if they have had a chance to thoroughly analyse it beforehand. They will also understand that problems that could not be solved before the process of text production as such will affect their processing capacity, and they will be confronted with the peculiarities of a communication situation where people who listen to their production rely fully on what they get. On the other hand, they will understand that just forgetting the words of a given source text and concentrating on the meaning alone will not solve all their problems, nor will it be even possible in every stage of the

process. They will become acquainted with basic strategies which can be refined in subsequent teaching steps.

5.6. Conclusion

Research into the teaching of interpretation, however, does not end here. Just as it is necessary to observe authentic interpreting performance to obtain data on interpreting, it would appear advisable to observe authentic teaching to collect data on “real life” training. This can be done either by interviewing as many interpreter trainers as possible as to their – formal or other – teaching qualifications, their teaching experience and their methods. On the other hand, it would also be informative to observe the teaching of groups of students with different degrees of proficiency – from the real beginners to exam classes. Here, different procedures applied by teachers for different degrees of proficiency might be identified, and the responses of learners in their different learning stages might become visible.

A collection of data of the latter type is presently being analysed by the author, with the preliminary results indicating that problem solution is tackled differently by different groups of progression (for preliminary results see Kalina 2000a; hopefully, an in-depth analysis will follow). This finding, if it is confirmed after more thorough analysis and on the basis of more data, reinforces my belief that skills are to be taught separately in the early stages of training and that interpreting competence is a highly complex successful interaction of the various skills which can only be obtained in a carefully structured sequence of learning steps.

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VIVRE UNE ANNÉE UNIVERSITAIRE AVEC “THE EUROPEAN MASTERS IN CONFERENCE INTERPRETING”

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1. Introduction

Au cours de l'année universitaire 1999/2000 l'Institut de Traductologie de l'Université Charles – membre du groupe des universités européennes "Masters' Partnership" – a organisé pour la première fois un cours post-universitaire d'interprétation de conférence du type "European Masters in Conference Interpreting" en coopération avec la Commission européenne et le Parlement européen. L'objectif de ce Cours, destiné aux diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur qui remplissent les conditions exigées, est de préparer, en vue de l'élargissement de l'Union Européenne, des interprètes de conférence ayant dans leurs combinaisons linguistiques surtout les langues de faible diffusion et les langues des pays candidats.¹ Notre Institut a une longue expérience dans la formation des interprètes (depuis 1963), mais il s'agit d'une formation de type universitaire sur 5 ans après le baccalauréat. Le Cours Euromasters était pour nous donc quelque chose d'assez nouveau, tant du point de vue de la durée des études (une année universitaire), que de la densité de la formation, du nombre d'heures de cours, de la diversité des formateurs impliqués, ainsi que de la taille limitée du groupe d'étudiants.

L'objectif de mon article est de décrire, pas à pas, les différentes étapes de cette expérience unique pour démontrer en quoi cet Euromasters fut si particulier et difficile, si exceptionnel et exigeant et combien d'efforts il a demandé de la part des étudiantes, des collègues interprètes-formateurs, des experts, du secrétariat et de la responsable du Cours.

2. Année préparatoire (1998 - 1999)

2.1. Choix de combinaisons linguistiques

En 1998, lorsque notre Institut a été invité à se joindre au groupe des universités Euromasters, nous nous sommes presque immédiatement mis au travail pour mettre en place ce Cours. Les représentants de l'Institut assistaient régulièrement aux réunions du groupe et les enseignants permanents des séminaires d'interprétation consécutive et simultanée ont effectué des missions

¹ Consulter <http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/emci> pour obtenir toutes les informations sur le "European Masters in Conference Interpreting".

d'études dans les écoles partenaires pour voir comment l'enseignement de l'interprétation se faisait ailleurs (Westminster, Copenhague, La Laguna, Graz, ESIT Paris, ETI Genève et Anvers ont fait l'objet de nos visites). Mais surtout ils réfléchissaient et discutaient des capacités de l'Institut en termes d'effectifs, de compétences, de temps, de disponibilité, de volonté de s'impliquer et de participer au projet, avec tout ce que cela allait entraîner. En tant que responsable du Cours, j'ai très vite compris que les enseignants de l'Institut ne pouvaient pas assurer seuls le bon déroulement d'un tel Cours. D'autant plus que nous avons décidé que le Cours serait également ouvert aux candidats avec le tchèque comme langue de travail "B" ou "C" (d'après la classification AIIC). Finalement, nous avons opté pour les langues suivantes: tchèque (A,B,C), anglais (A,B,C), allemand (A,B,C), français (A,B,C), italien (C), slovaque (C). Nous pensions en effet être en mesure de couvrir toutes ces langues en ayant recours à nos collègues interprètes free-lance et à des orateurs natifs (pour la plupart lecteurs étrangers enseignant à la Faculté de lettres).

2.2. Recours aux interprètes free-lance sur le marché tchèque

En automne 1998, j'ai contacté les collègues interprètes free-lance, membres de l'ASKOT (Association des interprètes de conférence tchèques) et leur ai envoyé une longue information sur l'Euromasters. Je leur ai demandé s'ils étaient éventuellement prêts à participer à cette expérience en tant que formateurs et/ou orateurs natifs. J'ai bien précisé qu'il s'agissait d'un Cours qui allait durer 26 semaines: 13 semaines pendant le semestre d'hiver (octobre - janvier) et 13 semaines pendant le semestre d'été (février - mai). Dans la note explicative, il était précisé qu'un stage de formation serait organisé, stage destiné à leur expliquer les tenants et les aboutissants du projet et ce que nous attendions d'eux, à savoir, entre autres, un travail d'équipe étant donné la spécificité du Cours et les combinaisons linguistiques annoncées. Cette information a été envoyée aux 40 collègues et un coupon réponse a été joint. La même note a aussi été remise aux collègues enseignant l'interprétation à l'Institut. En effet, leur participation pédagogique à l'Euromasters n'était pas acquise d'avance: cela représentait pour eux des heures supplémentaires dans la mesure où ils auraient également à assurer en parallèle tous les cours d'interprétation consécutive et simultanée du cursus normal.

Les coupons réponses ont mis du temps à revenir, mais finalement nous avons obtenu 24 réponses positives (y compris la mienne et celle des autres formateurs permanents de l'Institut, eux aussi interprètes de conférence). Certains collègues se sont inscrits uniquement pour une discipline (exercices de mémoire, consécutive, simultanée ou bien traduction à vue).

2.3. Séminaire méthodologique

En février 1999, un séminaire de formation pour les collègues interprètes freelance a été organisé. Le programme du séminaire, réparti sur deux jours, se voulait être une sorte de “mode d’emploi” pour les futurs formateurs dans cet Euromasters. Sur les 24 réponses positives obtenues, seules 18 personnes se sont réellement présentées. Les autres ne sont pas venues pour diverses raisons: certaines ont pris peur au vu du programme et ont téléphoné pour dire qu’elles n’étaient plus sûres d’être capables d’enseigner. D’autres n’étaient tout simplement pas disponibles. Avec mes collègues de l’Institut nous avons parlé des objectifs du Cours, des semaines thématiques, des différents types d’exercices, du contenu et des objectifs de chaque cours, des méthodes d’enseignement, des aspects communicatifs de l’interprétation, de l’évaluation des étudiants etc. Chaque participant a reçu un dossier comportant des documents, des textes et des informations didactiques, dans lesquels nous avons essayé d’insérer tout ce que nous avons appris lors des différents stages et ateliers auxquels nous avons participé précédemment (workshops AIIC, SCIC et TAIEX, stages pour formateurs à l’ETI etc.) Nous leur avons montré comment travailler avec les textes, comment les choisir et les “oraliser”, comment graduer les difficultés et les exigences, comment utiliser les enregistrements authentiques des conférences et quels matériels et documents seraient à leur disposition dans les classes. Il a été décidé qu’un “Livre de classe” sous forme de classeur serait mis à la disposition des enseignants dans les salles, afin qu’ils puissent, sur un formulaire préimprimé, inscrire la date du cours, le nom des formateurs, les étudiantes présentes, le contenu et l’objectif de l’exercice, le type d’exposés et de matériels utilisés, les devoirs pour le prochain cours et des remarques éventuelles sur la prestation des étudiants. Ensuite nous sommes allés dans la salle d’interprétation et chacun a essayé de faire fonctionner le matériel et d’utiliser ses différentes fonctions d’après les instructions écrites remises avec le dossier.

Après le séminaire de formation, quelques collègues encore m’ont contactée et ont retiré leur candidature, en expliquant que ce projet leur demanderait trop de temps et un trop gros investissement personnel et qu’ils ne se sentaient pas à la hauteur. D’autres, par contre, m’ont téléphoné en disant qu’ils venaient d’apprendre qu’un tel séminaire s’était tenu et ils se sont spontanément proposés pour intervenir ponctuellement dans l’Euromasters. Nous avons donc mis en place plusieurs séances de consultations individuelles avec ces collègues, mais aussi avec les lecteurs de langues, pour leur expliquer ce que nous attendions d’eux et quelle était la différence majeure entre l’enseignement des langues et l’enseignement des techniques d’interprétation, comment ils devaient préparer leurs exposés et sur quoi ils devaient se concentrer pendant l’évaluation des

étudiants. Vers le printemps, après avoir déposé notre demande de subvention pour l'Euromasters auprès de la Commission européenne, nous savions également que nous pouvions éventuellement compter sur une assistance pédagogique en orateurs natifs-interprètes de conférence de la part du SCIC.

2.4. Promotion de l'Euromasters

Dès le début de l'année 1999 la campagne publicitaire sur le Cours a commencé. Au printemps, des annonces ont été publiées dans la presse quotidienne, dans la revue spécialisée de l'Union des traducteurs et des interprètes (JTP), dans les journaux destinés aux écoles et enseignants. Des plaquettes d'information sur le Cours ont été envoyées aux agences et bureaux d'interprétation et de traduction, aux établissements d'enseignement supérieur, aux ministères et autres institutions publiques. La publicité a été placée sur les pages Internet de l'Université Charles, du groupe Euromasters, du SCIC, de la JTP et de l'ASKOT. Environ 60 personnes ont téléphoné ou contacté notre Institut et ont demandé de leur envoyer des informations détaillées sur le Cours ainsi qu'un formulaire d'inscription. Nous attendions tous avec impatience la fin du mois de mai, date limite des inscriptions.

2.5 Candidats et examens d'admission

Nous avons reçu au total 29 inscriptions. Un dossier a dû être refusé car la candidate n'avait pas de formation supérieure. Parmi les personnes intéressées 3 étrangers (1 de langue maternelle française, 2 de langue maternelle allemande). Pour ce qui est des Tchèques, dans la majorité des cas, ils présentaient une langue "B" et une ou deux langues "C" au maximum, et le 2^e "C" était presque toujours le slovaque. Il n'y a eu que de très rares exceptions, comme nous le montrerons plus loin. Cette situation caractérise bien la réalité linguistique de notre pays où très peu de gens connaissent plusieurs langues. Tous les candidats inscrits ont été convoqués aux examens d'admission. 26 candidats se sont présentés. Les examens comportaient d'abord une partie écrite éliminatoire. Pour la langue "B", l'examen comportait une dictée, une version et un thème, le résumé en langue maternelle d'un texte présenté en "B", un test sur l'actualité économique et politique du/des pays, un test sur les abréviations des institutions, organisations et structures internationales, un test sur l'Union européenne et un test de langue tchèque/maternelle pour tous les candidats locaux portant surtout sur la capacité de stylisation et de synonymie. Si le tchèque était présenté en "B" ou "C", un test "civilisation", abréviations, version et résumé, était proposé, comme pour les autres langues étrangères niveau "C". Les épreuves écrites ont

été corrigées le soir même: 15 candidats ont réussi. Le test oral se tenait les deux jours suivants devant un jury international avec la participation de représentants du SCIC et du Parlement Européen, d'orateurs natifs pour les différentes langues (allemand, italien, slovaque, tchèque, français, anglais), d'interprètes de conférence locaux et d'enseignants de l'Institut. Ce test d'aptitude se composait d'une brève présentation du candidat dans sa langue "B" et d'un exposé fait en "B" sur un sujet tiré au sort parmi les sujets proposés par le jury (2 minutes), d'une reproduction orale d'un petit exposé bien structuré et présenté par un orateur natif (2-3 minutes) en langue "B" ou "C" du candidat vers sa langue "A" et de même de "A" vers "B". Une question sur l'actualité était aussi posée. Je me suis quant à moi attachée à vérifier si le candidat avait essayé de trouver dans l'intervalle les réponses aux questions du test écrit auxquelles il n'avait pas su répondre la veille. Il était intéressant de voir les réactions des personnes examinées. Tous n'ont pas eu cette curiosité ni cherché à combler leurs lacunes.

Finalement, après de longues discussions au sein du jury, 6 candidats ont été admis à suivre la formation et a priori le Cours pouvait démarrer. J'avoue que je n'étais pas très enthousiaste à cette idée. Il est vrai que le nombre de 6 était le nombre minimum que nous avions fixé pour pouvoir ouvrir le Cours, mais en même temps nous avions défini un nombre minimum de personnes pour les différentes combinaisons linguistiques. Et ce nombre était loin d'être atteint pour certaines combinaisons de langues avec une seule étudiante! Je pressentais déjà les problèmes et les difficultés qui en découleraient. Mais le jury m'a persuadée, en me promettant plus d'assistance pédagogique et plus d'interprètes de conférence étrangers avec le soutien financier du Parlement européen.

Quelles étaient donc les combinaisons linguistiques de nos 6 étudiantes ?

étudiante n. 1: A: allemand; B: anglais; C₁: français; C₂: tchèque

étudiante n. 2: A: allemand; B: tchèque; C: italien

étudiante n. 3: A: tchèque; B: allemand; C: anglais

étudiante n. 4: A: tchèque; B: anglais; C₁: allemand; C₂: italien; C₃: français

étudiante n. 5: A: tchèque; B: anglais; C: italien

étudiante n. 6: A: tchèque; B: français; C: anglais

2.6. Horaires et organigramme du Cours

Les étudiantes qui ont réussi les examens d'admission ont été informées de leur succès et ont été invitées à déposer leurs demandes pour l'obtention de bourses d'études de la part de la Commission européenne. Je leur ai donné rendez-vous pour la mi-septembre, quinze jours avant le début de l'Euromasters, pour régler avec elles toutes les formalités et détails liés au déroulement du Cours. J'ai aussi recontacté tous les collègues interprètes pour les tenir au courant des résultats

des examens et pour leur confirmer que le Cours allait vraiment démarrer début octobre.

Tout le monde est parti tranquillement en vacances, sauf la responsable du Cours qui a passé des journées entières et des nuits blanches avant de mettre sur le papier un organigramme des cours pour les six étudiantes en jonglant avec toutes leurs combinaisons linguistiques, pour qu'il n'y ait pas de chevauchement et que toutes les langues soient représentées à peu près avec le même volume d'heures enseignées. Et surtout pour mettre, autant que faire se pouvait, un nom d'enseignant en face de chaque cours pour couvrir toutes les combinaisons linguistiques - orateurs/auditeurs natifs. Pour ce qui est des horaires, la situation était plus facile, car dès le début, déjà dans les informations préliminaires sur l'Euromasters, il avait été dit que les cours se tiendraient du lundi au vendredi de 14.00 à 19.00 heures, avec quelques exceptions pour les conférences simulées (mock-conference) et les communications des différents experts extérieurs. Les matinées étaient réservées aux exercices individuels des étudiantes qui avaient à leur disposition le laboratoire d'interprétation.

Les sujets à traiter étaient aussi fixés au préalable, il fallait "juste" les répartir en semaines et s'assurer de la disponibilité des experts pour faire des exposés introductifs à la problématique. A titre d'exemples, les sujets traités pendant le semestre d'hiver: Institutions internationales, Histoire de l'Union européenne et ses institutions, Marché unique et les quatre libertés, Politique agricole commune, Que savons-nous des pays candidats?, Espace Schengen, Union monétaire et la Banque centrale européenne, Marché des capitaux et des titres, République Tchèque et l'UE - transposition de l'acquis communautaire, Traités de Maastricht et d'Amsterdam, Que savons-nous des pays membres de l'UE?, Droit communautaire etc.

Parallèlement, une communication par courrier électronique avec le SCIC, le Parlement européen et les collègues interprètes de conférence free-lance de l'étranger recommandés par le PE se déroulait presque sans cesse. Fin août, tout était à peu près mis au point (sauf le financement!). L'emploi du temps, semaine après semaine pour tout le semestre d'hiver, avec les différents types d'exercices, de conférences et de cours magistraux a été envoyé aux collègues formateurs locaux par courrier électronique ou par courrier, en indiquant la date d'une dernière réunion de travail avec eux vers la mi-septembre pour inscrire les noms des formateurs en face de l'exercice et du jour en question.

2.7. Désespoir à la veille du Cours

Certains collègues se sont désistés à la dernière minute sous divers prétextes. D'autres, par contre ont essayé de remplir les cases vides avec leurs noms et m'ont renvoyé leurs propositions immédiatement par courrier électronique.

D'autres encore sont venus à la réunion qui a été assez mouvementée et finalement nous avons réussi à compléter les 9 premières semaines. Après plusieurs heures de discussion qui ne menaient plus à rien, nous nous sommes séparés après que j'aie obtenu des différents intervenants la promesse d'envoyer le plus tôt possible leurs disponibilités pour le reste du semestre. Pressentant les difficultés, j'avais pris quelques mesures assez strictes, mais inévitables, pour assurer le bon fonctionnement du Cours et une vie plus ou moins normale à ma famille.

Nous savons tous, en tant qu'interprètes de conférence, comment fonctionne le marché local de l'interprétation: le client téléphone à la dernière minute, et vous devez soit refuser le travail, soit annuler votre enseignement. Il était clair que dans le cas des collègues free-lance, le travail aurait la priorité. Tous les collègues ont donc reçu un formulaire qu'ils devaient signer. Il était spécifié que s'ils se désistaient de leur engagement d'enseigner dans un délai inférieur à une semaine, ils devaient eux-mêmes trouver un remplaçant (tout le monde a obtenu la liste des autres collègues avec les coordonnées), si le délai était plus long, ils en informaient la responsable du Cours qui se chargerait de trouver un autre formateur. En plus, le formulaire précisait bien que la communication avec la responsable du Cours se déroulait par courrier électronique, par fax, par téléphone portable et si possible pendant la journée, car la famille devenait déjà un peu hystérique quand le téléphone sonnait sans cesse le soir et quand on entendait le mot "Euromasters". Inutile d'écrire qu'une telle situation se présentait chaque semaine: certains collègues se désistaient et je passais des moments difficiles et pleins de stress avant de trouver quelqu'un pour les remplacer.

Quelques jours plus tard, pendant la réunion avec les 6 étudiantes, nous avons souligné une fois de plus l'exigence de l'Euromasters, la nécessité d'un travail quotidien et assidu en cours, de leur préparation continue, d'exercices individuels, d'une motivation élevée et d'un esprit de groupe et de collégialité. La progression et le succès de chacune et de tout le groupe était aussi notre objectif. L'emploi du temps général qui précisait le programme des 9 premières semaines et l'organigramme, ainsi que les sujets à traiter pendant tout le semestre d'hiver leur a été remis. Ensuite chaque semaine, un emploi du temps précis – avec les noms des formateurs – leur était remis. En parlant de l'Euromasters et de son prestige, je me suis permis de faire observer que les absences aux cours ne seraient pas acceptées par les formateurs qui exigeraient d'elles un travail continu et assidu. En tant que responsable du Cours, je devais être en contact permanent avec elles et donc tous les problèmes et difficultés pouvaient être réglés immédiatement.

3. Déroulement du Cours “Euromasters in Conference Interpreting”

3.1. Semestre d’hiver (octobre 1999 - janvier 2000)

Le cours a démarré et l’enthousiasme de tous les participants – étudiantes ainsi que formateurs – était visible. Le premier mois fut consacré surtout aux exercices de mémoire, exercices oratoires, de tchèque, aux cours magistraux sur la théorie de l’interprétation, sur l’éthique et la déontologie de la profession et sur les organisations internationales et institutions européennes. La progression était sensible. Les premières difficultés sont néanmoins apparues: il a été assez compliqué de s’assurer pour chaque exercice de la présence de formateurs ayant toutes les combinaisons linguistiques exigées, surtout pour les deux étudiantes de langue maternelle allemande, dans le cas de leurs combinaisons italien-allemand et anglais-allemand. Je me disais, pour excuser ces lacunes, qu’elles suivaient l’Euromasters surtout pour le tchèque, ce qui n’était pas tout à fait faux, mais en même temps pas tout à fait vrai. Il était au début aussi parfois assez inhabituel pour nous de constater que le nombre d’enseignants était souvent supérieur à celui des étudiantes, surtout quand les étudiantes étaient divisées en deux groupes – nous étions parfois trois, voire même quatre formateurs pour deux ou trois étudiantes. Tout le monde se préparait aux cours: les étudiantes faisaient les exposés, les formateurs arrivaient avec des textes et des exercices, les documents étaient disponibles et les jeunes filles motivées. Seulement, j’avais l’impression qu’elles ne s’exerçaient pas ensemble, qu’elles sous-estimaient cette partie de la formation. Je ne m’étais pas trompée. J’ai eu beau leur répéter qu’elles devaient travailler ensemble, rien à faire. Ce n’est qu’avec l’introduction de la simultanée, donc beaucoup plus tard, qu’elles ont compris que les exercices dirigés avec les formateurs ne suffisaient pas. De plus, je savais qu’elles tentaient de poursuivre leurs activités professionnelles respectives afin de gagner un peu d’argent. En effet, si elles ont toutes finalement obtenu une bourse européenne, elles n’en ont reçu confirmation qu’avant Noël et le premier versement beaucoup plus tard encore – vers la mi-janvier.

Vu que le groupe Euromasters était aussi limité, j’ai ouvert au public certaines conférences spécialisées des experts externes. Il me semblait assez gênant qu’un expert du Ministère des affaires étrangères invité en tant qu’orateur principal, intervenant sur l’espace Schengen par exemple, se déplace pour les seules 6 étudiantes du Cours. Je mettais donc l’information aussi sur le tableau d’affichage des étudiants de l’Université Charles et sur le site Internet de la JTP pour les traducteurs et interprètes afin d’augmenter le nombre de participants.

Début novembre, nous avons commencé la prise de notes et la vraie consécutive. Les premiers collègues formateurs-interprètes de l’étranger sont

arrivés pour nous aider comme orateurs natifs et nous faire partager leur expérience pédagogique dans ce type de cours. Leur présence a été très appréciée des étudiantes, entre autres pour les exercices de perfectionnement linguistique supplémentaires qu'ils pouvaient offrir. Parfois les collègues étaient plus exigeants que nous surtout pour leurs langues B et les étudiantes se sentaient stressées et démotivées. Nous avons vécu quelques moments difficiles avec presque toutes les étudiantes.

Le programme s'est déroulé conformément aux objectifs fixés par le groupe Euromasters et il n'est donc pas nécessaire de décrire tous les types d'exercices, de stratégies et de méthodes d'enseignement utilisés. Une remarque néanmoins au sujet des conférences simulées. De pareilles conférences avec tant de langues différentes à la fois étaient pour nous, à l'Institut de Traductologie, quelque chose d'assez nouveau. Pendant le semestre d'hiver, alors que nous travaillions la consécutive, nous avons ouvert les conférences à d'autres étudiants de l'Institut pour qu'ils puissent s'entraîner en cabine alors que les étudiantes Euromasters travaillaient en consécutive. Nous avons tenu la première conférence début novembre quand un collègue free-lance anglophone est arrivé pour apporter une "assistance pédagogique". Pour commencer, le sujet de la conférence était le suivant : "Situation sur le marché de l'interprétation en République Tchèque et en Europe". Nous avons entre autres parlé des organisations professionnelles, de l'interprétation avec relais, du retour, des cabines, des clients etc. Sept intervenants ont été invités pour "jouer le jeu", nous avons eu environ 26 auditeurs - dans une salle prévue pour 24 personnes (y compris les places dans les cabines) et la conférence a duré plus de 3 heures. Ce fut un grand succès. Nous avons tenu quatre conférences simulées au cours du semestre d'hiver (les sujets des trois suivantes étaient : "Le marché unique et les quatre libertés" ; "Rôle des parlements nationaux et du Parlement européen"; "Bogue ou le Y2K"). Les sujets étaient toujours annoncés suffisamment à l'avance, les intervenants dans les différentes langues étaient prévenus, les étudiantes devaient préparer la terminologie et parfois aussi des exposés. Chaque fois, un vrai spécialiste de la problématique traitée avait été invité, les autres orateurs/formateurs choisissaient leur rôle à jouer. Mais c'est surtout pendant le semestre d'été que les conférences simulées ont été le plus appréciées des étudiantes alors qu'elles travaillaient déjà en simultanée en cabine. L'atmosphère était encore plus réelle pour elles.

3.2. Examens de passage

Mi-janvier, nous avons organisé des examens de passage (interprétation consécutive et traduction à vue) qui n'étaient pas éliminatoires, mais qui devaient montrer aux étudiantes où le bât les blessait. Ce fut une période assez

difficile pour certaines d'entre elles qui voulaient abandonner le Cours et se sentaient très mal à l'aise. Leur situation financière jouait sans doute un rôle important (la bourse de Bruxelles n'était toujours pas arrivée). Finalement, elles ont décidé de continuer et elles ont bien fait, car elles ont passé avec succès l'examen final.

3.3. Visite des institutions européennes à Bruxelles

Peu après les examens de passage, le groupe a effectué une visite de six jours aux institutions européennes à Bruxelles (Parlement européen, SCIC, Commission et Conseil). Les étudiantes ont eu la possibilité de se familiariser avec les institutions, leur structure et leur fonctionnement, d'assister aux différentes réunions et de s'asseoir aussi dans les cabines muettes. Là, il y a eu un malentendu entre nous: je ne voulais pas qu'elles s'entraînent en simultanée dans ces cabines muettes, car nous avions à peine commencé l'interprétation simultanée à Prague avant notre départ et j'étais contre ce genre d'exercice d'autant plus que je ne pouvais pas les contrôler. Je leur ai recommandé d'écouter plutôt les professionnels et de noter les tournures et solutions intéressantes. Je sais maintenant d'après les questionnaires d'évaluation qu'elles ont remplis après avoir terminé tout l'Euromasters que c'est une chose qu'elles me reprochaient beaucoup et elles suggéraient qu'à l'avenir il vaudrait mieux organiser une telle visite plus tard dans l'année, quand la simultanée serait mieux assimilée et donc les cabines muettes plus profitables. Leur remarque doit être prise en compte.

3.4. L'Euromasters à mi-parcours

Longtemps avant la visite de Bruxelles, nous avons commencé à préparer le semestre d'été, ou plus précisément la même procédure compliquée avec l'inscription des noms des formateurs pour les différents exercices d'interprétation et les dates. La situation était doublement délicate. Premièrement, la subvention de la Commission européenne n'était pas encore arrivée. Je commençais à être assez tendue car je ne pouvais pas payer toutes les collègues interprètes et tous les experts. Certains formateurs ont carrément refusé de continuer à enseigner si je ne les payais pas immédiatement. Il faut dire que l'argent a vraiment tardé – nous avons reçu la 1^{ère} tranche seulement début avril 2000. Deuxièmement, nous savons tous qu'au printemps le volume de travail des interprètes de conférence augmente sensiblement et donc les collègues hésitaient à prendre des engagements de cours. Les changements de

formateurs étaient encore plus courants qu'au semestre précédent et la communication par courrier électronique encore plus intense.

3.5. Glossaires et mémoires de fin d'études

Après la visite des institutions, les étudiantes ont eu 15 jours de vacances avant la reprise du semestre d'été. Il leur a été conseillé de profiter du temps libre pour commencer leurs travaux terminologiques et de recherche qui faisaient partie intégrante de leurs obligations pour pouvoir se présenter à l'examen final. La soutenance du mémoire précédait la partie interprétation. C'était quelque chose en plus que nous avons incorporée dans notre programme Euromasters à Prague. Nous sentions qu'un "Master" devait aussi comporter un volet un peu plus théorique qui demanderait un peu de réflexion et de recherche.

Au début, les étudiantes n'étaient pas très enthousiastes à cette idée et essayaient de me persuader qu'elles remettraient les travaux seulement après l'examen final. Cela voulait dire que celles qui éventuellement ne réussiraient pas l'examen, ne remettraient plus rien, et celles qui réussiraient, ne se sentiraient plus obligées de remettre quoi que ce soit dans la mesure où elles recevraient quand même leur Certificat.

Le glossaire qui portait sur un sujet ponctuel devait comporter 100 termes au minimum, avec définition et équivalents dans leurs langues B. Les sujets choisis ont été par exemple: la gestion des déchets, la loi sur la faillite et procédure collective, la comptabilité, etc.

Le mémoire – petit travail de recherche empirique ou expérimental, devait avoir au minimum 25 pages. Finalement, après de longues consultations, discussions et conseils, les étudiantes ont opté pour des sujets divers, mais intéressants. A titre d'exemple: l'interprétation via téléphones GSM en République Tchèque: types d'appel, langues les plus demandées, fréquence des besoins d'interprétation. Marché de l'interprétation en République Tchèque du point de vue des agences de traduction et d'interprétation: analyse des questionnaires remplis sur place par les agences. Interprétation simultanée du tchèque vers le français: étude de cas pratique (texte interprété par trois interprètes et analyse de leur prestation). Etude de cas: interprétation simultanée du même texte allemand par quatre interprètes, deux de la langue B vers la langue A et deux de A vers B. Analyse de l'interprétation de l'humour, etc.

Ces travaux ont pris aux étudiantes beaucoup de temps et je sais qu'elles y ont passé presque tous leurs moments libres pendant le semestre d'été.

3.6. Semestre d'été (février - mai 2000)

L'organisation du semestre d'été ressemblait à celle du semestre d'hiver. On travaillait par semaines thématiques (pays membre de l'UE; politique de l'emploi, la sécurité sociale, le système de retraite; banques et finances: privatisation, fonctionnement et types de banques; transport en République Tchèque et en UE: privatisation des chemins de fer, construction des autoroutes, l'essence sans plomb etc.; le crime organisé et la corruption économique; migration, politique d'asile, le statut des réfugiés etc.; énergie; environnement; santé publique; problématique juridique: le système des tribunaux, droits d'auteur, droits de l'homme, droit commercial, droit international etc.; fiscalité, comptabilité, etc.; culture et enseignement etc.). Les exposés des experts portaient sur les mêmes sujets et essayaient de présenter la problématique en question toujours par rapport à l'Union européenne et l'harmonisation de notre législation. Six conférences simulées, pendant lesquelles les étudiantes travaillaient en cabine, traitaient de sujets similaires (à titre d'exemple: problématique des minorités en République Tchèque et en Europe; les nouvelles lois à adopter; privatisation des banques et autres sujets).

L'attention principale portait sur l'interprétation simultanée et tout à coup les étudiantes ont eu l'impression que le temps leur manquait, que le Cours devrait être plus long – au moins un semestre supplémentaire (d'après le questionnaire d'évaluation). Elles ont alors commencé à s'exercer beaucoup plus entre elles. Les faiblesses et lacunes en langues B étaient plus visibles (ou plutôt audibles) que dans l'interprétation consécutive: c'est ce que leur faisaient remarquer surtout les collègues interprètes envoyés à nouveau par le SCIC et le Parlement européen.

3.7. Examen final

Le semestre d'été se terminait, les 13 semaines étaient passées beaucoup plus vite que celles d'hiver et les examens frappaient à la porte. Les dates étaient fixées depuis un an: 29 et 30 mai 2000. Les étudiantes disposaient encore de 15 jours pour s'entraîner entre elles et étaient de plus en plus énervées et anxieuses. Elles avaient peur d'échouer et de ne pas être à la hauteur des exigences. Elles avaient besoin d'un soutien moral. Une dernière réunion avant l'examen a été organisée. Nous leur avons réexpliqué le déroulement de l'examen, nous avons rappelé les différentes disciplines, leur avons dit de combien de temps elles disposeraient pour se préparer, la composition du jury, sur quoi allait porter le jugement etc. Nous les avons calmées en disant que ce n'était pas la fin du monde et que le jury pourrait éventuellement modifier la classification de leurs langues (de B en C par exemple), que ce n'était pas une tragédie, etc.

Le jour “J” arrive enfin. Le jury est composé de représentants du Parlement européen, du SCIC, d’une école du groupe Euromasters (Trieste) et de deux interprètes de conférence, membres de l’AIIC. Seuls les membres du jury ont un droit de vote. En plus, sont représentés à la soutenance les orateurs natifs pour les langues restantes, quelques formateurs permanents de l’Institut de Traductologie et la responsable du Cours qui assure surtout le déroulement objectif de l’examen. Des formulaires d’évaluation contenant les critères adoptés par le groupe des écoles Euromasters et un système de classification des différentes épreuves sont remis aux membres du jury international. Les examens commencent et durent deux longues journées. A la fin, quatre étudiantes seront heureuses, car elles ont réussi. Deux d’entre elles ont su garder toutes leurs combinaisons linguistiques, les deux autres ont vu changer leur B en C, mais elles ont aussi obtenu le Certificat Euromasters Européen. Félicitations!

4. Quelques chiffres en guise de conclusion

En définitive l’enseignement a été assuré par 18 interprètes de conférence professionnels tchèques (y compris 4 enseignants-interprètes permanents de l’Institut de Traductologie), par 5 orateurs natifs (ayant l’italien, l’allemand, l’anglais et le français comme langue maternelle) qui travaillaient et vivaient au cours de l’année dernière à Prague et par 7 collègues interprètes de conférence et formateurs étrangers financés par le PE et le SCIC (ils ont passé chez nous au total 12 semaines). Les étudiantes ont eu pendant les 26 semaines de Cours environ 445 heures d’exercices d’interprétation dirigés (exercices de mémoires, interprétation consécutive et simultanée), certaines ont eu jusqu’à 66 heures de perfectionnement linguistique avec les orateurs natifs. Elles ont pratiqué leurs compétences en interprétation dans 10 conférences simulées d’une durée totale de 30 heures. Pendant 10 heures les étudiantes ont amélioré leur art oratoire, 14 heures ont été consacrées à la théorie de l’interprétation, la prise de notes, l’éthique et la déontologie de la profession. En outre, elles ont écouté 54 heures de conférences spécialisées sur divers sujets ponctuels, présentées par des experts des ministères, de l’Institut des relations internationales, de la Délégation de l’EU à Prague, d’autres établissements universitaires tchèques et étrangers. Par ailleurs, les étudiantes ont pu s’exercer entre elles dans le laboratoire d’interprétation jusqu’à 3 heures par jour. Pendant l’examen final, à certains moments, jusqu’à 11 personnes suivaient de près leurs épreuves. Trois chiffres encore pour finir: les formateurs ont rempli 150 fiches d’évaluation de cours dans le “Livre de classe” et ont remis 13 questionnaires d’évaluation

complexe de tout le Cours Euromasters, et les 6 étudiantes ont elles aussi renvoyé les questionnaires d'évaluation une fois terminé l'examen final.²

5. Vivre une année avec le Cours "Euromasters in Conference Interpreting"?

Le lecteur attentif a pu constater que cette "année" a duré quand même un peu plus que l'année normale de 12 mois et qu'elle n'est pas encore tout à fait terminée pour recommencer à nouveau. En fait, mi-juin 2000, nous avons organisé des examens d'admission pour la prochaine édition du Euromasters. Malheureusement, parmi les 14 candidats inscrits, seulement 3 personnes ont réussi l'examen, ce qui n'est pas un nombre suffisant pour ouvrir l'Euromasters à Prague pour l'année universitaire 2000/2001. Nous espérons avoir plus de chance pendant les prochains examens d'admission qui vont se tenir au printemps 2001 pour que nous puissions organiser un nouveau cours "Euromasters in Conference Interpreting" dès l'automne 2001.

² L'analyse détaillée des questionnaires fait l'objet d'un exposé qui sera présenté ultérieurement au Congrès de l'EST à Copenhague en septembre 2001.

LA PRÉSENTATION EN INTERPRÉTATION CONSÉCUTIVE: COMMENT DÉVELOPPER UNE HABILITÉ DE BASE¹

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Une riche littérature est consacrée aux éléments verbaux dans la production de l'interprète et sur les méthodes d'enseignement dans ce domaine. En revanche, il n'y a pas d'études exhaustives sur les aspects non verbaux de l'interprétation; ceux-ci sont souvent considérés comme le contour du message verbal et non pas comme une partie fondamentale de la communication en interprétation. Il n'est pas moins vrai que la plupart des Écoles appartenant à la *Conférence Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes* (CIUTI) consacrent beaucoup de temps, parfois des cours, à la présentation. Les chercheurs commencent donc à être conscients du fait que le message en interprétation est également formé d'un contenu référentiel et de la présentation du contenu en lui-même.

L'objectif de cette étude n'est pas de se limiter à l'analyse de la littérature et à l'observation de la réalité des différentes Écoles CIUTI, mais plutôt de tenter de vérifier quels ont été les effets d'une série d'exercices spécifiques, axés sur la présentation, sur un groupe d'étudiants de la Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori de l'Université de Trieste (SSLMIT).

1. L'importance de la présentation dans la littérature

L'effet potentiel d'un message verbal sur le destinataire relève de son contenu référentiel et de sa présentation (Gile 1983: 236). Il va donc de soi que l'on utilise la communication verbale et la communication non verbale et que l'on emploie des moyens objectifs du système de la langue, des éléments paralinguistiques (voix, respiration, pauses...) et des éléments cinétiques, tels que la posture et la gestuelle.

L'interprète aussi, au cours de l'acte de l'interprétation, participe à un processus de communication, bilingue en l'occurrence. Le message qu'il produit se compose donc d'éléments verbaux et d'éléments non verbaux, tous deux étant d'égale importance pour établir une relation optimale avec l'auditeur. Poyatos définit l'interprétation comme suit: "*The relaying from a speaker-actor to a*

1 Cet article est extrait d'un mémoire expérimental présenté au mois de juillet 1999 à la SSLMIT. Les questions ici présentées peuvent être approfondies dans: Bottan, L. La presentazione in interpretazione consecutiva: come sviluppare un'abilità di base, promoteurs Mme Riccardi et Mme Kellett Bidoli.

listener-viewer (or audience) of verbal and non verbal messages indistinctively through verbal and nonverbal ones, as dictated by the synonymous, antonymous or absent verbal or nonverbal signs with respect to each other's communication systems". (Poyatos 1997: 249).

Même si la présentation n'est pas traitée comme un aspect à part en littérature, plusieurs auteurs expriment une opinion à ce propos. Herbert (1952) lorsqu'il identifie les tâches de l'interprète - comprendre, transposer, parler – borde notamment les différents éléments de la présentation (la voix, les silences, le regard, etc.) car “*si une commission oublie vite un défaut de prononciation, un zéaiement ou autre [...] elle risque de s'irriter d'une voix trop sèche ou trop aiguë ou trop chantante, d'un débit confus ou trop saccadé ou trop lent ou trop rapide*”. (Herbert 1952: 57). Il conclut en disant que “*les Écoles d'interprètes devront consacrer à cette partie essentielle de la formation tout le temps nécessaire*”. (ib. 1952: 60). Déjan Le Féal (1981) lorsqu'elle décrit les différentes phases du processus de l'interprétation consécutive (IC), attribue une grande importance à la voix. David et Margareta Bowen (1984) reconnaissent quant à eux que l'IC implique la présence de l'interprète devant un public et donnent une série de conseils concernant notamment la voix. Seleskovitch (1981) identifie une progression dans l'apprentissage de l'IC, pendant lequel la troisième et dernière phase devrait être entièrement consacrée à l'expression orale. Intravaia et Scavée (1982) soutiennent que, dans l'IC, l'image donnée par l'interprète est extrêmement importante, surtout lors du premier contact avec le public, pendant les quelques secondes qui s'écoulent entre le moment où l'orateur a terminé de parler et le moment où l'interprète se prépare à présenter sa consécutive. Toute l'attention est concentrée sur lui, sur son aspect physique, sur sa façon de rester assis ou debout, sur sa capacité d'attirer l'attention du public à travers le regard. Altman (1989) souligne l'importance de l'exemple fourni par le professeur, surtout au niveau de la présentation. Enfin, Gile (1995) englobe la présentation dans l’*“enveloppe du discours”*, qui contient la langue, mais aussi la prosodie, la qualité de la voix, l'expression du visage et la gestuelle.

L'utilité de l'enregistrement sur cassette vidéo lors des cours d'IC fait l'objet de nombreuses considérations sur la présentation. Kellett (1995) le souligne et estime que cet enregistrement est très utile pour permettre au professeur, mais surtout à l'étudiant, une évaluation critique de la présentation. Kurz (1989) y voit une méthode pour apprendre à parler devant un public ou pour renforcer des capacités déjà acquises. Schweda-Nicholson (1985) pense quant à elle que les enregistrements doivent être effectués au début du cours d'IC pour permettre à l'étudiant de se rendre tout de suite compte de ses points forts et de ses faiblesses.

Il serait très intéressant de mesurer l'importance de la présentation dans le cas spécifique de l'IC à travers des questionnaires soumis aux usagers du service d'interprétation. Malheureusement de telles études n'ont été réalisées que pour l'interprétation simultanée (IS), qui offre moins d'éléments relevant de la présentation que l'IC. Il n'est cependant pas inutile d'analyser les résultats de ces études. D'une part, elles peuvent susciter de nouvelles études dans le domaine de l'IC et d'autre part, il faut considérer que les exigences exprimées par les usagers s'agissant de l'IS seraient encore plus accentuées pour l'IC vu la nature de ce mode d'interprétation.

Au cours d'une conférence d'ophtalmologie génétique, Gile (1990) a distribué un questionnaire dans lequel il demandait d'évaluer les différents éléments de l'interprétation (qualité de la langue, qualité des termes choisis, fidélité à l'original, voix, rythme, intonation): seul l'élément *voix* a obtenu des jugements négatifs, voire très négatifs. Bühler (1986) a distribué un questionnaire à des membres de l'AIIIC qui devaient s'exprimer sur la valeur de différents éléments composant l'interprétation. La fluidité de l'élocution est considérée comme *highly important* par 100% des membres de l'AIIIC; la voix est considérée comme *highly important* par 50% des interviewés, tandis que le reste la considère comme *importante*. Une autre étude reprenant huit critères utilisés par Bühler a été réalisée par Kurz (1993). Kurz a distribué le même questionnaire à trois groupes d'usagers: les participants à une conférence internationale de médecine générale, les participants à une conférence internationale sur le contrôle de la qualité et un groupe de délégués du Conseil de l'Europe. S'agissant de la fluidité de l'élocution, Kurz a pu constater que le groupe le plus sensible à cet égard était celui des délégués du Conseil de l'Europe. Ceci s'explique par le fait que dans ce contexte, beaucoup d'hésitations, de longues pauses ou un rythme irrégulier sont considérés comme des obstacles à un échange spontané d'informations et d'expériences. Les trois groupes ont donné une importance relative à la qualité de la voix (Kurz 1993). Une étude beaucoup plus ample a été effectuée par Moser (1996), qui a réalisé des interviews pendant des conférences fort différentes les unes des autres. À la question de savoir quelles sont les caractéristiques recherchées chez l'interprète, 34% de tous les usagers interviewés ont répondu *une voix agréable*. En réponse à cette question, 30 personnes ont souligné le manque de discipline au microphone des interprètes qu'ils avaient écoutés (toux, chuchotements, tapotements de stylo). Parmi les attentes des interviewés, on retrouve également la capacité rhétorique de l'interprète: 46% pensent qu'elle est très importante et que les *filled pauses* sont très énervantes. 80% pensent que la voix est un élément important ou très important. Des résultats similaires ont été obtenus par l'étude de Kopczynski (1994).

2. Tour d'horizon des Écoles CIUTI: les cours sur la présentation

Après avoir analysé l'importance attribuée à la présentation dans la littérature, nous avons vérifié combien d'Écoles CIUTI consacrent des cours ou tout au moins des initiatives régulières à la présentation. Au moment de la réalisation de cette étude, les Écoles CIUTI étaient au nombre de 24²; elles ont été contactées par courrier électronique ou par lettre: une seule³ n'a jamais répondu.

A partir des informations et du matériel reçus, nous avons pu constater que:

- 19 Écoles sur 24⁴ organisent des cours ou d'autres manifestations consacrées entièrement ou en partie à la présentation; dans 17 Écoles, ces cours sont des cours institutionnalisés, avec souvent un examen final; dans les 2 autres

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- 2 ALLEMAGNE: Fachbereich Angewandte Sprach- und Kulturwissenschaft der Johannes Gutenberg-Universität Mainz in Gernersheim; Institut für Übersetzen und Dolmetschen der Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg; Institut für Sprach- und Übersetzungswissenschaft der Universität Leipzig; Fachrichtung Angewandte Sprachwissenschaft sowie Übersetzen und Dolmetschen der Universität des Saarlandes, Saarbrücken. AUTRICHE: Institut für Übersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung der Karl-Franzens-Universität Graz; Institut für Übersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung der Leopoldfranzens-Universität Innsbruck; Institut für Übersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung der Universität Wien. BELGIQUE: Universitair Centrum Antwerpen Hoger Instituut voor Vertalers en Tolken; Institut Supérieur de Traducteurs et Interprètes de Bruxelles; Mercator Departement of Applied Language Studies - Mercator Hogeschool Oost-Vlaanderen Ghent; École d'Interprètes Internationaux de l'Université de Mons-Hainaut. CANADA: Université de Montréal, Département de linguistique et de traduction. DANEMARK: Erhvervsproglige Falkultet ved Handelshøjskolen i Århus; Faculty of Modern Languages - Copenhagen Business School, Frederiksberg. ÉTATS-UNIS: Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, Monterey Institute of International Studies, Monterey; Division of Interpretation and Translation, Georgetown University, Washington D.C. FRANCE: École Supérieure d'Interprètes et Traducteurs de l'Université de Paris Dauphine; Institut Catholique, Institut Supérieur d'Interprétation et de Traduction de Paris. GRANDE-BRETAGNE: University of Bath, School of Modern Languages and International Studies; Heriott-Watt University Edinburgh, School of Languages; University of Bradford, Departement of Modern Languages. ITALIE: Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori dell'Università di Trieste. RÉPUBLIQUE TCHÈQUE: Univerzita Karlova, Ustav translologie, Prag. SUISSE: École de Traduction et d'Interprétation de l'Université de Genève.
- 3 GRANDE-BRETAGNE: University of Bradford, Departement of Modern Languages.
- 4 Les écoles de: Gernersheim, Heidelberg, Leipzig, Sarrebruck, Graz, Innsbruck, Vienne, Anvers, Bruxelles, Gand, Mons, Montréal, Århus, Copenhagen, Monterey, Washington, Bath, Prague, Genève.

Écoles il n'y a pas de cours institutionnalisés mais des manifestations, par exemple des séminaires qui sont organisés tous les ans.

- 4 Écoles sur 24 n'organisent régulièrement ni cours ni manifestations consacrées au travail de présentation. Parmi ces Écoles figure la SSLMIT de l'Université de Trieste où, jusqu'à ce jour, seuls les professeurs d'IC s'occupaient de la présentation pendant leurs cours.

Les cours sur la présentation en interprétation sont organisés différemment selon les Écoles mais ils ont tous le même but: soigner cet aspect important de l'interprétation en général et, surtout, de l'IC. Les cours se déroulent soit pendant la première partie des études, soit dans la seconde partie; la durée minimum est de 12 heures par an et la durée maximum de 60 heures. Les cours organisés par les Écoles se composent de cours totalement consacrés à la présentation et de cours partiellement consacrés à cet aspect. Les cours totalement consacrés à la présentation sont axés sur l'amélioration de la respiration, de l'intonation, de la prononciation, de la présentation en public, sur les exercices de relaxation et de concentration, sur l'articulation et la diction. Il s'agit de cours d'expression orale (*Innsbruck*), de cours d'orthophonie et de technique phonatoire (*Mons*), d'orthoépie (*Germersheim, Graz*), de logopédie (*Anvers*), de public speaking (*Gand, Washington D.C.*) et de technique du discours oral (*Prague*). Certaines Écoles organisent plusieurs cours sur la présentation. C'est le cas par exemple de l'institut de *Heidelberg*, où l'on prévoit deux cours de communication orale, l'un pour les étudiants du premier au quatrième semestre et l'autre pour les étudiants du deuxième au cinquième semestre. À la fin de ces cours, un test permet d'identifier les personnes qui, selon les experts, peuvent suivre des cours d'interprétation. Les étudiants qui réussissent ce test doivent suivre un cours de communication rhétorique. Les experts participent également une fois par semaine aux cours d'IC et d'IS passive⁵ et s'expriment sur les éléments verbaux et non verbaux de l'interprétation de l'étudiant. Pour les étudiants qui ont des difficultés au niveau de la voix ou de l'influence dialectale, l'École organise des cours individuels de 20-30 minutes, une fois par semaine.

Les cours partiellement consacrés à la présentation se concentrent en partie sur la présentation et en partie sur la compréhension, la mémorisation, la paraphrase, l'explication de texte, la synthèse orale d'un texte préparé au préalable, la présentation d'un exposé préparé par l'étudiant sur un sujet spécifique, les principes de rhétorique (*Bruxelles, Montréal, Arhus, Sarrebruck*).

Un examen est souvent prévu à la fin des cours; la présentation peut être évaluée sur la base d'un exposé oral ou d'un ensemble d'épreuves comprenant

5 De la langue B à la langue A ou de la langue C à la langue A.

la lecture d'un texte, un exposé oral et une consécutive, ou encore sur la base de la synthèse orale d'un texte écrit. S'il n'y a pas d'examens spécifiques, l'enseignant qui a donné ces cours peut participer aux examens d'interprétation et son jugement contribue à déterminer la note finale de l'examen.

L'École de *Genève* et celle de *Copenhague* sont les seules dans ce groupe qui n'ont pas de cours institutionnalisés mais qui organisent régulièrement des manifestations axées sur la présentation. L'École de Genève organise régulièrement des séminaires; les derniers en date ont été consacrés à la voix (voix, articulation, respiration et à son influence sur la production vocale, posture, techniques de relaxation et massages spécifiques), à la voix et l'interprète (production vocale, voix et IC, voix et chuchotage, voix et interprétation de liaison, voix et IS, hygiène vocale), à la voix et la présentation de l'interprète. À Copenhague les départements de langue prennent régulièrement des initiatives dans ce domaine. Dans le département d'anglais, par exemple, les professeurs d'interprétation consacrent 24 heures par an à la présentation; dans le département de français, les étudiants peuvent suivre le cours de "Rhétorique, théorie et pratique".

3. Étude expérimentale

L'étude expérimentale a été organisée dans le but de vérifier concrètement si des exercices spécifiques sur la présentation en IC pouvaient être utiles aux étudiants-interprètes. À la SSLMIT de Trieste, cette étude expérimentale a aussi été conçue comme un point de départ pour l'organisation éventuelle de véritables cours structurés.

3.1. Choix des sujets

Les deux groupes de participants étaient formés d'étudiants d'interprétation suivant la quatrième année de la SSLMIT de Trieste: ils avaient donc déjà terminé les cours d'IC et fréquentaient les cours d'IS. Le premier groupe (groupe "A", 6 étudiants, langue A: italien, langue B: allemand) a participé aux deux contrôles (§ 3.3) et à 30 heures d'exercices sur la présentation (§ 3.4). Le second groupe (groupe "B", 6 personnes, langue A: italien, langue B: français) a participé aux deux contrôles seulement.

3.2. Choix des textes pour les contrôles

Les textes choisis avaient les mêmes caractéristiques que les textes utilisés par les professeurs d'IC pendant les cours et les examens; ils portaient sur des questions d'actualité.

3.3. Les contrôles

Les deux groupes ont participé à deux contrôles, avant et après les 30 heures d'exercices prévues pour le groupe "A". Les étudiants ont présenté une consécutive en italien à partir de la langue B. À la fin de chaque épreuve, un questionnaire (§ 3.5.2) basé sur les critères utilisés dans la fiche d'évaluation (§ 3.5.1) a été distribué aux étudiants. Toutes les épreuves ont été enregistrées avec une caméra.

3.4. Les exercices

Les exercices ont été choisis et réalisés par un expert d'art dramatique et de diction. L'expert n'ayant jamais été confronté à l'interprétation, il a assisté pendant à peu près deux mois aux examens et aux cours d'IC avant d'organiser les exercices. Pendant cette période, il a identifié les éléments importants sur lesquels travailler par la suite. Sur la base de ses observations et, bien sûr, de son expérience, il a élaboré un programme ad hoc pour les étudiants en interprétation. Les étudiants ont participé à 30 heures d'exercices réparties sur deux mois à raison de deux séances par semaine et ce, pour un total de 4 heures hebdomadaires. Avant de passer aux exercices et durant leur exécution, l'expert a fourni une base théorique concernant les différents types de respiration, les effets de la respiration sur la voix, la voix et le son, l'utilisation du micro, le contact à travers le regard et la posture. Les exercices effectués par chaque étudiant ont presque toujours été enregistrés à l'aide d'une caméra. Cela a permis à l'expert d'analyser de façon plus critique la réaction de l'étudiant, et à l'étudiant de prendre conscience de ses erreurs et des caractéristiques de sa présentation.

Les exercices ont été divisés en trois batteries. Pour chaque batterie, nous donnons les exemples ci-dessous.

Exercices de relaxation et de respiration. L'expert s'est concentré sur la respiration en insistant sur celle qui fait appel au diaphragme. Son propos était de faire prendre conscience aux étudiants de l'importance d'une respiration

correcte, respiration qui leur permet de se relaxer et de mieux contrôler les éléments essentiels de la présentation.

Au début, l'expert a vérifié la respiration de chaque sujet en lui demandant de respirer profondément, puis il a montré comment respirer en utilisant le diaphragme, c'est-à-dire correctement. L'expert a souvent fait répéter les exercices de respiration et demandé aux étudiants de contrôler eux-mêmes si leur respiration était correcte. Ce contrôle peut s'exercer en appliquant la main au niveau de l'estomac, ce qui permet de suivre les mouvements du diaphragme. Un autre exercice permettant de vérifier si les sujets respirent correctement est *la respiration avec diaphragme accélérée au maximum*. Le sujet devait respirer le plus vite possible avec le diaphragme. S'il éprouvait une sensation d'étourdissement, cela signifiait qu'il ne respirait pas correctement en temps normal. En effet, une respiration correcte provoquait une hyperoxygénation à laquelle il n'était pas habitué, ce qui entraînait cette sensation d'étourdissement.

Parmi les exercices de relaxation, signalons celui que l'expert appelait 6-3-6-3. Il s'agit d'un exercice de yoga reposant sur le principe qui consiste à savourer l'énergie vitale de l'univers (en l'occurrence l'oxygène). Le sujet inspire en 6 temps, retient son souffle pendant 3 temps, expire en 6 temps, retient son souffle pendant 3 temps, et ainsi de suite. Le but de cet exercice est de relaxer et de régulariser la respiration et les battements du cœur.

Exercices pour la voix. L'outil le plus utilisé pour les exercices de la voix a été la lecture de différents types de textes. L'expert se concentrait sur le ton, le volume, l'articulation, la sonorité. Il apprenait aux étudiants à poser leur voix, à utiliser correctement le micro, à ne pas trop fatiguer leur voix quand ils parlent longtemps.

Au début, l'expert a vérifié si les sujets avaient une voix posée ou une voix de tête. Il a vérifié lui-même et fait vérifier à tous les sujets si, pendant la lecture d'un texte, ils percevaient des vibrations quand ils appuyaient la main sur le dos, au niveau des poumons. La présence de vibrations indique qu'il ne s'agit pas d'une voix de tête.

Pour apprendre aux étudiants à ajuster le volume de leur voix en fonction de la situation et du lieu, l'expert a fait lire un texte debout à un sujet, tandis que le reste du groupe se déplaçait vers le fond de la salle ou en sortait. Le sujet devait ajuster son volume pour que le reste du groupe continue à l'entendre. Toujours à travers la lecture d'un texte, l'expert a vérifié l'articulation de chaque sujet en utilisant une caméra pour des plans spéciaux (gros plans, plans rapprochés), qui permettaient de contrôler certains éléments tels que le mouvement des lèvres. L'articulation a été exercée avec *l'exercice des chiffres chuchotés*; la voix n'ayant aucun volume dans cet exercice, le sujet devait forcément mieux articuler ses mots pour se faire entendre.

L'expert a ensuite montré que nous pouvons utiliser une gamme étendue de tons, mais que nous sommes habitués à en utiliser un nombre très réduit. Pour le prouver, il a choisi *l'exercice de la lecture rythmée*. Pendant la lecture, le sujet devait prononcer chaque mot en utilisant toujours le même ton et le même rythme, comme si sa lecture était cadencée par un métronome; il devait aussi veiller à inspirer et à expirer à chaque mot. Dans un deuxième temps, l'expert a demandé au sujet de changer de ton (plus bas ou plus élevé), puis de prononcer une phrase entière de la même façon mais dans un seul souffle. Les mots devaient être prononcés en suivant l'échelle des tons, du plus bas au plus élevé et vice versa.

Exercices pour le contact avec le public. Les exercices de cette batterie visaient différents objectifs. L'expert a voulu apprendre aux étudiants à se tenir devant une caméra, à avoir une bonne posture assise et debout, à bien gérer les feuilles utilisées pour les notes de la consécutive, à se concentrer en dépit des nombreux éléments dérangeants, et à toujours regarder le public.

Au début, l'expert a interviewé chaque sujet en le filmant à l'aide d'une caméra. Son objectif était de mettre les étudiants devant une caméra (ce qui était souvent leur première expérience) et de voir comment ils réagissaient. Utilisant toujours la lecture, l'expert a observé la façon dont les étudiants se tenaient assis et debout, dont ils utilisaient le micro et gardaient le contact avec le public. Il leur a donné des conseils pour améliorer ces aspects de la présentation. En outre, il a prévu des exercices qui devaient habituer les étudiants à avoir un bon contact avec le public, même en présence de facteurs dérangeants, tels que le bruit ou des gens qui parlent. L'expert a fait lire un texte à un sujet, assis puis debout, et les autres devaient le déranger en se promenant autour de lui, en parlant entre eux et finalement en faisant des commentaires directs et personnels sur le sujet qui lisait. Ce dernier devait essayer de s'isoler, de paraître tranquille et concentré sur sa lecture.

L'utilisation d'une caméra a été fondamentale pour cette batterie d'exercices. Grâce à l'enregistrement, les étudiants ont pris conscience des caractéristiques concrètes de leur présentation (position des jambes, posture, contact avec le public, etc.).

3.5. Critères et méthode d'évaluation

3.5.1. La fiche d'évaluation

La fiche suivante a été utilisée pour évaluer la présentation des étudiants pendant les contrôles. Elle a été réalisée sur la base d'observations faites par l'expert et par la responsable de l'étude pendant les cours et les examens d'IC à la SSLMIT, ainsi que sur la base des éléments contenus dans la littérature

analysée (§1). Parmi les éléments de la présentation que les étudiants avaient du mal à maîtriser, on a décidé de se concentrer sur les plus fréquents. Dès le début, il est apparu évident qu'on ne pouvait procéder à une évaluation "mesurable" de la présentation compte tenu des éléments dont elle se compose. La façon dont ces éléments sont perçus relève de la personne qui écoute: l'exposition peut être trop rapide pour une personne et normale pour une autre, une voix nasillarde peut déranger ou pas, 5 "ehm" par minute peuvent devenir énervants pour certains mais pas pour tout le monde, la gesticulation peut être acceptée ou pas. Voilà pourquoi il a été décidé de ne pas compter les mots par minute pour établir si les sujets parlaient de façon trop rapide ou trop lente; on n'a pas non plus utilisé d'instruments techniques pour analyser la courbe mélodique et établir si une voix était monotone ou pas; enfin, on n'a pas compté la quantité de "ehm" avec précision. Dans cette étude, l'évaluation de la présentation repose sur les impressions et, notamment, sur celles de l'expert. Son objectif n'était pas d'obtenir que tous les étudiants prononcent la même quantité de mots par minute ou que tous aient la même courbe mélodique quand ils travaillent en consécutive. Le but était plutôt de rendre la présentation agréable pour ceux qui écoutent et de corriger les éléments qui, selon le jugement de l'expert, pouvaient déranger.

Dans ce contexte, il faut donc rappeler l'affirmation de Gile: "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).

VOIX

- vitesse de l'exposition
- homogénéité du rythme
- monotonie ou bonne intonation
- volume de la voix
- tremblement de la voix
- toux nerveuse ou raclement de la gorge
- pauses remplies ("ehm", etc.)
- soupirs
- faux départs
- lapsus

EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE

- grimaces ou expressions non liées à l'exposé
- contact avec le public
- humidification ou mordillement fréquents des lèvres

POSTURE

- correcte

- gesticulation excessive
- tremblements
- tripotement d'objets
- position du bras qui n'est pas utilisé pour soutenir le bloc-notes
- se tripoter les cheveux
- se gratter
- remuer continuellement les pieds ou les jambes
- position des jambes
- oscillations du corps

3.5.2. Le questionnaire

Le but de ce questionnaire est de vérifier dans quelle mesure les étudiants sont conscients de la bonne ou de la mauvaise qualité de leur présentation. Les questions reprennent entièrement les éléments de la fiche d'évaluation, ce qui permet de comparer directement la fiche de l'expert et le questionnaire de l'étudiant, et d'identifier dans quelle mesure les réponses du questionnaire divergent des éléments observés par l'expert.

Pour établir le degré de conscience de chaque étudiant, on a adopté les critères suivants:

- de 0 à 5 réponses divergentes: degré de conscience ÉLEVÉ
- de 6 à 10 réponses divergentes: degré de conscience MOYEN
- de 11 à 15 réponses divergentes: degré de conscience MOYEN-BAS
- de 16 à 23 réponses divergentes: degré de conscience BAS.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Nom:

Prénom:

Langue B:

Langue C:

1. Penses-tu que ton exposition était trop lente ou trop rapide?
2. Le rythme de ton exposition était-il homogène?
3. Ton intonation était-elle monotone ou bonne?
4. Le volume de ta voix était-il trop élevé, trop bas ou bon?
5. Ta voix était-elle tremblante?
6. As-tu souvent toussé ou t'es-tu souvent raclé la gorge? Si OUI, était-ce une nécessité physique?
7. As-tu remarqué des pauses remplies ("ehm", etc.)?
8. As-tu fait des soupirs?
9. As-tu souvent commencé un mot ou une phrase de façon incorrecte et t'es-tu tout de suite corrigé/ée?

10. As-tu fait beaucoup de lapsus?
11. As-tu fait des grimaces? Ton visage avait-il des expressions étranges? Si OUI, lesquelles? Qu'exprimaient-elles à ton avis?
12. As-tu gardé un bon contact avec le public?
13. T'es-tu souvent humecté les lèvres ou les as-tu souvent mordillées?
14. Avais-tu une posture correcte?
15. As-tu beaucoup gesticulé? Si OUI, de façon excessive à ton avis?
16. Tes mains ou tes jambes tremblaient-elles?
17. Tripotais-tu des objets (stylo, boucles d'oreilles, bague, collier...)? Si OUI, de quoi s'agissait-il?
18. Dans quelle position était le bras avec lequel tu ne tenais pas ton bloc-notes?
19. T'es-tu souvent tripoté les cheveux?
20. T'es-tu gratté/ée? Si OUI, était-ce une nécessité physique?
21. As-tu souvent remué les pieds ou les jambes?
22. Tes jambes étaient-elles dans une position décontractée?
23. Te balançais-tu?

3.6. Résultats et discussion

Les résultats de cette étude peuvent être analysés au niveau individuel et au niveau du groupe. Dans le présent article, nous avons décidé de présenter les résultats au niveau du groupe seulement (en appendice, on trouvera un exemple des deux fiches d'un sujet).

Les améliorations ou, en tout état de cause, les différences entre le premier et le second contrôle, au niveau individuel et du groupe, ont été vérifiées sur la base des deux fiches individuelles.

Le but de la comparaison entre les deux groupes était de cerner d'éventuelles différences entre le groupe "A", qui avait participé aux exercices sur la présentation, et le groupe "B", qui n'y avait pas participé et qui n'avait pas vu les fiches d'évaluation du premier contrôle avant la réalisation du second. Nous avons décidé de ne pas fournir d'informations au groupe "B" étant donné que la prise de conscience de la qualité de la présentation constitue le tout premier exercice qu'un sujet doit effectuer pour améliorer sa présentation. Si l'on avait montré au groupe "B" l'enregistrement du premier contrôle, il y aurait déjà eu une étape en commun avec le groupe "A". Le groupe "B" a donc simplement continué à suivre les cours d'IS et à faire des exercices d'IC.

Pour la comparaison entre les deux groupes, on a tenu compte des éléments négatifs éliminés lors du second contrôle, des éléments négatifs encore présents durant ce contrôle, des éléments négatifs encore présents dans ce second contrôle mais sous une forme atténuée - d'après l'expert, ces éléments n'avaient

pas été éliminés mais réduits (“ehm”, faux départs, lapsus...) ou améliorés de façon évidente (posture, position des jambes), des éléments négatifs encore présents lors du second contrôle sous une forme accentuée et des éléments négatifs “nouveaux”.

Sur la base des résultats du premier contrôle, on a brossé le tableau de la situation initiale des deux groupes et identifié les éléments négatifs communs. Dans le groupe “A”, pour ce qui est de la VOIX, les éléments négatifs concernant au moins la moitié des sujets étaient:

- faux départs en quantité très élevée;
- rythme de l’exposition non homogène;
- pauses remplies en quantité très élevée (“ehm”, etc.);
- voix plus ou moins tremblante;
- lenteur de l’exposition;
- intonation plus ou moins monotone.

Au niveau des EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE:

- absence de bon contact avec le public;
- expressions de perplexité, désarroi et nervosité.

Au niveau de la POSTURE:

- jambes dans une position contractée;
- oscillations du corps de gauche à droite ou d’avant en arrière;
- posture rigide ou déséquilibrée;
- se gratter continuellement le visage de façon nerveuse.

L’expert a en outre remarqué les éléments négatifs suivants:

- respiration incorrecte;
- déglutition très accentuée;
- bouche pâteuse.

Pour ce qui est du groupe “B”, les éléments négatifs concernant au moins la moitié des sujets lors du premier contrôle étaient les suivants:

au niveau de la VOIX:

- pauses remplies (“ehm”, etc.) en quantité très élevée;
- faux départs en quantité très élevée;
- lenteur de l’exposition;
- voix plus ou moins tremblante;
- volume de voix très éloigné de celui des conditions normales (plus élevé ou beaucoup plus bas);
- rythme de l’exposition non homogène.

Au niveau des EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE:

- humidification ou mordillement fréquents des lèvres;
- absence de bon contact avec le public;
- expressions de perplexité, désarroi et nervosité.

Au niveau de la POSTURE:

- jambes dans une position contractée;
- mouvements et/ou oscillations des jambes et/ou des pieds;
- oscillations du corps de gauche à droite ou d'avant en arrière;
- mains tremblantes;
- posture rigide ou déséquilibrée;
- gesticulation;
- tripotement du stylo ou des coins du bloc-notes;
- se tripoter souvent les cheveux.

L'expert a en outre remarqué les éléments négatifs suivants:

- respiration incorrecte;
- tenir le bloc-notes ou les feuilles de façon nerveuse, maladroite ou bruyante.

L'analyse de ces situations dans les deux groupes a permis de constater qu'au second contrôle le groupe "A" avait éliminé en moyenne 71,39% des éléments négatifs du premier contrôle. Pour le groupe "B", ce pourcentage moyen était de 29,84%.

Dans le groupe "A", seuls 3 sujets sur 6 présentaient encore des éléments négatifs du premier contrôle. La quantité de ces éléments correspondait à une moyenne de 10,59%. Dans le groupe "B" et lors du second contrôle, tous les sujets présentaient encore des éléments négatifs du premier contrôle à raison de 64,17%.

Dans le groupe "A", le reste des éléments négatifs encore présents au second contrôle fait partie des éléments encore présents sous une forme atténuée (18,02% - moyenne du groupe). Ce résultat témoigne du fait que, lorsqu'on n'a pas réussi à éliminer certains éléments négatifs, on a tout au moins réussi à les réduire ou à les améliorer. Dans le groupe "B", seul un sujet présentait 2 éléments sur 11 qui pouvaient figurer dans cette catégorie (3,06% - moyenne du groupe). Ce résultat tient au fait que la plupart des sujets ont conservé les mêmes éléments négatifs et ce, dans la même mesure. Le pourcentage restant (2,96%) correspond pour le groupe "B" aux éléments négatifs du premier contrôle accentués lors du second. Aucun sujet du groupe "A" n'a accentué d'éléments négatifs du premier contrôle dans le second (0%). Dans les fiches du second contrôle du groupe "A", on n'a trouvé aucun élément négatif "nouveau". Au contraire, dans le groupe "B", tous les sujets présentaient des éléments négatifs "nouveaux" (quantité variant de 1 et 7).

Au-delà de la quantité d'éléments négatifs éliminés ou atténués, il est intéressant d'étudier les éléments qu'il a été possible d'améliorer. Nous avons en particulier constaté de très nettes améliorations s'agissant des éléments suivants:

- voix tremblante
- lapsus
- pauses remplies ("ehm", etc.)

- faux départs
- absence d'homogénéité
- lenteur de l'exposition.

Soulignons en outre que des résultats très positifs ont été obtenus au niveau individuel chez les sujets présentant des éléments négatifs qui n'étaient pas communs au groupe, mais qui étaient très accentués chez eux: 2 sujets ont éliminé la monotonie de leur intonation, un sujet a réussi à corriger le volume de sa voix, 3 sujets ont nettement amélioré leur contact avec le public, 2 sujets ont éliminé le tremblement de leurs mains.

Pour ce qui est du degré de conscience des sujets relevant des questionnaires, on a constaté des améliorations dans le groupe "A" et dans le groupe "B". Il faut cependant souligner que, dans le groupe "A", 3 sujets sur 6 avaient un degré de conscience élevé au second contrôle: un sujet a donné seulement 3 réponses divergentes par rapport aux fiches d'évaluation du premier et du second contrôle. Les deux autres sujets sont arrivés à un degré de conscience élevé, passant respectivement de 9 à 4 et de 11 à 2 réponses divergentes. Dans le groupe "B", aucun sujet n'a présenté de degré de conscience élevé.

3.7. Les observateurs

Outre l'évaluation réalisée par l'expert et la responsable de l'étude, nous avons demandé l'avis d'un groupe d'observateurs formé de professeurs et de chercheurs d'interprétation. Des fiches⁶ résumant la fiche d'évaluation (§3.5.1) ont été distribuées, les cassettes vidéo des deux contrôles ont été visualisées et les observateurs ont été priés d'exprimer leur opinion (*insuffisant, suffisant, assez bien, bien, excellent*) pour chaque sujet et chaque contrôle eu égard à la voix, aux expressions du visage, à la posture et à la présentation dans son ensemble. Sur 15 observateurs, 12 ont remis une fiche dûment remplie. Les résultats ont été très disparates, parfois même divergents: ceci s'explique probablement par le fait qu'il n'existe pas de critères précis concernant l'évaluation de la présentation, et que chaque observateur a exprimé un avis plus ou moins subjectif. L'analyse des fiches des observateurs s'attachait à constater si, au second contrôle, la situation s'était améliorée, si elle était restée inchangée ou si elle avait empiré. Les résultats de cette analyse sont résumés dans les tableaux ci-après:

6 Un modèle de fiche figure en appendice.

GROUPE “A”

	Sujet n° 1	Sujet n° 2	Sujet n° 3	Sujet n° 4	Sujet n° 5	Sujet n° 6
<u>VOIX</u>						
meilleure	6	10	11	10	5	8
même situation	6	2	1	2	7	4
pire	/	/	/	/	/	/
<u>EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE</u>						
meilleures	4	7	9	10	8	9
même situation	8	5	3	1	4	3
pires	/	/	/	1	/	/
<u>POSTURE</u>						
meilleure	7	5	7	8	7	12
même situation	5	6	4	4	5	/
pire	/	1	1	/	/	/
<u>PRÉSENTATION EN GÉNÉRAL</u>						
meilleure	6	8	9	10	7	11
même situation	6	4	3	1	5	1
pire	/	/	/	1	/	/

GROUPE “B”

	Sujet n° 1	Sujet n° 2	Sujet n° 3	Sujet n° 4	Sujet n° 5	Sujet n° 6
<u>VOIX</u>						
meilleure	2	3	2	6	2	1
même situation	5	8	9	6	9	9
pire	5	1	1	/	1	2
<u>EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE</u>						
meilleures	5	2	2	8	1	2
même situation	7	9	10	4	7	9
pires	/	1	/	/	4	1
<u>POSTURE</u>						
meilleure	7	/	/	7	4	1
même situation	5	10	10	5	5	11
pire	/	2	2	/	3	/
<u>PRÉSENTATION EN GÉNÉRAL</u>						
meilleure	5	1	3	8	2	1
même situation	6	11	7	4	9	11
pire	1	/	2	/	1	/

Un commentaire général permet de souligner que la plupart des observateurs ont observé des améliorations chez les sujets du groupe “A” (jusqu’à 11 observateurs sur 12 pour le sujet n° 6); les améliorations concernent surtout la

voix puis, dans l'ordre, les expressions du visage et la posture. Pour le groupe "B", au contraire, la plupart des observateurs n'ont pas remarqué de grands changements au second contrôle (jusqu'à 11 observateurs sur 12 pour les sujets n° 1 et n° 6). Il faut en outre souligner que le nombre d'observateurs pour lesquels la situation a empiré dans le second contrôle est plus élevé s'agissant du groupe "B" que du groupe "A" (ex.: EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE, groupe "A" maximum 1 observateur - sujet n° 4 -, groupe "B" maximum 4 observateurs - sujet n° 5).

3.8. Conclusions

Cette étude avait pour but de souligner l'importance de la présentation en interprétation consécutive et la validité d'une préparation spécifique de l'étudiant-interprète dans ce domaine.

Dans la partie théorique, nous avons analysé la littérature existant sur l'interprétation et constaté que les études et articles concernant la présentation sont peu nombreux. En revanche, de nombreux articles consacrés à l'enseignement de l'interprétation prennent en compte la présentation. Ces articles soulignent notamment qu'il est indispensable de consacrer à la présentation tout le temps nécessaire car elle constitue une habileté de base de l'interprète (Herbert 1952: 60). La présentation doit être soignée dès le début de la formation d'un interprète (Bowen 1984: 12): en effet, même si une bonne présentation ne peut jamais cacher un mauvais contenu, une mauvaise présentation peut parfois compromettre un bon contenu. Cette première partie théorique a également pris en considération les études visant à identifier les exigences des usagers. Dans tous les travaux analysés, nous avons toujours relevé des critères d'évaluation liés à la présentation: la voix, la posture, la discipline au micro. L'importance de la présentation est également prouvée par la quantité élevée d'Écoles CIUTI prévoyant des cours ou des initiatives régulières dans cette discipline (19 Écoles sur 24).

Dans la partie pratique de l'étude, nous avons analysé les retombées d'une série d'exercices spécifiques sur la présentation pour un groupe de 6 étudiants (groupe "A"). Ce groupe a été comparé à un autre groupe de 6 étudiants qui n'avait pas participé aux exercices (groupe "B"). Nous avons comparé les fiches du groupe "A" avant les exercices avec les fiches du même groupe après les exercices. Puis, nous avons comparé les fiches du groupe "B" (sans exercices) après le premier contrôle avec les fiches du même groupe après le second contrôle. Enfin, nous avons comparé la situation des deux groupes. Les résultats obtenus ont montré que les sujets du groupe "A" avaient éliminé ou atténué la plupart des éléments négatifs du premier contrôle (réduction en quantité ou amélioration selon l'élément pris en considération). Dans le groupe "B", au

contraire, la plupart des éléments négatifs perçus au premier contrôle ont été observés au second aussi, parfois sous une forme accentuée; le groupe "B" a également présenté une quantité assez importante d'éléments "nouveaux".

Ces résultats ont été confirmés par 12 observateurs, professeurs ou chercheurs d'interprétation, qui ont visionné les cassettes vidéo des deux contrôles et jugé les prestations des étudiants sur le plan de la présentation. Ils ont confirmé qu'en général, dans le groupe "A", il y avait eu une amélioration de tous les aspects de la présentation, tandis que dans le groupe "B" la situation n'avait pas changé ou avait même empiré par rapport au premier contrôle.

Pour la réalisation de cette étude, nous n'avons pas pris en compte tous les éléments de la présentation. Nous avons décidé de nous concentrer sur les éléments négatifs les plus fréquents chez les étudiants avant les exercices.

Certes, beaucoup d'autres éléments pourraient être ajoutés dans le cadre d'une étude plus approfondie de cette composante essentielle de l'acte interprétatif, mais nous ne prétendons pas ici à l'exhaustivité. Nous souhaitons que ce travail constitue le point de départ d'initiatives similaires qui permettraient de développer de façon autonome et précise cette habileté fondamentale de l'IC.

Appendice

1. Les deux fiches du sujet n. 6 du groupe "A"

FICHE D'ÉVALUATION DU PREMIER CONTRÔLE

VOIX:

- * éléments négatifs: - rythme de l'exposition peu homogène
- pauses remplies ("ehm", etc.) en quantité très élevée
- faux départs en quantité élevée
- lapsus

EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE:

- * éléments négatifs: - peu de contact avec le public

POSTURE:

- * éléments négatifs: - posture rigide et déséquilibrée
- gesticulation gauche
- il se gratte le visage avec des mouvements nerveux
- au début il remue toujours un pied
- position des jambes contractée
- il tourne le buste quand il regarde le public et il se balance de droite à gauche

ÉLÉMENTS NÉGATIFS GÉNÉRAUX NON CONTENUS DANS LA FICHE D'ÉVALUATION⁷:

- respiration insuffisante et thoracique
- bouche pâteuse

Questionnaire:

Réponses du sujet qui divergent des éléments identifiés dans la fiche d'évaluation:
11 sur 23

FICHE D'ÉVALUATION DU SECOND CONTRÔLE

VOIX:

- * éléments négatifs: - pauses remplies ("ehm", etc.)
- faux départs

EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE:

- * éléments négatifs: aucun

POSTURE:

- * éléments négatifs: aucun

ÉLÉMENTS NÉGATIFS GÉNÉRAUX NON CONTENUS DANS LA FICHE D'ÉVALUATION:

- respiration thoracique

Questionnaire:

Réponses du sujet qui divergent des éléments identifiés dans la fiche d'évaluation:
2 sur 23

2. La fiche distribuée aux observateurs

SUJET N°

VOIX (ex.: vitesse, intonation, volume, tremblement, pauses remplies, soupirs, faux départs)

Premier contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

Second contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

EXPRESSIONS DU VISAGE (ex.: grimaces ou expressions non liées à l'exposé, contact avec le public, humidification ou mordillement fréquents des lèvres)

Premier contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

Second contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

POSTURE (ex.: gesticulation, tremblement des mains, tripoter des objets, se tripoter les cheveux, position des jambes et des pieds, oscillations du corps)

Premier contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

Second contrôle: insuffisant suffisant assez bien bien excellent

⁷ Il s'agit d'éléments négatifs qui ne figurent pas dans la fiche mais que l'expert a identifiés pendant les contrôles.

Jugement général de la présentation:					
<u>Premier contrôle:</u>	insuffisant	suffisant	assez bien	bien	excellent
<u>Second contrôle:</u>	insuffisant	suffisant	assez bien	bien	excellent

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TEXTUAL ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETING RESEARCH

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In this paper a research model is proposed for simultaneous interpreting (SI) based on textual analysis, able to shed light on the nature of the texts for which SI is required and on interpreters' behaviour in the rendering of such texts, thereby contributing to a better understanding of simultaneous interpreting both as a text-processing task and a translation activity. The use of such a model may also help develop useful tools for the training of interpreters.

In the first part of the paper, the model is presented in general terms, while in the second part the focus is on a single text (hyper)genre, i.e. on scientific papers presented at international conferences. Although discussion will be restricted to simultaneous interpreting, I am convinced that the model proposed is, with minor adjustments, suited to research on conference interpreting in general, including consecutive interpreting.

1. Textual analysis in the literature on SI research

In its relatively short life, research on interpreting has dealt with a number of issues and problems, focussing mainly on the operations performed by the interpreter in her/his work and looking at them from different viewpoints: information processing, translational action, memorisation, note-taking (in connection with consecutive interpreting), cerebral lateralization, psychomotor and neuronal activity in the interpreting exercise, cross-cultural transference and the quality of the final 'product'. Far less attention has been devoted to texts involved in interpreting activity, and in particular to the source text (ST). This situation prevails in spite of the fact that in the 'neighbouring' field of translation studies, ST analysis and typology have attracted substantial attention in an attempt to use these texts as a basis for the development of workable tools for the translator (e.g. Trosborg 1997, Nord 1991)¹. In this context, one may wonder why in SI research so little interest has so far been shown in textual analysis despite experts' claims that "... a theory of interpreting will necessarily depend heavily on the theories and techniques of

1 Trosborg's and Nord's are the two best known works specifically devoted respectively to text typology and text analysis in translation. Of course, if one considers chapters or sections that deal with text typology and text analysis in general works on translation the bibliographical entries are more numerous (e.g. Bell 1991: 202-206; Hatim and Mason 1990: 138-164).

descriptive and comparative linguistics ... opening up whole new areas of comparative text linguistics” (Dodds 1989: 17).

The reason is probably simpler and more empirical than one might think. In simultaneous translation, text processing is a rigorously linear operation, in which discourse segments are elaborated in succession, one after the other, without the text ever becoming a ‘complete object’ to the eyes of the interpreter. When you look at a written text, its transphrastic dimension appears at once. Even the most superficial perusal will immediately show that ‘connectedness’ is created not only by syntagmatic relationships between words and phrases within the syntactic chain, but also by ‘vertical’ or ‘transverse’ links - sometimes even ‘materially visible’ across the page - between distant elements in the text that are separated by more than one sentence or even by pages of textual material. These links can be perceived thanks to the stability of the written text as an object of enquiry. An oral text, on the other hand, can exist as a tangible object only in a recorded form or in transcription (but these ‘second-hand’ formats are not relevant to interpreting), and is not therefore a ‘philological object’, given its exceeding volatility: in physical terms it exists only in the form of one single language sound being produced by the speaker at one given instant; the rest of its existence relies on the participants’ memorial synthesis.

It is no surprise then that textual analysis has not appeared to be an obvious instrument for application to SI research. The few proposals found in the literature are in most cases accounts of a linguistic theory or part of one, with the suggestion of possible usefulness in interpreting research (e.g., see Bühler 1989 on *Textlinguistik*; Gallina 1992 on systemic functional theories, Alexieva 1992 on text typology; Falbo 1997 on FSP; and Riccardi 1997 on Italian as a “conference language”). A more recent contribution has been made by Setton (1999), who nevertheless sees discourse analysis only as one element in a complex model characterised by an essentially cognitive orientation. Snelling (1992) is also essentially text-based but the approach adopted is more practical, being centred on case-studies and offering ‘a guide to target-text formulation’ addressed to interpreters translating into a non-native language; besides, analysis tends to be effected mainly at the (sentential and inter-sentential) syntax level in an essentially contrastive perspective.²

The model I set out to illustrate in this paper makes more specific reference to a set of linguistic instruments of investigation and takes as its starting point the analysis of texts above sentence level, without however ignoring the lower levels, which are examined proceeding in a top-down direction. In this

2 Snelling (1992: 6) considers ‘the formula of interpreting training with *language pairs*’ inadequate and suggests instead that one should think ‘in terms of *language families*’ (the author concentrates on interpreting from Romance languages into English).

framework, the term ‘*textual analysis*’ is preferred to ‘*text analysis*’, which evokes specifically *Textlinguistik* as a consolidated line of thought within the general picture of theoretical approaches focussing on texts, and also to *discourse analysis*, which is only occasionally used in this paper to mean ‘analysis focussing on discourse as a set of mutually relevant texts’ (with text being defined as ‘*a natural language occurrence in a communicative setting*’; de Beaugrande 1985: 47), which is the meaning unconditionally attributed to it in the American tradition, while in Europe *discourse analysis* tends to be more specifically associated with the analysis of oral linguistic interaction and/or conversation analysis, an area of research that is of purely marginal interest for conference interpreting (although it is highly relevant to other modes of interpreting, i.e. *liaison* interpreting, community interpreting, court interpreting etc.).

In this framework, the most purposive proposal to date for the adoption of a text-analytic approach in SI research has come from Hatim and Mason (1997: 36-77)³ who highly recommend the application of text linguistic categories to interpretation research and training. Yet, from their analysis it emerges that the effectiveness of such an approach is to some extent limited by the fact that in each of the interpreting modes they consider (simultaneous, consecutive and *liaison*) there are “particular strands of textuality [that] remain inaccessible for the interpreter” (1997: 42). In particular, in their view, in SI the strand of textuality that has prominence, being actually available and therefore worth working upon with text linguistic instruments, is *texture*. More specifically, according to the two authors, as regards *context* and *text structure* the simultaneous interpreter

has to settle for a partial view of both ... and has therefore to rely more heavily on the emerging texture in order to make and maintain sense ... because in this mode of interpreting, reception and production of text take place at more or less the same time (Hatim-Mason 1997: 41-42).

Thus, the interpreter has no alternative but to work exclusively at a ‘local’ level, guided by texture signals, and is denied all opportunity for adequate top-down processing because of the constraints of immediacy of response. The focussing on a succession of short text segments, with a small portion of text in active storage at any given time, prevents her/him from ‘seeing’ the context and appreciating the structure of the text.

³ The two authors have devoted two chapters of their 1997 volume *The Translator as Communicator* to interpreting, Ch. 3: ‘Interpreting: a text linguistic approach’; and Ch. 4: ‘Texture in simultaneous interpreting’.

This hypothesis is to a certain extent viable, but applies only to situations where the interpreter is not informed in advance about the topic of the conference or the lecture s/he has to translate, or is not familiar with the linguistic habits of the speech community involved.

Fortunately this is not usually the case: in most working situations, interpreters can rely on previous knowledge, which represents a crucial advantage for reasons that are not only intuitively understandable, at least in very general terms, but can also be explained scientifically.

2. Factors involved in discourse comprehension

Modern discourse comprehension theories have highlighted that, in the understanding of a text, linguistic decoding is not the whole story. Understanding requires the activation of the correct *frames* or *scripts* (Shank - Abelson 1977), which are necessarily based on the comprehender's previous experience. This is because text comprehension is an integrative process, i.e. component ideas from individual sentences are not simply juxtaposed, but integrated by comprehenders, and a constructive process, i.e. "in creating a mental representation of the content of a text, information that is explicit in the text (almost always) has to be combined with relevant knowledge about the world" (Garnham - Oakhill 1996: 315-316). As Seleskovitch (1975: 143) stated over two decades ago with specific reference to SI: "*Assimiler un sens, c'est intégrer un message dans une connaissance et une expérience préalables*".

In this perspective, although comprehenders do also elaborate text representations at lower levels of abstraction (textbase level, *verbatim* level),⁴ by default the process is ultimately aimed at the production of mental representations that "capture the real world situations conveyed by language" (Gernsbacher 1996: 296), whether they be called *situational models* (Kintsch - van Dijk 1983: 11-12) or *mental models*, i.e. *models* going "beyond the literal meaning of the discourse because [they embody] inferences, instantiations, and references" (Johnson-Laird 1983: 245).

With regard to SI, it is true that the approach usually taken is more 'local', with reception and reproduction being effected mainly at the *verbatim* or

4 The categories and terminology used here are derived from the model presented in Kintsch-van Dijk 1983 where the comprehender is seen as allocating his/her limited resources to the construction of one or more of three different levels of representation: *verbatim representation*, based directly on the surface structure of the text, the *textbase representation*, based on concepts and meanings of the text and containing both a macrostructure (the main ideas of the text) and a microstructure, and the *situational model* which combines prior knowledge and text information in a synthetic and mainly conceptual representation of the text.

textbase level, and often the final aim of a complete mental representation of the text is not fully attained. It is also true, however, that in order to reconstruct meaning and follow the development of discourse, recourse has to be made to inferences as well as to background knowledge, as the interpreter moving forward in her/his translating task incrementally tries to construct a mental model of the text. S/he can only do this by relying on extra-textual (and, as we shall see, often intertextual) knowledge and on anticipation based on previously acquired contextual and discorsal knowledge. As Setton (1999: 191) shows on the basis of corpus study,

[simultaneous interpreters] use deduction and inference from combined text and non-text information, including the logical structure of long segments of the discourse. The additional extratextual sources provide them with a basis for making temporary approximations and generalisations about these entities, properties and relations while the sentences in which they occur are still incomplete.

This also explains the fact that sometimes interpreters also produce 'informed' paraphrases or provide more details or more information than the Speaker her/himself.

It can therefore be stated that, in spite of the constitutive properties of SI (and in particular its 'simultaneity'), in the long term a strategy relying merely on texture (i.e. on coherence and cohesion mainly at a local level) may not be the best option in terms of efficiency. Obligated as s/he is to exploit any and all possible clues to reconstruct overall meaning and produce a congruous translated text, the interpreter will rely partially on memorial synthesis "incorporating incrementally information that is explicit in the current clause into the model of the text constructed to that point" (Garnham - Oakhill 1996: 320) and partially on anticipation and prediction. Her/his efficiency in this endeavour will depend to a large extent on her/his textual and discorsal competence of the type of communicative events s/he is called upon to interpret. Chernov speaks of "probability prediction model" and regards "the probability prediction of the verbal and semantic structure of the oral message in progress as the most essential psycholinguistic factor explaining the phenomenon of simultaneity in simultaneous interpretation" (Chernov 1994: 140).

A close look at the role of anticipation in interpreting shows that it acts at different levels:

- 1) in the basic process of decoding, which means at the level of the phonemic recognition of words as well as the lexico-grammar and syntax level: words are identified even before they have been pronounced completely, syntactic patterns are anticipated and recognised holistically, with clear expectations about lexis on the basis of collocations;

- 2) at the level of the discourse plan; even when operating essentially at a 'local' level, it is inevitable that the interpreter should nevertheless maintain a certain 'macro' or long-range representation of the developing discursive structure (Setton 1999: 189); at this level anticipation can be based on a 'logical' process or rely purely on discursual expectations;
- 3) at the extra-linguistic level, counting on encyclopaedic knowledge and other resources.

Anticipation at level 1 is constantly operational in language processing in ordinary life, so it will be constantly active in SI even when the interpreter is producing his/her oral translation on a *verbatim* basis (as happens for certain stretches of a text even in the best possible conditions). It is the interpreter's ability to resort to anticipation at levels 2 and 3, however, that will improve his/her performance, enabling him/her to work at the textbase or discourse plan level (rather than locally on a *verbatim* basis), thereby helping him/her achieve an adequate detachment from the syntactic structuring of the original and enhancing his/her ability to cope with various kinds of interpreting problems.

3. A textual-analysis based model for SI research

It is now possible to return to Hatim and Mason's argument and state that there are reasons to believe that textual analysis can be useful for the simultaneous interpreter not only at the level of texture, as they argue, but also as regards context and, above all, discourse structure. No doubt, work on texts, and in particular "on [the] semantic relations between individual messages" contained in a text (i.e. on the different parts of the message) and on "the lexicogrammatical patterns that realise them" (Halliday-Hasan 1989: 71-72) can be highly beneficial for the simultaneous interpreter, helping her/him develop an awareness of text texture and equipping him/her with the tools necessary to detect the various elements of cohesion, theme-rheme progression, information structure etc., which are essential for a coherent reconstruction of discourse meaning and its reproduction in the TL.

This assertion relies partly on the assumption that the texts interpreters are called upon to translate, though not systematically homogeneous on account of the great variety of situations and topics included under the *conference* label (from scientific conferences to political meetings, from debates in international institutions to celebratory and ceremonial events), nevertheless do present certain similarities and invariants at different levels so that working on them with instruments developed within the domains of text linguistics, genre analysis, discourse analysis etc. may help create a valuable textual and discursual competence.

3.1. Conference papers as a (hyper)genre

I shall now examine these similarities and invariants, first looking at the problem in socio-linguistic terms. From this point of view, it can hardly be denied that, although diverse in many respects, events at which simultaneous interpreters work, whether they be one-shot lectures or papers embedded in larger occasions (e.g. in sessions of international conferences) and thus part of a *hypertext* (to quote Pöchhacker 1995), are to some extent homogeneous in communicative terms. This is confirmed even by a very general look at the semiotic configuration of the 'conference paper' as a speech event. The element most obviously shared by the vast majority of conference events is the participation framework (Dressler 1994). With few exceptions, these events are platform monologues, where the speaker holding the floor addresses a relatively large set of listeners who can be described as audience members rather than co-conversationalists (Goffman 1981: 138). Consequently, there are similarities also in the tenor of discourse. From the moment the speaker takes the floor and starts delivering her/his lecture s/he is accorded a certain degree of authoritativeness by the audience: "By virtue of reputation or office, s/he is assumed to have knowledge and experience in textual matters, and of this considerably more than that possessed by the audience" (Goffman 1981: 167). In this situation, the interpreter is in a somewhat 'displaced' position, being an invisible and purely 'tangential' ratified participant, who however is, in actual fact, the real addressee of the lecture as delivered by the delegate (although, as Alexieva suggests, "the Speaker cannot be expected to take into account the simultaneous interpreter's knowledge of the conference paper, that is usually less than that of the ... conference participants"; 1999: 45) and the ultimate sender of the message received by the audience.

As for the mode of discourse, while oral delivery is a constitutive property of lectures, their production format is by no means constant. Some conference papers are spoken-spontaneous, thereby qualifying as *fresh talk* although, most of the time, the oral text is formulated by the speaker on the basis of notes; others are memorised and recited. But in most cases, they are written to be read aloud, sometimes with additions and digressions (Crystal-Davy 1969; Nencioni 1983). Of course, *fresh talk* is the prototype that every consummate speaker tries to approximate, at least in terms of the illusion of extemporaneousness, which is obtained by means of a number of stratagems, above all suitable prosodic shaping and other paralinguistic devices (e.g. gesture, emphasis etc.) as well as text-parenthetical remarks aimed not only at underlining relevance to the actual situation in which the lecture is being delivered, but - more often than not - also at giving the impression of "convey(ing) qualifying thoughts that the speaker appears to have arrived at just at the very moment" (Goffman 1981: 177; 181),

thus bridging the gap between the 'prepared' (written) text and the actual situation in which the text 'comes to life' in its oral mode .

3.2. The conference paper as 'spoken prose'

In spite of these (minor) variations in the mode of discourse, someone writing a text for oral delivery will use a style that Mounin (1975: 192) calls 'scriptural oral' and Goffman describes as 'spoken prose' (1981: 190), which is different from natural conversation as it is from written prose. In actual fact, the process of drawing up a written-to-be-published text has been described by the Italian scholar Nencioni as "making linguistic expression autonomous from paralinguistic and situational values and from the limits of memorial synthesis, thus releasing it from time and space and conferring upon it cultural and social transcendence, an objective and lasting solidity" (Nencioni 1983: 134; my translation). In contrast, preparing a draft or notes for a lecture requires radically different criteria, in that the text, although jotted out or planned beforehand, will only come into existence at the time of delivery in a well-defined socio-communicative context in which the text itself is deeply embedded.

More specifically, comparison of spoken prose with written-to-be-published papers shows that its most characteristic features are the frequent use of 'procedural' vocabulary and meta-discoursal commentary aimed at signalling to the audience what the Speaker is doing in every section of the speech, the occasional recourse to short and 'summative' sections that schematically recapitulate information and argumentation put forth to that point, with the purpose of helping the audience follow the development of the Speaker's reasoning by making up for moments of inattention or distraction on their part; recourse to rhetorical procedures aimed at keeping the listeners' attention alive and enabling them to follow the course of reasoning with ease, by resorting, for example, to various 'fronting' procedures aimed at highlighting specific elements in the sentence, obviously in addition to prosodic and gestural emphasis which can be used to give prominence to a whole statement (often, the topic sentence in a longer 'text unit', which in a written text would correspond to a paragraph). Incidentally, it is to be hoped that the rhetorical characteristics of conference papers will soon become the object of serious and systematic research.

The overwhelming majority of conference speeches tend to begin and end with parenthetic 'ritual' phases that are rarely omitted in any situation in which someone speaks in public in a formal context (with the exception of a few cases in which the speaker chooses to proceed differently in order to create a situation of 'markedness'). Lectures start and finish with 'bracketing phases' each of which has the function of 'linking' the speech to the immediate situation, of

connecting the speech as a microtext with the conference as a 'hypertext'. In particular, the introduction represents a transitional stage when for the speaker a shift in footing takes place from ordinary member of the audience to lecturer before s/he starts projecting his/her textual self (as opposed to her/his 'ordinary' self); in some cases the presentation is opened with greetings and thanks and some general statements about the event, venue, organisation, etc., in all of which there is an obvious prevalence of a phatic function, the 'polite' remarks being aimed at creating what Malinowski called 'phatic communion' with the audience. From the viewpoint of discourse development, the introduction is usually aimed at putting the content of the paper into perspective. Closing statements have an exactly symmetrical function: they help bring the speaker back to her/his ordinary status as audience member, while winding up the discussion.

4. Genre analysis in interpreting research: the 'scientific' paper

If, on the basis of what has been said so far, one looks at the problem in the light of the definition of *genre* given by Swales (1990) as "a recognisable communicative event characterised by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs", one can conclude that in very broad terms conference papers can be deemed to belong to a single textual genre or, better still, 'hyper-genre', which stands as a superordinate to genres and sub-genres. This awareness can be of great help if used as a basis for reflection and research. By the same token, the usefulness of this approach will be enhanced if research is conducted on a more articulate basis, i.e. looking at one single genre or, rather, sub-genre or genrelet at a time, thereby restricting analysis to a more homogenous group of events and to a limited range of disciplines and topics.

Attention will therefore now be turned specifically to scientific papers presented at international conferences because, however broad this category may be, in the field of science genres have been shown to be more heavily codified and subject to consolidated textual conventions and practices than in other sectors of activity.

It is now generally accepted that in texts produced within the framework of scientific research there is considerable uniformity in the use of generic resources, each genre offering a 'template' with ready-made solutions that are highly functional to the communicative purposes of the discourse community involved and that cater for the rhetorical needs determined by the epistemological approach adopted: there is a close relationship between scientific communication and the state of the art of each discipline at the time of

text production. Scientific communication and the text genres on which it relies are intimately connected with the prevailing scientific paradigm (Kuhn 1970) and rest on a commonality of values and perspectives within the scientific community that generates and uses them: in scientific research the performance of co-operative activities is made possible by linguistic communication which, in turn, in order to be successful, requires that the persons involved “share much, not just the meaning of words and the syntactical operations but how those generalised words apply in this situation and how they are to be realised in action”, as C. Bazerman has pointed out (1988: 302-303) drawing on the model of the role of language in human activity put forward by Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky and his school of cognitive psychology. Berkenkotter and Huckin call this ‘*Community ownership*’: within its framework genre conventions “signal a discourse community’s norms, epistemology, ideology, and social ontology” (Berkenkotter - Huckin 1995: 4).

It can therefore be argued that at any given time in history, the texts produced within the prevailing scientific paradigm, do present a high degree of uniformity in the general articulation of discourse, being part of the same ‘semiotic-behavioural-perceptive’ system (Bazerman 1988: 307), intimately connected with the modalities of linguistic communication. This applies both to lexico-grammatical choices and to the semiotic and rhetorical configuration and therefore to the organization of the semantic and pragmatic components of the text.

Thus, if one restricts the object of analysis from conference papers in general to those produced within the framework of the observational and experimental sciences, and even more specifically if attention is confined to a single disciplinary sector (e.g. medicine, or molecular biology, or microelectronics, etc.), texts will exhibit an ever more substantial number of invariant elements and features in their rhetoric organization as well as in their use of language.

As early as two decades ago Teun van Dijk (1980: 108 ff.), dealing with ‘fixed conventional schemata’ for global discourse content in ‘experimental research scholarly papers’, identified two invariant steps,

an *Introduction* specifying a certain problem and its background (e.g., treatment by others, followed by theoretical development of a new idea or the refutation of other proposals, a theory that may be backed up by concrete analyses, descriptions, or experiments). After that the *Conclusion* follows” (van Dijk 1980: 119-120).

Building on this basic suggestion, different authors (Hutchins 1977; Trimble 1985; Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993) have concentrated on different sub-genres of the scientific paper, pertaining to restricted disciplinary sectors, and have produced descriptions of the macro-propositions included in its conventional

schemata. For instance, Swales (1990: 30) has identified the following structure in research article introductions (which he denominates *Research Space Model for Article Introductions - RSMIAI*): 1. *Establishing field*; 2. *Summarising previous research*; 3. *Preparing for present research*; 4. *Introducing present research*. With *ad hoc* adjustments this model can be extended to the entire research article, in all of its parts, as has been done by among others Evangelisti Allori (1996) for the psychology paper and Garzone (1999) for the research paper in the field of economics, the latter yielding the following schema: 1. Introduction: a) *definition of the object for research*; b) *Summarising previous research*; c) *Presenting present research*; 2. Developing the central argument: a) *presenting arguments or the model adopted*; b) *demonstration, by using mathematical or statistical procedures*; c) *their application to the problem under discussion*; 3. Conclusion: a) *conclusive statements with a summary of the arguments put forward*; b) *indications for further work and new lines of research*.

Although these results derive from research focussing on published papers, it can be assumed that in terms of macrostructures researchers will also continue to apply the same 'organisation of points of view' when drafting conference papers; of course, in this case there will be awareness that the text being sketched will have to be delivered orally. The result will, therefore, normally be a text qualifying for the denomination of 'spoken prose' (see 3.2. above), i.e. exhibiting at least in part the rhetorical strategies that are typical of lectures and/or public speaking in general. As for the 'ritual phases', sometimes they will not figure in the written draft drawn up before the conference and so at the time of the 'reading' of the paper the author will improvise 'bracketing' and 'bridging' statements aimed at setting his speech more appropriately in the contingent communicative situation, while in other cases these statements will be already present in the outline and therefore will be read as they are, or integrated with 'situational references' to make the speech more 'topical'.

If, then, one considers SI, although this may not be immediately evident in consideration of the 'local' dimension typical of this activity, the contribution that textual analysis can make to an interpreter's competence with regard to the discursal and rhetorical organization of papers (Hatim and Mason's 'structure') is really meaningful and should not be overlooked. In particular, also in the light of what has already been said concerning the cognitive mechanisms involved in text comprehension, the awareness of the *generic (macro)structure potential* (Halliday and Hasan 1989: 63ff.) of specific genres within the hypergenre of conference papers can be especially useful, increasing what Chernov (1994) calls 'subjective redundancy'; in other words, generic and textual competence at the macrostructure level can improve an interpreter's ability to anticipate, enabling her/him more clearly to 'see' the discourse plan as the Speaker

proceeds in text delivery and enhance her/his skill in coping with textual features that are typical of a given text genre and typology. In this way, the interpreter finds her/himself in a position that enables her/him to adopt, at least in part of his/her performance, a *top-down* approach rather than working exclusively at the level of local structures. As de Beaugrande (1985: 53-54) makes clear talking about language processing in general: “For best efficiency, a processor might strive to work on the deepest feasible level. Having understood the conceptual content, for instance, might enable a *bypassing of thorough analysis of phrasing*” (my italics). Chernov (1994: 140) applies a similar concept to SI as follows: “The interpreter forms a general outline of a probability prognosis of the meaning and sense structure of the forthcoming message, supported by some knowledge of other factors of the situational context. Such a prognosis may be called top-to-bottom prognosis”. Technically, s/he will be able to work on the basis of longer processing units, avoiding a fragmentary approach based on ‘atomistic’ lexical segmentation and remaining suitably detached from source-text syntax. Furthermore, whenever the interpreter manages to adopt a top-down approach, s/he frees precious resources in terms of processing capacity which can thus be redirected to tackling other problematic aspects of SI, enabling him/her to enact suitable strategies or ‘coping tactics’ in the translation process (Gile 1995: 169ff; 191ff.).

It can therefore be stated that the application of discourse analysis at the macrostructural level, i.e. at the level of discourse plan, in SI research can lead to an improved understanding of the different kinds of events at which interpreters work and the types of texts involved, thus shedding light on their behaviour as a function of the specific characteristics of the different text typologies. An enhanced discursual competence can offer interpreters elements correctly to evaluate the context and the semiotic configuration of the communicative events in which they are called upon to participate. This is absolutely essential if they are to be able to anticipate text content, its rhetorical organisation and structure, and thereby adopt a top-down strategy, avoiding sticking to a purely ‘local’ approach to translation.

4.1. Lower-levels of textual analysis

However, this is not tantamount to suggesting that the more traditional instruments of linguistic analysis that take the sentence as their basic unit are superfluous and therefore have to be cast aside. Indeed, for the best results, a macrostructural approach should be combined with a comparable competence at the lower linguistic levels, which means not only the ability to use language correctly (an ability which has been traditionally considered a pre-requisite in SI), but also, and above all, an awareness of the linguistic preferences of a given

speech community in terms of lexico-grammatical and stylistic choices. This is one of the reasons why, in this paper, preference has been given to the expression *textual analysis* rather than *text analysis*, *discourse analysis* or *text linguistics*.

It is a recognised fact that, also at the interphrastic and intraphrastic level, conference papers do exhibit certain invariants distinguishing them from other types of text. This again is true for all forms of lectures and speeches delivered in public, where a number of linguistic forms will recur: at the word level, with the so-called '*Terminologie de conférence*', and at sentence level, with what Ilg (1994) describes as "*un stock common de tours et de figures*". Also 'ritual formulas' will be recurrent, especially in 'bracketing' sections. Thorough acquaintance with this verbal apparatus and a good knowledge of the corresponding forms across her/his working languages represent for an interpreter, in Ilg's words, the basic '*outillage linguistique*' with which s/he should be equipped.

As regards scientific papers in particular, in relatively recent times substantial attention has been devoted to the syntactic aspects of scientific language, highlighting the fact that, although no special rules are applied in LSP texts, preference tends nevertheless to be given to certain constructions which recur with an abnormal frequency if compared to 'ordinary' language, a tendency that Halliday (1990: 58) describes as "a typical syndrome of grammatical features". The most notable example is certainly nominalization, in which "the processes are reconstrued as nouns, as if they were entities, and at the same time the logical-semantic relations are reconstrued as verbs" (Halliday 1997: 30ff), a phenomenon interpreted by Halliday as a form of 'grammatical metaphor'. This obviously results in a dramatic increase in lexical density, a characteristic which has been shown to be problematic in SI. It goes without saying that these textual features, if unforeseen, can pose insurmountable problems for simultaneous translation since, although nominalization is a phenomenon that occurs in many languages (certainly in Italian, French, German, Spanish and Russian), its frequency and the actual forms it takes differ from language to language. One critical element in translation from English is that, as Halliday points out (1997: 36), with the shift to a nominal mode "one tends to gain in discursive power; but by the same token one tends to lose most of the ideational-semantic information, because all that the nominal group provides is a long string of modifying words". It is absolutely essential, therefore, that the interpreter pay attention to this problem and work on texts so that s/he can prepare adequate language-specific strategies to cope with it. See the following example from a paper given at a Conference on Joint Replacement, where the noun phrase is made up of a sequence of as many as ten

elements:⁵ “A review of 91 *proximal one-third circumferentially porous-coated cobalt-chrome femoral components* at a mean follow-up of 8.6 years showed a HHS of 93.4” (my italics).

The frequent recourse to nominalization is functional to discourse development in that the packaging of processes into nominal groups seconds discourse development and “makes it possible for large chunks of information to take on critical values in the flow of discourse either as Theme or as culminative New-Rheme” (Halliday 1997: 32). Recent research suggests that the attention to thematic elements is fundamental in relation to the performance of interpreters in that it is essential for them to be able to “follow the path indicated by thematic material in the source text” (Taylor-Torsello 1996: 137-138). At the same time other authors, such as Chernov (1994: 147), have emphasised the importance of attention to the Rheme-Comment part of the sentence, in which the Speaker tends to place the information that s/he considers to be a New contribution that will lead to progress being made in the development of her/his argument: missing the rhematic portion of a sentence is equivalent to missing the main point made in that sentence. However contradictory these two positions may seem, they contribute to highlighting just how essential it is that an interpreter should be acquainted with the mechanisms governing the thematic structure and the information structure of a text. Something similar can be said as regards cohesive devices and the language specific problems of sentence organisation.

Undoubtedly, the most characteristic linguistic feature of specialised papers is lexicon, which has been the object of considerable interest in the literature. Familiarisation with relevant vocabulary has always been the main object of the routine documentation effort that all interpreters perform before a conference: their job would be impossible without a knowledge of the most important terms occurring in a given field and the availability of relevant terminological documentation to be consulted in the booth. The typical aspiration to precision of LSPs, which means using terms rigorously and univocally within each single domain, leaves little scope for recourse to synonyms and even less scope for the use of paraphrases. This is why terminological competence has always been considered an essential part of the interpreter's armoury of skills, as has an awareness of the main mechanisms of word formation which can enable her/him to cope with any new terms s/he might come across for the first time in SI.

5 B.E. Bierbaum, ‘Hydroxyapatite: *Hype or Help*’, Conference: *Current Concepts in Joint Replacement*, Session II ‘Primary Femoreal Fixation Options in the 1990’s’, Orlando Fla. Thurs. 12 December 1996.

4.2. A research project based on the textual-analysis model

On the basis of this theoretical framework, a project has been initiated at SSLiMIT, University of Bologna at Forlì, entitled “Il testo nel processo di interpretazione simultanea e consecutiva: strumenti di analisi e applicazioni didattiche” (“Text in the Simultaneous and Consecutive Interpretation Process: Tools of Analysis and Applications to Interpreting Training”)⁶, which is organised along different research lines:

- collection of a corpus of conference papers (currently, with special regard to scientific papers);
- analysis of such texts from the point of view of their macrostructure, followed by a more detailed linguistic analysis carried out using the instruments of text linguistics, genre analysis and functional-systemic grammar;
- description of features that are typical of spoken prose in relation to the different text genres, sub-genres and disciplinary fields;
- analysis of ‘background papers’ and, more in general, drafts drawn up in advance by speakers as a basis for lecture delivery and comparison with the actual oral text produced in the course of the lecture in order to highlight the addition of ‘bracketing’ sections, digressions, metatextual or procedural commentary etc.
- analysis of interpreters’ performances focussing in particular on their behaviour in connection with textual features that have been recognised as being recurrent and worthy of attention in a given text sub-genre or typology.

5. Final observations

In its basic theoretical orientation the model for SI research put forth in this paper proposes the application of essentially linguistic tools. This might seem to be somehow in contrast with the diffidence towards linguistic approaches that has dominated the field of translation and interpreting studies following the conclusion of, and the subsequent reaction to, the ‘linguistic wave’ of the 1970s. In the meantime, however, a radical development has taken place in the meaning assigned to the expression ‘linguistic tools’: in linguistic research, the last three decades have witnessed a shift in theory and method from a logical to an operational outlook and from an interest in *langue* to one in *parole*, i.e. in language as an actualised system. The established descriptive-structural

⁶ In the project, which I am coordinating, three other colleagues are involved – Maurizio Viezzi, Gabriele Mack and Peter Mead.

methods, which, after Saussure, had been at the core of analysis, have been extended beyond the boundaries of the sentence: thus, as de Beaugrande makes clear (1985: 47), “empirically at least, the sentence ... [has now] the status of a subevent: a format for placing words and expressions inside a sequence belonging to a larger linear action”.

All too often in interpreting studies it has been taken for granted that the acquisition of textual competence could be simply an intuitional process, relying on mere exposure to texts which was thought to be the only way of enhancing awareness of their inherent peculiarities: when applied to interpreters’ training this meant relying exclusively on habit-forming practice. In this context, research has tended to concentrate on other aspects, such as comprehension and language processing, error analysis, quality of output, neurolinguistic aspects, cerebral lateralization, memory etc.

But from the point of view of investigation into and comprehension of SI as a linguistic and communicative activity, it is illusory to think that the process of text construction can be ignored or simply taken for granted. Neither can it be denied that linguistic/textual considerations are also paramount when one deals with the problem of quality of performance. As Pearl observes (1999), today from the translational point of view expectations concerning SI are no smaller than those about written translation. There is no reason therefore, either in reasearch or training, to avoid working on textual aspects for the sole reason that the SI process is so fast that on the one hand a complex discorsal approach may seem somehow aiming too high and on the other hand minute observations on linguistic and translational aspects appear to border on perfectionism: both efforts are realistic and recommendable.

If all this is related to interpreter training, the logical consequence of these considerations is that mere reliance on exposure to texts and on practice in the booth, however intensive, aimed at habit formation, need to be integrated by work on texts and theoretical reflection which will help (trainee) interpreters build the necessary discorsal competence on a cognitive basis. This will also provide them with a ‘blueprint’ for the work of preparation/documentation they will have to perform routinely in their professional life, which cannot be based merely on terminology.

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CONTROL OF PAUSES BY TRAINEE INTERPRETERS IN THEIR A AND B LANGUAGES

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They spell it Vinci and pronounce it Vinchy;
foreigners always spell better than they pronounce

Mark Twain

1. Introduction

This study examines pauses, as an index of fluency, in consecutive interpretations into Italian and English. The analysis focuses on target speeches by fifteen final year interpreting students, all Italian native speakers. A basis is thus provided for comparison of performance in the A and B languages, a subject which has prompted scholarly discussion but little systematic research (Dejean Le Féal 1998).

In written translation, Stewart's (1999) counterblast to those who state that the translator should work only into his or her native language calls for greater recognition of "inverse" translation and the need to train translators accordingly. Stewart observes that, despite the familiarity of the debate regarding directionality in translation, translation scholars offer little systematic, reasoned discussion of the matter.

Perennial, sometimes unconstructive argument about the acceptability of translating into a foreign language is not the prerogative of those concerned with written translation. In conference interpreting, the "querelle du A et du B" (Seleskovitch & Lederer 1989: 134) was highlighted by Denissenko's (1989) paper on interpreter training in Moscow and the ensuing discussion with a number of western scholars (Gran & Dodds 1989: 199-200). While the amenability of scholars like Denissenko to an active B language may be interpreted as a reflection of practical constraints specific to certain countries and language combinations (*ibid.*), it can equally be argued that the opposing view is based on traditional orthodoxy rather than firm evidence.

The demarcation line between opposing attitudes to an active B language does not depend only on divergences of opinion among different schools. There can also be differences between the practice in international organisations and on the private market – for example, the European Parliament generally favours three passive languages and active use of the mother tongue (<http://www.europarl.eu.int/interp/public>), whereas the mainstay of professional

practice for members of major associations operating on the private market is often “aller-retour” between A and B languages.

Given the increasing recognition by scholars in western Europe that the traditional opposition to an active B language hardly reflects the current needs of the market (Gran and Snelling 1998), the “querelle du A et du B” is more than ever a topic of potential interest for research. Against this background, the present study is part of an ongoing doctoral project at the Université Lumière-Lyon 2, France. The focus of the project is the interpreter’s control of pauses, as a factor in fluency, at different stages of training and professional experience. Ultimately, this research will provide a small – but empirically based – contribution to both the “querelle du A et du B” and discussion of interpreter training.

2. Fluency

Fluent speech or public speaking ability has been identified as a mark of aptitude for conference interpreting (Gile 1995: 172; <http://www.aiic.net/en/tips:10>) and a criterion by which the interpreter’s output can be evaluated (Gile 1995: 162; Jones 1998: 40). Indeed, Altman (1994: 36) states that “fluency [...] is the one single aspect of an interpretation which most palpably distinguishes a professional performance from that of a trainee”.

Surveys among interpreters and conference participants confirm the importance of fluency as a determinant of quality in interpreting (Bühler 1986; Kurz 1993). However, references in the literature do not go into detail about how fluent speech can actually be defined and developed. For example, Seleskovitch and Lederer simply comment on the importance of speaking ability and the desirability of controlling “effets de voix” (Seleskovitch and Lederer 1989: 229, 110). Similarly, Weber (1990: 47) states that “one of the main reflexes to develop [...] is the ability to enunciate ideas almost automatically”, but does not break down such ability into its constituent parts.

Seleskovitch and Lederer (*op. cit.*: 137) consider that, while students’ awareness of fluency should be heightened, time constraints do not allow the interpreting trainer to do so. This need can be fulfilled by public speaking courses (Katz 1989: 218; Weber 1989), though interpreter trainers have expressed reservations about trainees receiving instruction in public speaking from non interpreters (AIIC 1979: 13).

The above sources do not offer detailed advice about how to incorporate development of speaking skills into the interpreting curriculum, or specify how trainee interpreters can profitably focus on problems of fluency. This lack of detailed comment on the development and evaluation of fluency arguably reflects limited attention to the issue in traditional approaches to language training.

2.1. Control of lapses in fluency

One perspective on fluency is to consider evidence of its absence, i.e. faults of production which an accomplished public speaker should not allow to exceed “acceptable limits for pauses, restarts, repetitions, redirections [...]” (Goffman 1981: 172). Goffman considers these “linguistically detectable faults” (*ibid.*) as manifestations of the efforts of reasoning and formulation which accompany linguistic production. The skill of professional speakers such as the lecturer or radio announcer is to control output in such a way as to hide these efforts and any hesitations they may entail; no “production crisis” or “backstage considerations” (*ibid.*: 172) are allowed to betray moments of doubt or distraction.

Goffman’s lecturer thus maintains control of any hesitations which could surface as “linguistically detectable faults” or “influencies” (*ibid.*: 209). Admittedly, this perspective is related to Goffman’s interest in the concept of “face”, i.e. respect of the expectations associated with social status or roles. Pauses and other influencies are thus seen as inconsistent with expectations of how a lecturer or radio announcer should speak. Nevertheless, Goffman’s discussion provides an interesting theoretical basis for evaluation of fluency. Given that interpreters can to all intents and purposes be considered professional speakers, or “professionnels de l’oralité” (<http://www.aiic.net/en/tips/voix/trottier.htm>), the definition of fluency by default (i.e. absence of influencies) can also prove relevant to evaluation of interpreting (Mead 1996).

It is probably more common to describe influencies as “disfluencies”, a term explained as follows: “The most common types of disfluency are hesitations, pauses, ums and ahs, corrections, false starts, repetitions, interjections, stuttering and slips of the tongue” (Garnham 1985: 206). The features of speech which Garnham includes in this category are substantially those avoided by Goffman’s lecturer, or cautioned against in manuals about how to speak in public (Bellenger 1979: 73).

The structuralist bias of traditional linguistic analysis gives little consideration to linguistic features like disfluencies, which tend to be dismissed as “the greasy parts of speech” (Goffman 1964: 61). However, a number of studies in applied linguistics highlight these “temporal variables” of oral production (Raupach 1980: 269-270) as a quantitative/distributional basis for evaluation of fluency.¹ The perspective is often to compare different levels of competence, for example in a first and second language (*ibid.*, Towell *et al.* 1996, Onnis 1999) or at different stages in second language acquisition (Towell *et al.*, *op. cit.*).

1 “Temporal variables” do not provide an evaluation of fluency only by default (i.e. absence of disfluencies). They also focus on such parameters as speech rate and length of uninterrupted segments (“runs”).

In research on interpreting, disfluencies are part of Kopczynski's (1981) system of error assessment, used with some modifications in Vik-Tuovinen's (1995) longitudinal study of four interpreting students.

2.2. Silent and filled pauses

Technically, the two features Garnham refers to as "pauses" and "ums and ahs" are classed as "silent" and "filled" pauses respectively (Duez 1982: 13-14). Duez's inclusion of filled pauses in a composite class of "non silent pauses", including false starts and repetitions, highlights their status as disfluencies; silent pauses, by contrast, do not necessarily reflect hesitation and fumbling – indeed, Duez's analysis of political speech shows that they can be used to rhetorical effect (*ibid.*).

This stylistic effect of silent pauses is identified in an earlier study by Clemmer, O'Connell and Loui (1979), who match expert assessments of oral readings with the readers' pausing patterns. The role of silent pauses in comprehension is similarly commented on by Holmes (1984), who evaluates pausing in improvised stories.

The functional distinction between silent and filled pauses is relevant to public speaking. Bellenger (*op. cit.*) recommends judicious distribution and timing of the former, which he simply calls "pauses"; control of the latter, referred to as "bruits", should be far more vigilant – though their total exclusion would be unnatural.

Interestingly, some earlier studies on pauses (Henderson, Goldman-Eisler, Skarbek 1965; Henderson, Goldman-Eisler, Skarbek 1966; Goldman-Eisler 1967) do not systematically state whether the focus is on silent or filled pauses. These studies identify pausing as a feature of cognitive activity during linguistic production. Their theoretical premiss is that oral production requiring little or no effort of formulation, like aloud reading and – according to the source concerned – simultaneous interpretation (Goldman-Eisler 1967: 125), does not entail the same alternation of pauses and fluency as impromptu speech. The functional distinction between silent and filled pauses is not explicitly discussed, nor is the concept of pauses as a help to the listener.

The status of silent pauses is varied, in that they may be stops for breath, deliberate pauses for emphasis or hesitations. Deese (1980) considers that a skilful speaker probably makes hesitations coincide with silent pauses at natural syntactic breaks in the utterance. A parallel to this is the way that good reading aloud discreetly takes advantage of appropriate breaks in the text, both for stylistic effect and to give the reader an idea of what comes next. What is important is to recognise that silent pauses are not necessarily disfluencies,

while conspicuous filled pauses almost certainly can be classed as such in the context of professional public speaking (including conference interpretation).

Given this distinction, combined data for both filled and silent pauses arguably afford insight into how obtrusively or discreetly speakers hesitate. The present study therefore includes both types of pause.

3. The study: objectives and methods

Comparative study of temporal variables in speech suggests that even high levels of competence in a foreign language do not imply the same degree of fluency as in native speech (Towell *et al.*, *op. cit.*; Onnis, *op. cit.*).

Control of temporal variables thus seems to offer an appropriate perspective from which to evaluate interpretation in the B language. Fluency is admittedly not the most important criterion by which to evaluate interpretation. Nevertheless, the user surveys referred to above suggest that its role in the overall impact of the target speech is far from negligible. Its relevance to the “querelle du A et du B” is thus not to be dismissed.

The present study of pauses as a comparative index of fluency examines the hypothesis that the target speech is more fluent in the A language than the B language. Subjects’ explanations of major pauses are also examined, to identify any trends in terms of factors they perceive as relevant to fluency.

Subjects were all final year students at the S.S.Li.M.I.T., Forlì, with English as their B language. Each recorded two short consecutive interpretations, one in Italian and one in English. To ensure comparability, the same recorded input speeches were used for all participants. Apart from a short written briefing, they received no prior information on the texts before listening to each speech.

Both speeches were from conference recordings, kindly made available by the organisers of the events concerned. The recording in English was the opening of a speech on British attitudes to Europe, given to an audience of Italian students by an English professor. The Italian source speech was again the start of a lecture, in this case by a journalist speaking to a group of industrialists about the international impact of the 1973 oil crisis.

While it is difficult to ensure a uniform level of difficulty in different speeches, the two were reasonably comparable in the following respects:

- a) theme: contemporary history;
- b) audience with no specialist knowledge of the subject;
- c) no particular difficulties in terms of extralinguistic knowledge (Gile 1995: 216);
- d) “off the cuff” delivery;
- e) no slides or overheads used;

- f) duration (3'50" and 3'40");
- g) density of information;
- h) mean speed (127 words per minute in English, 119 w.p.m. in Italian)².

Immediately after each consecutive interpretation, the recording was played back to the subject and comments were sought on major hesitations or clusters of brief pauses. Separate explanations could obviously not be sought for every minor individual pause, in some cases lasting less than 0.10 sec. Given that the consecutive interpretation generally took from 3 to 4 minutes and the average frequency of pauses was about 25 per minute (sometimes far more), subjects could not realistically be expected to offer detailed retrospective analysis of even the briefest and most innocuous.

Subjects' explanations of pauses were collected by stopping the tape after each prominent or sustained hesitation, so that the subject could answer the question: "Is there any particular reason for this hesitation?" The question was deliberately left open, even when it seemed that there might be an evident reason (e.g., difficulty in finding a target language equivalent for a word or expression), to avoid "prompting" subjects. Leading questions, like "Did you have a lexical problem there?", were avoided. Information collected in this way provided the basis for the analysis of how subjects perceived their pauses.

Recordings of all interpretations were transferred on to the hard disk of a Macintosh iMacTM, using a software for visualisation and editing of audio files (SndSampler 3.7.1TM, © Alan Glenn, Midland Mi, USA). The software was then used to divide the recordings into 20 second audio files and convert these into oscillograms on which each pause could be highlighted and matched with the corresponding sound recording. This allowed measurement of pause duration in hundredths of a second, using a sampling frequency of 44 kHz.

Times for silent and filled pauses were calculated separately. Any "mixed" pauses, comprising both silent and filled segments, were considered as filled pauses. Once all pauses had been inventoried, total pause duration and average pausing time per minute were calculated for each interpretation.

Average pausing times per minute in the two languages were compared by *t* tests for paired data.

Subjects' explanations of their pauses were also inventoried and sorted into five categories. These were: (1) difficulties of formulation (lexis, grammar); (2) difficulty with notes (e.g., indecipherable symbol); (3) logical doubts (e.g., "Does this comment make sense?"); (4) no apparent reason perceived by the subject; (5) others (e.g., thinking about previous difficulties).

² Comparison of speech rate in different languages on the basis of a word count is admittedly crude (Pöchhacker, 1993), but is sufficient to ensure that overall speed of delivery is reasonably comparable.

For each subject, values of the various classes of explanation were calculated as percentages of the total count. For example, subject 1 gave a total of 32 and 38 explanations regarding pauses in Italian and English respectively. Of these, the scores for difficulties in formulation were 15 in Italian and 12 in English. The percentage values were thus 46.88% (15/32) for the former and 31.58% (12/38) for the latter. The purpose of converting scores into percentages was to provide a common denominator for the statistical analysis, since the total number of pauses commented on varied from subject to subject.

Like pause times, percentages of the different classes of hesitation in the two languages were compared by t tests for paired data.

4. Results and Discussion

a) Comparison of pauses in Italian and English

Average pause times per minute are shown in Table 1. While group means afford only a limited basis for comparison, they show that: (i) pausing accounts for an appreciable proportion of overall speaking time; (ii) values in English are appreciably higher than in Italian, particularly for filled pauses and for total pause time.

subject	pauses (s.p.m.) in Italian:			pauses (s.p.m.) in English:		
	filled	silent	total	filled	silent	total
1	6.02	7.66	13.68	13.16	7.52	20.68
2	8.84	8.92	17.76	5.68	12.42	18.10
3	6.17	5.45	11.62	9.86	9.13	18.99
4	7.28	8.17	15.45	16.29	9.13	25.42
5	12.83	2.54	15.37	15.05	2.05	17.10
6	2.05	10.59	12.64	12.36	7.51	19.87
7	10.41	5.69	16.10	15.58	6.55	22.13
8	6.40	9.34	15.74	10.96	8.64	19.60
9	8.37	2.55	10.92	23.12	5.17	28.29
10	2.92	11.69	14.61	6.26	8.88	15.14
11	9.25	6.95	16.20	11.61	10.22	21.83
12	5.11	3.66	8.77	1.86	11.96	13.82
13	6.57	3.92	10.49	13.37	4.87	18.24
14	6.01	2.85	8.86	12.26	4.84	17.10
15	9.31	7.13	16.44	22.10	7.07	29.17
<i>mean:</i>	7.17	6.47	13.64	12.63	7.73	20.37

Table 1: Seconds per minute of pause time in consecutive interpretations by 15 final year students.

With regard to the first point, speaking time net of pauses can be calculated as a percentage of total speaking time. This percentage, called the P/T (Phonation/Time) ratio, is about 75% and 66% of the group means for Italian and English respectively. While these values may seem to reflect limited phonation in relation to pauses, they are consistent with other P/T ratio data.³ For example, Onnis's (1999) study of an oral narrative task by English native speakers considered "fluent" in Italian identifies a P/T ratio of about 65% in both languages.

In terms of the comparison between languages, statistical tests identify significantly higher filled pause times in English than Italian. The same is true of total pauses (silent and filled pauses together), while silent pauses alone do not differ significantly between the two languages ($t = 1.710$; $\text{sig.} = 0.109$). Significant differences are summarised in Table 2.

pair	t	sig. (2-tailed)
total pauses in English - total pauses in Italian	5.812	0.000
filled pauses in English - filled pauses in Italian	4.173	0.001

Table 2: Significant differences in seconds per minute of pause time (paired t tests)

The appreciably higher incidence of pauses in English than Italian reinforces the hypothesis that output is more fluent in the A language (Italian) than the B language (English).

The statistical analysis also shows a significant negative correlation between silent and filled pauses in English (Pearson correlation coefficient = -0.633 , $p = 0.05$). This means that the more subjects use one, the less they use the other. In this case, filled pauses are far more prominent. The group's management of hesitation in English is thus not consistent with the standard of Goffman's lecturer, whose ability to keep hesitation discreetly backstage leaves little room for "ums and ahs".

b) Subjects' explanations of their pauses in Italian and English

The occurrences of the various categories of explanation for pauses are summarised in Table 3. Significant differences in percentages for the various

³ A caveat in this respect is that some authors calculate the ratio by differentiating only silent pauses from speaking time, while others also subtract filled pauses.

classes in the two languages, based on t tests for paired samples, are listed in Table 4.

explanations for pauses	Italian	English
formulation	146	174
notes	116	106
logic	60	44
no reason	42	67
others	19	21
<i>total</i>	<i>383</i>	<i>412</i>

Table 3: Total explanations for pauses

pair	t	sig. (2-tailed)
formulation in English - formulation in Italian	1.772	0.098
logic in English - logic in Italian	- 2.379	0.034
no reason in English - no reason in Italian	3.040	0.009

Table 4: Significant differences in subjects' explanations of pauses

The raw data and statistical analysis highlight a number of trends.

A first observation concerns the relative weight subjects give to linguistic and extralinguistic factors as determinants of hesitation. Table 3 shows that the combined totals for “notes” and “logic” are more or less as high as the figures for “formulation” (indeed, they are higher if Italian alone is considered). In other words, subjects at this stage in their training perceive that hesitation in consecutive interpretation stems as much from problems in rereading notes and resolving logical inconsistencies as from strictly language-related difficulties.

A second point is that the significant differences between languages in Table 4 show greater perception of language difficulties in English, while logical doubts are more prominent in Italian. The greater importance attached to language as the source of difficulty in English is consistent with the expected gap between command of expression in a foreign and a native language. Perception of logical doubts as more evident sources of difficulty in Italian than English suggests that the lesser demands on linguistic resources in the A language leave subjects more scope to focus on the nuances of content.

Thirdly, the finding that pauses considered as inexplicable are more prominent in English can be very tentatively interpreted as a consequence of the demands that control of expression makes on attentional resources. In other words, the perceived need for care with expression in English perhaps leads to lapses in overall coordination and control of delivery.

As a whole, the data on subjects' perception of their pauses indicate that fluency depends on both linguistic and extralinguistic competences. The former, which subjects perceive as demanding greater attention in the B language, depend not only on linguistic knowledge but also on its availability (Gile 1995: 189 *et seq.*). This concept should not be ignored in any consideration of how far production in the target language can be appropriately described as automatic.

While the "théorie du sens" rightly highlights the importance of not limiting interpretation to a superficial rendering of the source speech's wording, it can give the impression that formulation in the target language is an effortless adjunct to analysis of the input. Similarly, Weber (1989: 163) describes the consecutive interpreter's target language output as practically automatic if the source speech has been well assimilated. By contrast, Thiéry (1981: 102) identifies a number of "opérations inhabituelles" that the consecutive interpreter must manage in the target speech (e.g., focus on the speech's pragmatic impact, holding the floor in public). Similarly, the cognitive processes identified in Gile's Effort Models include production among the non automatic efforts (Gile 1995: 97). This is consistent with Schmidt's (1992: 376) statement that the phonological processing in speech can be automatised but higher level conceptual planning cannot. However, the distinction between automatic and non automatic components of speech production is to a certain extent "fuzzy", in that "the controlled-automatic distinction should be viewed as a continuum rather than a dichotomy" (*ibid.*).

In the present study, subjects' comments on expression difficulties in both the A and B languages suggest that target language formulation depends to a considerable extent on non automatic processes. Here, availability of relevant linguistic knowledge is probably an important factor in streamlining processes like lexical selection and reducing demands on attentional resources. This concept could explain in part why acquisition of fluency does not seem to progress uniformly or predictably as a function of overall linguistic knowledge.

Extralinguistic competences, like ability to listen analytically and to use notes (both while listening and during delivery of the target speech), arguably contribute just as much as language skills to the interpreter's fluency. In addition, the use of strategies to manage difficulties should not be overlooked (Gile 1995: 129 *et seq.*). Though language teaching issues are not always relevant to interpreter training, classifications of language learners' coping strategies identify a number of recurrent categories (e.g., omission, paraphrase, calques and borrowings, appeal to interlocutors) which overlap to a certain extent with those identified in interpreting (Ellis 1994: 397). Skill in unobtrusive use of such strategies is probably a major factor in fluency, whether in monolingual communication or in interpreting.

5. Conclusions

The findings of the present study afford tentative insight into trainee interpreters' fluency in the A and B languages, as well as into factors on which this depends. However, the sample is relatively small and involves only two languages. Only with more extensive study on a broader range of language combinations will it prove possible to draw firmer conclusions.

In addition, the study should ideally be complemented by evaluation of fluency in native speakers of English with Italian as their B language. This would allow comparison of the two situations examined in the present study (source speeches in Italian and English, interpreted by subjects with a combination of "Italian A + English B") with a further two variants (source speeches in Italian and English, interpreted by subjects with a combination of "English A + Italian B"). An investigation of this sort would make it possible to evaluate the possibility that the diverging pause profiles in the present study might be attributable to differences in rhythm between Italian and English, irrespective of their status as an "A" or "B" language.

On the basis of the present study, trainee interpreters' fluency in the A and B languages seems to differ significantly. However, it is not suggested that this should dissuade them from using their B language. Improvement of fluency, with a view to closing the gap between the two languages, can be a challenging goal. An immediate lesson of the study is the scope for shifting the balance between silent and filled pauses, particularly in the B language. Close analysis of the problem triggers identified by individual subjects should also enable them to address their weaknesses by heightening sensitivity to which items of expression (e.g., links between speech segments, attenuation of over-bold statements) or general technique (e.g., legibility of notes) require attention.

Acknowledgment

I am grateful to Forlì colleague Giuseppe Nocella, without whose statistical expertise the data would have been far less amenable to interpretation and comment.

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SILENT PAUSES AND DISFLUENCIES IN SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION: A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

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Literature on simultaneous interpretation (SI) contains many recommendations addressed to interpreters on the need to avoid pauses and interruptions in order to produce a more fluent high-quality delivery. Yet not many scholars have gone deeper into this subject and questions still remain open as to whether such occurrences depend on the interpreter, situational constraints of SI or the source-text (ST).

In order to start investigating this subject ten interpretation students were asked to translate simultaneously two text excerpts of a spontaneous speech containing pauses, hesitations and interruptions. It is the aim of this study to analyse whether and to what extent the presence of such occurrences in the ST affects the interpreter's comprehension and delivery. Occurrences in both ST and target-texts (TT) were described in an attempt to produce a taxonomy which can be specifically applied to SI; pauses and interruptions were not seen as mere interruptions of fluency; whenever possible, their communicative value and/or tactical use were stressed.

1. SI as a composite form of communication
 - 1.1. The implications of orality

Interpretation has been defined as a form of oral translation (Riccardi 1999: 161). Even though this seems quite obvious, it may be useful to point out the implications of orality for SI both as a process and as a form of communication. Interpretation studies on orality have dealt with its transience (Seleskovitch 1978: 14; Kopczynski 1980: 24; Gile 1995b: 68-69 in Straniero 1999: 109) or with its features at syntactic and semantic level, while the interactive dimension of oral communication as a pragmatic language variety has been completely neglected (Straniero 1999: 109). Since SI is essentially a form of communication, an approach focusing on this dimension would be suitable. One distinctive feature of spoken language is its limited planning, leading to fragmentary speech with false starts and repeats, Riccardi (1997: 62-63). Besides, spoken language is characterized by its paraverbal and non-verbal dimensions which have to be taken into account in SI, as Stenzl (1983: 40) writes:

While in translation the message is conveyed entirely by graphic means, interpretation involves not only linguistic elements and what they convey, but also intonation, voice quality, changes in pitch and loudness, pauses and non-linguistic elements [...], which can all contribute to the message and may have to be verbalized by the interpreter.

The presence of prosodic and non-linguistic elements in the ST is important, but so too is their verbalisation by the interpreter. As a matter of fact those elements play a double role: in the ST for the interpreter's comprehension and in the TT for the listener's comprehension and the quality of the interpretation. Most scholars consider only the occurrence of non-fluencies in the interpreter's delivery, without examining how the presence of such items in the ST could possibly influence his/her comprehension and thus presentation. Recommendations or pieces of advice by professionals or experts on the latter subject are very frequent; Viaggio (1992: 311) writes:

The interpreter [...] must be duly conversant with the uses of oral speech – first and foremost intonation and pause management. [...] He should be trained in maximizing the use of extra-linguistic clues and intonation in order to save breath; for instance, conveying modal information suprasegmentally.

Straniero (1999: 110) also points out the potential of a strategic use of prosody. The importance of correct prosody management in SI is widely accepted and has been included in the criteria for SI quality assessment (Kurz 1993; Viezzi 1999). Pöchhacker (1994) has developed a grid of prosodic parameters which have to be related both to ST and TT in order to achieve a well-balanced qualitative evaluation of an interpretation. One of the very few studies dealing with the ST-TT relationship from a prosodic point of view is Déjean Le Féal's (1978). The author investigates the difficulties experienced by interpreters with a read ST in comparison to spontaneous ST, due to what she calls *manque d'idéation chez le locuteur* (lack of ideation by the speaker). This is typical of speakers reading their speeches and takes the form of weakened prosodic prominence and longer speech bursts between pauses, making ST comprehension by the interpreter more difficult. Déjean Le Féal's work (1978) is significant because it is, to quote Stenzl (1983: 27), "a first approach to an interpretation-specific text typology". Déjean Le Féal focuses on the influence of the ST on the interpreting process rather than on its product, which has yet to be analysed.

1.2. The implications of simultaneity

One of the typical constraints of SI is simultaneity of listening and speaking, which entails adaptation to the characteristics of the speaker's delivery. This has to be taken into account in an attempt to analyse the pragmatic dimension of SI, as it involves prosody and the presence of pauses and interruptions in the interpreter's delivery. Déjean Le Féal (1978), for example, attributes the lack of regularity and the occurrence of pauses in interpreters' speeches to the need to anticipate ST items first, and check their conformity with the original speech afterwards. Though her hypothesis is confirmed by Stenzl (1983: 38) and Čeňková (1989: 53) it has to be considered that anticipation is just one out of a range of possible SI strategies (Kalina 1998; Riccardi 1999) and can therefore be seen only as a partial cause of irregular or fragmentary elocution. Kalina (1992: 253) sees another obstacle to the interpreter's comprehension which can affect his/her delivery in what she defines as "the prolonged presence of the source text road signs". Gile (1995: 97) confirms her view adding that simultaneity can sometimes make semantic and syntactic choices easier for the interpreter. In a similar perspective other SI researchers even suggest that pauses and non-fluencies could be exploited in a strategic way (Gringiani 1994: 38). Besides using them for monitoring his/her own anticipations, as mentioned above, the interpreter can produce filled micropauses (*micropauses remplies*) (Čeňková 1989) in order to slow down his/her delivery and concentrate on listening. Another strategy to cope with complex or temporally undetermined syntactic structures is what Setton (1999: 50) calls *waiting*, namely the insertion of short pauses at grammatical boundaries, in order to gain time without giving the listener the impression of omitting parts of the original message. It still has to be verified if a tactical use of non-fluencies can be systematically related to the presence of particular occurrences in the ST. For this purpose the ST-TT relationship in SI has to be examined in a situational and functional perspective.

1.3. The ST-TT relationship

Pöchhacker (1994: 205) closely examined this subject questioning TT-autonomy. In his view, particular features like the presence of both speaker and interpreter, the same communicative situation, traces and intrusions of the ST in the interpreter's delivery speak in favour of an interdependence between the two texts. An implicit confirmation comes from Riccardi (1999: 161), who states that in SI language and text serve interpretation, having no autonomous purpose. So far, the ST-TT relationship has been analysed merely with regard to the verbal component of the text, namely through error grids based on the principle of informative equivalence between ST and TT (Barik 1969; Gerver 1974;

Lambert 1982 in Stenzl 1983). Mazzetti (1998: 4) deplores the scarce attention paid to the ST-TT correlation from the non-verbal point of view and states the need to acknowledge that successful interpretation depends not only on TT quality but also on ST language and presentation. Following Pöchacker's (1994: 129) recommendation to single out as analytical criteria prosodic features which can be found both in ST and TT, this study aims at examining pauses and different types of interruptions, allowing both a quantitative and qualitative description.

2. Pauses and interruptions as elements of linguistic production and in SI research

The heterogeneous character of studies on this subject has already been mentioned and can be noticed even on an examination of the definitions and classifications of the occurrences. Some experts divide pauses into individual and functional pauses, others describe them as silent and filled pauses. Another quite vague question concerns the relationship between pauses and hesitations.

In order to cast light on these issues, studies on the subject will be presented following the different approaches. It has to be stressed that in many of them non-fluencies are not the object of the study but only a useful tool to investigate psychological and cognitive mechanisms in communication and/or SI.

– Pauses as traces of cognitive activity

In the 1950s Goldman-Eisler found that the distribution of pauses in speech was not accidental, and she distinguished breathing pauses from hesitation pauses. On the basis of her first studies Goldman-Eisler (1958) concluded that the first lexical item after a silent pause is more difficult to predict than any lexical item uttered in a fluent context. Silent pauses of this kind are produced in order to gain time during the process of linguistic production. In a later work by the author (1961) the incidence of pauses is related to the cognitive effort required by the linguistic activity carried out. In this context she demonstrates that the number of pauses diminishes with the progressive automatization of the task.

Maclay & Osgood (1959 in Martin 1967) link up with Goldman-Eisler's early studies and propose a first classification of pauses and three types of interruptions, stressing their different functions. Silent pauses, filled pauses and repeats are used to take time for the choices required during language codification, whereas false starts are devices to correct what has been said immediately before. A later study by Tannenbaum, Williams & Hillier (1965) confirmed Goldman-Eisler's (1958) findings about the low predictability of lexical words after a pause, but found that the word before a pause is equally difficult to predict. The explanation therefore lies in the different types of pauses

analysed in the two studies. Goldman-Eisler (1958) concentrated on silent pauses, whereas Tannenbaum et al. (1965) examined different types of occurrences and came to the following conclusion: silent and filled pauses are devices to take time before an increase of information, while repeats and false starts are produced to temporise before a correction. Therefore the less predictable word is located after silent and filled pauses but before repeats and false starts. This leads to the conclusion that an integrated perspective considering the type of non-fluency, its duration and localisation has to be applied.

– Pauses as functional items in a language system

Osgood (1954 in Suci 1967) was the first to assume the existence of functional units for information transmission. On this premise Suci (1967) claimed that pauses could be the boundaries of such functional units, by virtue of their non-casual distribution in speech (Goldman-Eisler 1958). He therefore defined minimal language units as items resisting progressive fracturing and demonstrated how speech segments between pauses fulfil this condition. He subsequently examined whether these psychological units were based on syntactic structure. After having carried out a series of experiments Suci concluded that as there is no correspondence between these units and traditional syntactic structure, pauses must reflect a different sort of structural organisation. Moreover, it had to be borne in mind that there are individual differences in the structuring of verbal material. Keseling (1992) too, examined pauses in this perspective and came to the conclusion that pauses are indeed functional elements, but they are not subject to a fixed system of rules.

– Pauses in communication

Pauses fulfil many roles in oral communication. The most visible is their influence on elocution speed: the higher the number of pauses, the lower the elocution speed. Pauses also contribute to the disambiguation of syntax (Mazzetti 1998) as in the case of compound words or word lists. Moreover, they contribute to discourse segmentation and help give prominence to particular text samples, drawing the listener's attention to certain elements and making it easier for him/her to understand the message. In the latter case pauses have a predominantly stylistic and rhetorical function. As already stated, the use and the incidence of pauses are strongly characterized by the speaker's individuality, both from a physiological and an emotional point of view.

– Pauses and speech reception

The listener's reception of pauses and interruptions has not been closely examined yet, and the few scholars who have dealt with this subject support

diametrically opposite views, considering pauses as an obstacle for speech reception, as irrelevant for speech decoding or as elements making comprehension easier. Goldman-Eisler (1968: 14) is an exponent of the first group, claiming that:

a large proportion of pauses in spontaneous speech does not fit in with the linguistic structure and does not seem to serve communication, indeed it may at times impede rather than facilitate decoding.

Martin (1967), on the contrary, assumed that the speaker's hesitations do not play a relevant role for the listener. He analysed how different subjects reproduce utterances they have just heard and observed that while in the speaker's production pauses are mainly caused by hesitation, in the subjects' reproductions they tend to coincide with the boundaries of grammatical units. In this way his starting point is confirmed and it is proved that the listener reorganises verbal material while decoding it. Keseling (1992) summarised the position of the third group, stating that pauses mark coherent passages to the receiver. At first sight the three positions appear mutually exclusive, but on a closer examination the different statements appear to be related to different types of pauses. The first and the second position refer to hesitation pauses, which are characteristic for linguistic production but have no function for reception. Indeed, in some cases they may compromise decoding. The third statement, on the other hand, refers to pauses with a signalling or even emphatic function.

– Classification attempts

It has already been mentioned that classifications are very heterogeneous in this field. Since it would be impossible to explain them all, only those considered relevant to the aim of the study will be described in this section. The first categorisation was Maclay & Osgood's (1959 in Tannenbaum, Williams and Woods 1967), which divided occurrences into silent pauses, filled pauses, repeats and false starts and was adopted in many later studies on the subject (Tannenbaum, Williams & Hillier 1965; Tannenbaum, Williams & Woods 1967; Martin 1967; Duez 1982). Hieke (1981: 148) maintained the same occurrences but criticised what he defines Maclay & Osgood's "concatenated approach": "in this standard classification system, items receive joint attention only if they are in close proximity with each other". He pleads for an "integrated approach" analysing interruptions and errors in a broader perspective. In his view hesitations are traces of two particular aspects of language production: prevention and correction of errors, which form the categories of "stalls" and "repairs" respectively. Repeats are divided into "prospective repeats" to take time for speech planning and "retrospective repeats" to correct errors or recreate

a link with already uttered items. Hieke’s new taxonomy can be summarised as follows:

- stalls: silent pauses, filled pauses, prospective repeats and syllable lengthening;
- repairs: false starts, retrospective repeats, restoration of links.

Hieke (1981: 150) also introduced a completely new conception of hesitations:

Hesitations [...] form an integral part of speech production in the positive sense, a view quite in opposition to the attitude that there is fluency on one hand and hesitancy on the other. Not only are hesitations a normal component of fluency if they occur in moderation, but now pauses and the other hesitations can actually be considered wellformedness phenomena rather than disfluencies, at least as far as they serve as devices by the speaker to produce more error-free, high-quality speech.

This view is shared by Magno Caldognetto, De Zordi & Corrà (1982) whose categorisation is taken as starting point for the taxonomy adopted in this study. Occurrences are gathered under the hyperonym “non-fluencies” and divided into silent pauses and disfluencies, the latter including various types of items with different functions. The scheme below gives an overview of the different categories; those which have been maintained in this analysis will be defined in part 3.

NON-FLUENCIES	
SILENT PAUSES	DISFLUENCIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – initial pause – juncture pause – clause-internal pause 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – filled pause – parenthetic remark – interruptions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – repetition – correction – false start

All non-fluencies can be found in all spontaneous speech, varying according to the speaker, his/her cognitive activity and a series of socio-linguistic variables. It is interesting to investigate the typology of non-fluencies in a complex task like SI.

- The double role of pauses in SI

One of the very few studies on pauses in SI is Čeňková’s *L’importance des pauses en interprétation simultanée* (1989). First of all she confirms that parallel listening and speaking by the interpreter is a given, though related to the speaker’s elocution speed and the number and duration of pauses in his speech.

She stresses the double role of pauses, namely in the ST to facilitate decoding and in the TT for segmentation by the interpreter. Her experiments confirm the importance of pauses for message segmentation but also the difficulty experienced by the interpreter in exploiting them because of their short duration. Čeňková introduces a new definition of pauses, which are understood not only as interruptions in the flow of speech but also as significant variations in intonation and rhythm or even the juxtaposition of two semantically independent items. The pause is no longer an objectively quantifiable silence but rather an item depending on the interpreter's and the listener's perception.

3. Experimental study

The experiment, carried out at the SSLMIT of the University of Trieste, consisted of the SI into Italian of two tape-recorded spontaneous speeches delivered in German.

3.1. Aim of the study

This study aims at systematically analysing non-fluencies in ST and TT from the quantitative and qualitative point of view, in order to investigate possible correlations between the occurrences in the texts and to propose a SI-specific functional taxonomy of non-fluencies.

3.2. Materials

The STs adopted for the experiment were two excerpts from the tape recording of a speech delivered by an Austrian politician during a round-table meeting in Trieste on December 15th 1999. The excerpts lasting 3.18 and 5.85 minutes respectively, are both spontaneous speeches. As the incidence of non-fluencies is closely linked to on-line planning, which is typical of spontaneous discourse and SI (Déjean Le Féal 1978: 85) and given the aim of the study, it was considered essential for ST and TT to be comparable in this respect. Riccardi (1997: 67) pointed out the implications of a spontaneous ST for its interpretation, namely that it enables the interpreter to follow the development of the text and to make use of analogous strategies in his/her interpretation. As the texts were neither technical nor specialised, the participants were not given any information in advance.

After having delivered their SI, participants were asked to fill up a questionnaire concerning their impressions about elocution speed, fluency and the incidence of pauses in the ST as well as the occurrence of non-fluencies in their own deliveries.

3.3. Participants

The participants were ten interpretation students who had successfully completed their curriculum of SI exams from German into Italian. All students were Italian native-speakers chosen to avoid non-fluencies due to imperfect command of the language.

The experiment was carried out with students because, as stressed by Riccardi (1997), their deliveries tend to be much closer to the ST than those of professional interpreters. One could therefore suppose that the former are more influenced by the presence of non-fluencies in the ST. In order to point out differences in the degree of adhesion to the ST and possible implications for the occurrence of non-fluencies, a professional with three years' experience was asked to interpret the ST under the same conditions.

3.4. Technical equipment

The deliveries of the 11 subjects were recorded with a *Philips AAC 500* double-track machine.

Silent pause durations were measured with the *Wave Studio* software by *Creative*, version 4.06. It must be pointed out that even though a computer was used measurements had to be carried out manually, which inevitably precludes absolute precision.

3.5. Methods

Before describing the procedure of the experiment some methodological problems will be pointed out and the explanation of the relevant solutions provided.

The first problem concerned the measurement of elocution speed, namely the choice between words and syllables per time unit. Even though perfect correspondence can not be assured in either case, the latter solution was chosen because syllables are more language-independent than words. Having to compare elocution speed in two different languages, syllables appeared more suitable (Pöchhacker 1994: 132).

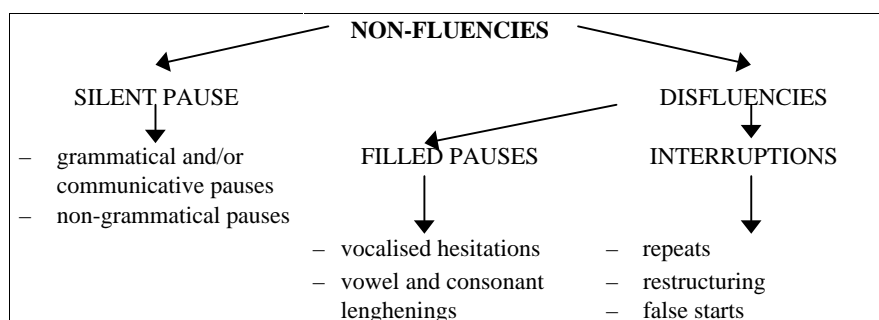
The main difficulty concerning silent pause measurement consisted in establishing a minimum threshold for measurement which would be possible with non-specialised technical equipment. In SI literature the following thresholds can be found: 0.18 seconds (Duez 1982), 0.25 seconds (Duez 1982, Goldman-Eisler 1968 and 1972), 0.3 seconds (Tannenbaum, Williams & Wood 1967). For this study a minimum value of 0.25 seconds was chosen in order automatically to exclude interruptions due to articulatory constraints (see

Goldman-Eisler 1968: 12). With the purpose of minimising the margin of error, silent pauses were classified into 9 categories per interval of 0.25 seconds. The upper threshold was established with reference to the longest pause in the ST, namely 2.4 seconds, included in the interval 2.25-2.50 seconds. The interpreters' deliveries were characterised by much longer pauses; consequently two more categories were added: 2.5-5 seconds and 5 seconds or more. In this case larger intervals were chosen, considering that in presence of such atypical values for non-mediated spontaneous speech, 0.25-second differences were almost insignificant.

3.6. Procedure

The deliveries of the participants were transcribed as faithfully as possible, listening to the recordings. In case of doubts an expert was asked for advice. Afterwards, silent pauses were measured and their durations in brackets were inserted in the transcriptions (see appendix). Lastly, non-fluencies were counted and divided according to the categories described below. For the purpose of a qualitative analysis a few ST samples containing significant non-fluencies were chosen, and their counterparts in the TTs were described and scanned for non-fluencies.

3.7. Analysis scheme



This taxonomy is based on the categorisation by Magno Caldognetto, De Zordi & Corrà (1982), revised in order to meet SI-specific features. As can be seen in the scheme, non-fluencies were divided into two macrocategories which can easily be distinguished at the level of perception, namely silent pauses and disfluencies, the latter including filled pauses and interruptions. The three categories of silent pauses, filled pauses and interruptions are made up of different types of occurrences. With regard to Magno Caldognetto, De Zordi &

Corrà's (1982) taxonomy some changes were introduced. They are illustrated below, together with the categories of the new classification proposal:

A) Silent pauses

These are the only occurrences corresponding to an interruption in language production and can therefore be measured objectively. Each silence between two articulated sequences has been considered a silent pause. The initial pause, namely the silence before starting with the linguistic task, was left out, considering that SI requires by definition a certain time-lag which can not be considered a non-fluency. The criterion of pause omission was introduced, as it was considered that the absence of pauses necessary for correct text segmentation could hinder comprehension (see also Mazzetti 1998).

Silent pauses were simply divided into grammatical and/or communicative pauses and non-grammatical pauses. In comparison with the original classification, communicative pauses were introduced by virtue of the important role they play in spontaneous speech and SI, giving prominence to discourse items.

B) Filled pauses

a) Vocalized hesitations

This class includes all vocalized expressions of hesitation, which have been transcribed as *äh, ähm, mm* for German and *eh, ehm, mm* for Italian, regardless of their duration. As the interpreted versions contained many brief hesitations sounding like a schwa, they were transcribed as ə in order to distinguish them from *eh*. Glottal clicks and guttural sounds were also included in this category.

b) Vowel and consonant lengthenings

Although not included in the reference taxonomy, the category of vowel and consonant lengthenings is not new in studies on non-fluencies (see Magno Caldognetto, Vagges & Job 1983). These occurrences were included in the taxonomy because they are typical of spontaneous speech and by virtue of their high incidence in the interpreters' deliveries.

C) Interruptions

Interruptions include many types of occurrences and sometimes it may be difficult to decide in which category they have to be ranged. In such cases an expert was asked for advice.

a) Repeats

These occurrences include non-semantic repetitions of a phrase, word, or even part of a word. All repetitions with a stylistic or rhetorical function were of course excluded from this category.

b) Restructuring

Restructuring can be defined as an utterance rectifying what the speaker has just said (phrase, word or part of a word). This category includes corrections of phonological lapse as well as formulation or content errors.

Another subgroup includes structure reformulations, that is to say when the speaker decides to express the same concept with a new formulation.

Finally, there is the sub-category of syntactic mixtures, occurring when the speaker juxtaposes two syntactically incompatible structures. The difference between structure reformulations and syntactic mixtures is that in the latter case the speaker does not explicitly try to rectify his/her previous utterance.

c) False starts

False starts occur when the speaker interrupts an utterance and begins a new one without having completed it.

One of the guidelines for the application of this scheme was Hieke's *integrated approach* (1981), which consists of the analysis of the broad context in which non-fluencies occur. In this way attention is not only focused on the immediate surroundings of each occurrence but it is linked to the whole sentence structure and the communicative context.

4. Results and discussion

In accordance with the aim of this study the discussion will be carried on in two directions: ST-TT comparison on the one hand and the description of common trends and differences in the interpreters' deliveries on the other. Whenever possible the findings are displayed in tables. Because of the limited sample examined, the average value for TT1 and TT2 can not always be considered significant, especially when there are great differences among the interpreters. Therefore it has sometimes been omitted, while TT minimum and maximum values for each item are always reported in brackets.

A) General text features

Text features	ST1	TT1	ST2	TT2
Text duration (min)	3.18	3.15 (3.02 – 3.22)	5.85	5.80 (5.68 – 5.87)
Silent pause duration (min)	0.57	0.97 (0.57 – 1.31)	1.60	1.94 (1.30 – 2.57)
Elocution speed (syll/min)	267	222 (184 – 283)	208	200 (169 – 233)

Table 1

As shown in table 1, ST1 duration and TT1 average duration are almost the same, whereas TT1 values for each subject vary from 3.02 to 3.22 minutes. The lowest finding shows a 0.16 minute divergence from the average, compared to the 0.04 of the highest value. For the second text, too, the duration of the ST is slightly higher than the TT average. Here again the highest TT value (5.87 min) is closer to the average than the lowest (5.68 min). Shorter TT may be due to a shorter speech, to shorter and/or fewer pauses or to omissions with respect to the original text. In order to interpret these findings correctly pause durations have to be considered, too. Total pausing time is longer in the interpreters' texts both for T1 and T2. As a first consequence it can be stated that interpreters spoke for less time than the speaker, although the findings about silent pause incidence will also have to be considered for an exhaustive analysis. In this context it has to be stressed that only one of the interpreters shows comparable trends in T1 and T2, which leads to the conclusion that the students' pausing modalities are not deliberate but rather the result of comprehension or reformulation difficulties related to features of the ST form (and/or content). The third feature considered beside text and pause duration was elocution speed. Its values are 222 syllables per minute in TT1 against 267 syll/min in ST1. The slower rhythm of the interpreter's deliveries is related to the longer average duration of silent pauses. In T2 elocution speed is 208 syll/min in ST and 200 syll/min on average in TT. Here values are much closer, but again the ST is delivered at a higher speed than the TT. For a correct interpretation of these findings it must be considered that ST and TT are produced in two different languages, which may at least partially explain some of the divergent results. As far as TTs are concerned, extreme values for each item indicate that there are great individual differences among the interpreters' productions. It should be tested whether the recipients of SI prefer fewer and longer pauses or a series of shorter occurrences which could facilitate the segmentation of the message. Though it goes beyond the aim of this study to answer this question, the importance of an integrated perspective considering the interaction of different variables should be stressed.

B) Silent pauses

Silent pauses	ST1	TT1	ST2	TT2
Number of pauses	56	46.8 (34 – 57)	130	86.4 (63 – 106)
Average duration (sec)	0.609	– (0.605 – 2.156)	0.739	– (0.833 – 2.448)
Longest pause (sec)	1.653	– (2.326 – 12.643)	2.400	– (3.537 – 11.342)

Table 2

Table 2 summarizes silent pause values. In both texts the average number of pauses in the TT is lower than that in the ST: 46.8 versus 56 in T1 and 86.4 versus 130 in T2. The values of the second text show a greater difference which clearly emerges if the number of pauses per minute is calculated for each text: 14.86 pauses/min (TT1) versus 17.61 (ST1) and 14.90 (TT2) versus 22.22 (ST2) respectively. In spite of a significant difference between the STs, the TT values are almost identical, which implies that regardless of the number of pauses per minute in the original texts, the interpreter produced the same amount of utterances per minute in both TTs. It can be observed that the highest number of pauses in TT is only slightly higher than that of the speaker in the first text (57 vs. 56 pauses), whereas it is substantially lower (106 vs. 130 occurrences) in the second. This finding confirms the previous conclusion that the speaker produced more pauses than the interpreters, which can be attributed to the fact that he was delivering a spontaneous speech. Further explanation is provided by an analysis of the average pause duration, which is higher in the interpreters' deliveries. Even if no average value could be calculated because of the great differences among the participants, it clearly emerges that the interpreters' average pauses are much longer than the speaker's, reaching 2.156 and 2.448 seconds in TT1 and TT2 respectively. The lowest value, on the other hand, almost coincides with that of the ST for T1 (0.605 sec vs. 0.609 sec) and lies above it for T2 (0.833 sec vs. 0.739). The findings are even more striking if the longest pause values for each text are compared. Here again, it was not possible to calculate an average value because of very divergent values. Both in TT1 and TT2 even the lowest maximum pause duration is considerably higher than the longest occurrence in the relevant ST: 2.326 sec vs. 1.653 sec for T1 and 3.537 sec vs. 2.4 sec for T2. The highest values in the TTs exceed 12 and 11 sec respectively. This difference between original texts and interpreted versions is illustrated in the figure below.

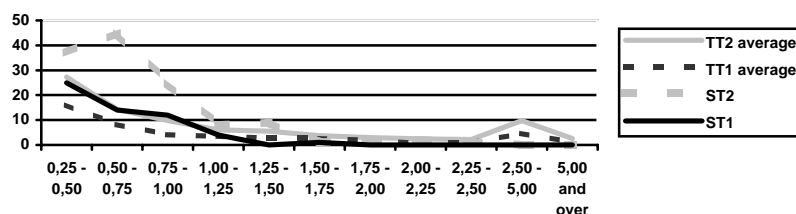


Figure 1: Pause distribution in ST and TT 1 and 2

Figure 1 reproduces the distribution of silent pauses along duration intervals from 0.25 sec to 5 sec and over. In spite of a slight difference for ST2 there is a parallel trend in all the texts: there is a high incidence of occurrences in the intervals from 0.25 to 1.25 sec and a much lower one for the following intervals until 2.50 seconds. This finding leads to the conclusion that normal pauses fall within 0.25 and 1 sec, both for spontaneous speech and SI. The difference between the two modalities lies in the remaining two classes, which have been created *ad hoc* for TT occurrences. The significant number of pauses they contain is a consequence of SI-specific constraints and of the fact that the participants were students, still experiencing difficulties in attention-sharing and comprehension.

Another criterion of analysis was the distinction between grammatical/communicative pauses and non-grammatical pauses. The following results emerge from a ST-TT comparison: 57% grammatical/communicative pauses in ST1 versus a TT1 average of 52% and 58% against 57% in ST2 and TT2 respectively. On the whole, the percentage of “correct” pauses is slightly lower in the interpreted texts than in the ST, which is probably due to a lack of control of linguistic production typical of SI.

C) Disfluencies

a) Filled Pauses

Filled pauses	ST1	TT1	ST2	TT2
Vocalised hesitations	12	– (0 – 34)	13	– (1 – 53)
Vow. and cons. lengthenings	1	57.5 (18 – 99)	2	112 (66 – 161)

Table 3

Table 3 shows that the number of vocalised hesitations is almost the same in both ST1 and ST2, meaning that the number of occurrences per minute is much

lower in the second text: 0.45 versus 3.77 in the first. The incidence of these occurrences in the TT is very heterogeneous, ranging from no occurrences to 34 in TT1 and from 1 to 53 in TT2. Since it would have been pointless to calculate average values, occurrences were ranged in 3 classes: 0 to 10 items, 11 to 20 and 20 or more. For both TTs most of the interpreters' deliveries came into the first class, whereas only a few participants produced a high number of vocalised hesitations. As can be seen in table 5, the participants produced a similar number of utterances in both texts, which confirms that the incidence of these occurrences is highly individual.

The picture concerning vowel and consonant lengthening is quite heterogeneous, too: only 1 and 2 occurrences respectively in the ST against average values of 57.5 in TT1 and 112 in TT2. The patent difference between ST and TT may also be due to particular language features and to the individuality of the speaker. Here again it may be useful to have a closer look at values in the interpreters' deliveries, ranging from 18 to 99 in TT1 and from 66 to 161 in TT2. But even in-between occurrences are very divergent, as shown in table 5. The significant presence of syllable lengthenings in interpreted texts may also be due to their tactical use described by Čeňková (1989), mentioned in part 1. In her view syllable lengthenings allow the interpreter to concentrate on listening, or to bridge a gap while waiting for new material to translate. Of course, the application of such strategies is very subjective, as confirmed by the significant differences between the participants. Finally, another particularity has to be stressed: if supported by intonation, syllable lengthenings may have a function of discourse scansion. After a lengthening at the end of a word (which expresses hesitation), the lengthening of the tonic vowel of a following word has the function of drawing attention back to an important informative element (often coinciding with a lexical item). Such vowel lengthenings have a communicative value.

b) Interruptions

Table 4 illustrates the incidence of different types of interruptions. ST1 and ST2 present 8 and 9 repeats respectively, whereas occurrences range from 0 to 3 in TT1 and from 1 to 8 in TT2. The difference between ST and TT is striking, especially in the first text, but also in the second, since 7 participants produced from 1 to 4 occurrences only (see table 5). The reason for such divergent findings is that the STs are spontaneous speeches with on-line planning. TTs are of course planned on-line too, but in SI some parts of the process, such as lexical or semantic choices, are facilitated (Gile 1995). As he/she keeps a certain time-lag from the original discourse, the interpreter recognises repeats in the ST and avoids reproducing them. One could even assume that such occurrences

facilitate the interpreter’s task, since the repeated item does not overload his/her memory and delays the following words, allowing him/her to concentrate on delivery.

Restructuring is typical for spontaneous speech and is even more frequent in SI, where the interpreter does not fully control the progression of discourse, as he/she gets knowledge of it in a fragmentary way. On the other hand, time-lag should provide enough time for the interpreter to recognise such occurrences and avoid reproducing them. Restructurings are limited both in ST and TT and there is no link between the occurrences in the two modalities. There are 5 occurrences in ST1 and 7 in ST2, while their interpreted versions include on average 5.8 and 10.8 occurrences respectively. Here again, great differences can be noticed among the interpreters: from 0 to 10 restructurings in the first text and from 1 to 22 in the second. Because of the great variety of possible restructurings only a detailed qualitative analysis could explain their causes and evaluate their implications for text fluency.

False starts are the class with the lowest number of disfluencies. There are no occurrences at all in the ST and from 0 to 1 and 0 to 2 in the TTs. From a closer look at table 5, it can be seen that only 3 and 4 subjects respectively produced false starts in their deliveries. Only one interpreter made false starts in both T1 and T2, which indicates that such occurrences are not an individual characteristic but rather the result of difficulties in coping with the original text. In SI a false start can be the consequence of comprehension difficulties or of a wrong anticipation. Generally speaking, false starts are the result of a lack of control of linguistic production. This is confirmed by the frequent co-occurrence of false starts with other non-fluencies. Nevertheless, only a deeper analysis of each case can provide precise answers.

Interruptions	ST1	TT1	ST2	TT2
Repeats	8	– (0 – 3)	9	– (1 – 8)
Restructurings	5	– (0 – 10)	7	– (1 – 22)
False starts	–	– (0 – 2)	–	– (0 – 1)

Table 4

D) Common trends in TTs

While describing the incidence of the different occurrences in the TTs, the gap between the interpreters’ lowest and highest values has been stressed and great individual variations have been mentioned. Table 5 summarizes the values of

each interpreter for the most significant categories. The values contained in it confirm the presence not only of significant differences but also of a kind of parallel behaviour by the interpreters in both T1 and T2. Parallel trends of this kind can be observed especially in the highest and lowest silent pause duration and the number of vocalised hesitations and syllable lengthenings. A perusal of table 5 shows further similarities of this kind, which are certainly an interesting starting point for further investigation on the subject.

Occurrence/ Subject	N. sil. pauses	Max. pause	n. voc. hesitations	n. syll. lengthenings	Repeats	Restructuring	False starts	
Int. 1	TT1	47	8.433s	1	45	1	1	0
	TT2	96	6.052s	1	107	2	1	1
Int. 2	TT1	51	5.655s	1	55	0	6	0
	TT2	93	7.743s	4	111	3	8	0
Int. 3	TT1	47	7.808s	13	37	3	10	2
	TT2	89	8.264s	11	73	2	14	0
Int. 4	TT1	42	4.363s	28	48	1	6	0
	TT2	82	5.515s	33	108	6	10	1
Int. 5	TT1	52	2.326s	12	65	1	10	1
	TT2	92	3.537s	28	122	2	13	0
Int. 6	TT1	37	12.643s	2	18	0	0	0
	TT2	63	11.342s	5	66	1	4	0
Int. 7	TT1	57	2.388s	12	99	2	9	2
	TT2	92	4.460s	13	147	3	11	1
Int. 8	TT1	57	6.039s	0	85	2	5	0
	TT2	106	4.673s	8	144	5	22	0
Int. 9	TT1	34	7.676s	34	88	2	6	0
	TT2	67	8.697s	53	161	4	15	0
Int. 10	TT1	44	3.750s	2	35	1	5	0
	TT2	84	7.360s	5	80	8	9	1

Table 5

5. Conclusions

From the results of the analysis and description of silent pauses and disfluencies in ST and TT the following conclusion can be drawn: occurrences in ST and in the interpreters' deliveries are certainly related. Yet the data collected confirm that the influence is not as direct as one could assume. TTs contain fewer, but altogether longer silent pauses than ST, as confirmed by their average duration and particularly by the longest pause values in the interpreters' speeches. In addition, TTs have a slightly higher number of grammatical pauses, while the only parallel trend for these occurrences in ST and TT seems to be their distribution within the different duration-intervals. Both ST and TT have a much

higher incidence of occurrences in the intervals from 0.25 to 1.25 seconds. Unlike the original texts, TTs show a remarkable incidence of pauses from 2.5 to 5 and from 5 seconds up, which do not even exist in ST. Another difference concerns vowel and consonant lengthenings, which are much more numerous in the interpreted texts. The values concerning interruptions indicate the prevalence of repeats in ST, while false starts occur only in TTs. As far as filled pauses and restructuring are concerned it is difficult to point out general trends because of marked differences among the interpreters. Altogether this heterogeneous picture speaks against the presence of a systematic correspondence of non-fluencies in ST and TT. Occurrences in the participants' productions were very often due to problems of technique, namely unbalanced attention sharing, which may compromise the listening phase and lead to a fragmentary delivery. Some difficulties can be attributed to the fact that the subjects were students, but the presence of many non-fluencies in the ST surely does not make their task easier. Even if there is no formal correspondence, some occurrences in TT are caused by the need to wait for new items, delayed because of a speaker's pause and/or interruption. Besides, the fact that there is no systematic correspondence between occurrences in the original text and its interpreted version does not mean that there is no link at all. The description of text samples has shown that certain non-fluencies in ST may cause hesitation in the speaker which, though expressed through a different type of occurrence, is still clearly related to the ST item. In many cases it is useful to keep a certain time-lag from the original text in order to reformulate or even summarise the message, a strategy adopted here by the professional interpreter (although it must be stressed that differences between this participant's and the students' deliveries concerned informative completeness rather than the presence/absence of disfluencies). A finding emerging from a comparison among TTs is the strong subjectivity in the production of non-fluencies by each participant. Further investigation is required to find out if a sort of individual pattern exists in the use of silent pauses and disfluencies. Many findings support this hypothesis: the maximum and minimum values for pause duration, longest pause, filled pauses and syllable lengthenings are reported by the same participants in both TT1 and TT2.

Another important result of this study is the communicative, sometimes even strategic use of some non-fluencies by the interpreters. The most common examples are: silent or filled pauses before a correction, which give salience to the rectified item, lengthenings on the tonic vowel, contributing together with intonation to draw attention to the lexical item and finally retrospective repeats, re-establishing a connection with an interrupted utterance.

An important matter with reference to non-fluencies in SI is how they are perceived by the listener. As Viezzi (1999: 150) observes, only an in-depth

analysis of the communicative situation and the receivers' characteristics and expectations will allow the interpreter to use the best strategies for a successful interpretation in this sense.

It is therefore impossible at this stage to identify clear trends in the incidence of non-fluencies in the interpreters' productions. Further experiments with larger samples will have to be carried out in order to draw significant conclusions. Besides numerical findings this study offers some indications for continued exploration of non-fluencies as relevant strategic tools for the achievement of the goals of a particular communicative situation. The following approach by Enkvist & Björklund (1989: 325 in Pöchhacker 1994: 136) could be extended to SI research:

We are [...] looking at hesitations and structure shift, not as instances of regrettable human imperfection but rather as important devices helping people to manage in spite of the strains inherent in real-time processing of discourse. They are worth studying as integral parts of spoken communication and discourse which help speakers to maintain cohesion and coherence and to adapt their text to the requirements of receptors and situations.

Appendix

Following symbols were used in the transcription:

x:	vowel or consonant lengthening
()	silent pause duration in seconds
*	glottal click
[]	paralinguistic remark (cough, etc.)
ə	brief vocalised hesitation (like a schwa)
äh, ähm	vocalised hesitations in the German text
mm	vocalised hesitation in both German and Italian text
eh, ehm	vocalised hesitations in the Italian text
Ø	clause or sentence omission in the interpreter's text
xxx	repeat (of a letter, word or phrase)
<u>xxx</u>	correction
<u>xxx</u>	double correction (counted as 2 corrections)
<u>xxx</u>	false start

SPEAKER: [...] dieses Element wird meines Erachtens überschätzt (1.068) es ist ein Element unseres Erfolgs es ist aber nicht da:s Element das entscheidende Element sondern das ist ein (0.985) ein ein ich würde sagen ein ein

Bausteinsystem ein Modul (0.461) in einem Erfolgskonzept das (0.457) äh nicht ausschließlich auf der Frage der Zuwanderungspolitik aufbaut [...]

INT 1: [...] l'elemento dell'immigrazione della politica dell'immigrazione è stato sopravvalutato è uno degli elementi ma non certo quello fundamenta:le (3.452) si tratta di: una compone:nte di un sistema modula:re potremmo dire ma (1.817) non è certo: (0.440) il punto fundamenta:le [...]

INT 2: [...] un altro eleme:nto un altro moti:vo della no della forza del nostro partito (0.318) è: (0.731) rappresentata: (4.035) dal fatto che: (5.655) abbiamo: (0.763) assunto: (0.350) un elemento: (0.286) una posizione: particolare in merito all'immigrazione (3.590) la nostra politica: (0.636) sull'immigrazione non è nulla di spettacola:re [...]

INT 3: [...] è: uno degli elementi del nostro elemen uno dei nostri (0.287) ehm degl'elementi che ci ha permesso di vi:ncere le elezioni non l'unico ma uno degl'elementi (1.928) abbiamo: (1.409) propo:sto (0.916) un:a nostra politica che non si concentra solame:nte sulla politica d'immigrazio:ne [...]

INT 4: [...] questo (0.746) è un elemento molto importante della nostra politica ma non l'elemento più importa:nte (1.347) direi: che ehm ə abbiamo elaborato un mo:dulo per quanto riguarda l'immigrazione che non si concentra solamente sull'immigrazione sulla politica dell'immigrazione (0.385) come ta:le [...]

INT 5: [...] anche se secondo me questo motivo viene (0.365) purtroppo sopravvaluta:to non è di certo l'elemento decisivo è solo uno dei tanti eleme:nti (1.254) io direi che: è solamente un: modulo (0.317) nel modul nel nostro concetto di succe:sso (2.326) comunque la nostra politica: ə degl'immigrati viene spesso sopravvaluta:ta [...]

INT 6: [...] questo è un elemento molto importa:nte (1.484) è uno degl'elementi che ha contribuito alla nostra vittoria ma non l'elemento decisivo fondamentale (4.040) dunque è uno degl'elementi che ha: (0.470) costituito (0.460) il nostro successo ma non l'elemento decisivo [...]

INT 7: [...] è un elemento del nostro successo sicuramente ma non è l'u:nico (1.662) anzi (1.306) direi che si tratta (0.373) di un mo:dulo ne in un conce:tto di: successo (0.484) che: (1.170) perché la nostra politica non si intere:ssa solo * non è: solo politica d'immigrazione [...]

INT 8: [...] ovvero questo eleme:nto secondo me è sopravvaluta:to (0.680) è un elemento del nostro succe:sso ma non è l'unico eleme:nto l'elemento decisi:vo (2.446) direi (0.567) che (0.731) si ha è una struttu:ra che si compone di tanti pe:zzi (1.286) e che non: (0.290) consiste solo nella problematica dell'immigrazione [...]

INT 9: [...] qui tutti questi eleme:nti sono quelli da prendere in considerazio:ne (0.531) per: eh giustificare (0.258) il: mia vittoria non è s:olo quest'ultimo elemento è u:no degli eleme:nti eh della mia vitto:ria (4.089) e quindi non ci si è concentrati solamente sulla questio:ne della: politica d'immigrazione [...]

INT 10: [...] (0.792) quest'ultimo elemento per no secondo me è stato sopravvalutato: to è uno degli'elementi che ha portato (1.105) a votarci (0.927) fa parte (0.568) di un progetto (0.718) di successo del nostro partito che non si basa soltanto sulla politica dell'immigrazione [...]

INT 11: [...] questo elemento quindi a mio avviso viene sopravvalutato (0.816) è: sicuramente un elemento del nostro successo ma non è l'elemento fondamentale (3.784 * *) diciamo: che la nostro: concetto di successo è stato costituito da vari (0.278) elementi (0.297) tra cui l'immigrazione non è stato: sicuramente l'aspetto più: importante [...]

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THE OVERALL IMPORTANCE OF THE HERMENEUTIC PACKAGE IN TEACHING MEDIATED INTERLINGUAL INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION¹

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An introductory *caveat*

The reader unfamiliar with my development of García Landa's model and its symbols is advised to pay a preliminary visit to the Appendices. In the body of this paper I shall limit myself briefly to stress the relevant points and proceed to dwell on what, following García Landa, I shall call the hermeneutic package governing every single act of speech production and comprehension, and which interlocutors must share in order successfully to understand each other.

The essentials of my development of García Landa's model

García Landa 1990 and 1998 understands communication through speech as the production of speech perceptions that he calls linguistic percepts (symbolised as *LPs*²). Let me remind us what he means: what a speaker means to say, his *vouloir dire* or meaning meant, comes to his conscience as a linguistic percept intended (*LPI*), that is, as it were, an "amalgam" of propositional and pragmatic content moulded by and articulated as speech. Such perception of what a person wishes to communicate to himself or others does not come from nowhere or for no reason at all: it is always the product of a conscious motivation governed by the speaker's unconscious as a certain orientedness towards his addressee³ (which I symbolise respectively as *W* and *Z*) governing a main and a host of secondary pragmatic intentions (*Y*). It is always a function of a complex system

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- 1 Updated version of the paper submitted to the international seminar *Training Translators and Interpreters: New Directions for the Millennium*, Vic 12-15 May 1999.
 - 2 In previous pieces (Viaggio 1998, 1999a, 1999b and 1999c), I followed García Landa's own use of his acronym for *espacio perceptual hablistico (EPH)*, which he has now abandoned.
 - 3 I borrow this term from Toolan 1996, who defines it as what any two people minimally require to understand each other. I stress here that kind of mutual orientedness which is inaccessible to the person's conscience, since what he is aware of can be subsumed in his conscious motivation.

of relevant encyclopaedic entries or general pre-comprehension schemes (K)⁴, which are indispensable for understanding. Such a speech perception is normally couched in units selected from, and articulated according to, the different virtual systems of the same language; although it need not necessarily be the case.

Following García Landa⁵, I find it convenient to distinguish four main elements within the linguistic chain: 1) its phono-morpho-semantic structure, governed by a certain virtual system L ; 2) its semantic potential, governed by its own virtual system H ; 3) its prosodic structure, governed also by its own virtual system R ; and 4) its register Q ⁶ – one of several possible such registers. Thus, knowledge of L , H , R and Q equals knowledge of the global linguistic system (or subsystem) governing a specific utterance. This is not to be assimilated to the traditional, intuitive view: L , H , R and Q may correspond to a hybrid lect such as Spanglish or Creole, or any specific dialect or sociolect of a given “language”. People who have trouble with teen talk or professional jargons can be said to be basically H -deficient, whilst students who know English but find that they cannot understand the Irish or Australian “accents”, for instance, lack enough knowledge of the phonic component of the relevant L , and possibly also R . In this light, it stands to reason that an interpreter who is called upon to understand and eventually reproduce well nigh automatically all manner of geographical, social, professional and other lects must have a whole repertoire of the relevant subsystems of the hyper- or arch-systems L , H , R and Q of what we somewhat sloppily and a-critically call, for instance, the Spanish or English language.

That with respect to language. As we know, utterances do not float in timeless ether – nor are they produced or understood by isolated brains⁷. To

4 K stands, *inter alia*, for Malmkjaer’s passing theories, Seleskovitch and Lederer’s *savoir partagé*, or whatever it is that any two or more people need to understand each other’s *LPIs*.

5 In his versions of 1990 and 1998, García Landa had not yet included prosody. On my part, I have added register.

6 As pointed out above, the virtual linguistic systems according to which an utterance is articulated may or may not be that of a single “language”. More often than not, people, especially non-native speakers – or translators and interpreters vulnerable to interferences from the original language – will mix or combine the phono-morpho-syntactic, semantic or prosodic systems of one language with those of another. It takes the mother to grasp the incipient still somewhat amorphous versions of the relevant systems her child is applying in its efforts to communicate through speech (in this respect, we can posit that mother and child share a unique code hermeneutically accessible to them alone).

7 The above applies both to interpersonal communication and to inner speech, i.e. to the speaker communicating with himself - except that in order to make this meaning

begin with, every act of speech is produced in a specific social situation governed by a more or less structured or loose, tacit or explicit, rigid or flexible system of more or less institutionalised practices, norms, rules and beliefs P ⁸. And it is also governed by a system of specific, thematic and otherwise *ad hoc* knowledge, which García Landa calls its relevant world M ; this applies as much to a formal meeting as to an interview with a social worker or a casual encounter. Mutual knowledge of these practices (most particularly of what Hatim 1997 calls “sociotextual” practices) and relevant world are also essential for communication to succeed. Thus, whilst K is the general extra-linguistic baggage people resort to for their myriad exchanges, P and M are the situation-specific elements of the hermeneutic package. (In the hermeneutic package you are applying in order to understand this paper, dear reader, K and M overlap almost completely – except perhaps for the intrusion of the unconscious, imported from psychoanalytic theory, i.e. from K to M .) This distinction between P and M on the one hand, and between M and K , on the other (all of which, in actual fact, constitute a continuum with the other components of the hermeneutic package) serves the methodological purpose of distinguishing general from thematic knowledge, and thematic knowledge from the social norms pertaining to a given situation. From a different perspective, the Hallidayan notions of tenor and field parcel this continuum somewhat analogously: what is more relevant to this model (since it is not explicitly identified as a crucial element of P) is tenor – the power relations between the different interlocutors, most particularly in the case of judicial and community interpreting.

At the other end of this social process, applying at the same time retroactively and prospectively to the semiotic stimulus the filter of his own conscious (U) and unconscious motivation to understand (which, in order for comprehension to succeed, must of necessity be attuned to the speaker’s, wherefore both are symbolised as Z), and applying his own general pre-comprehension schemes and knowledge (which, again, in order for

meant accessible to others, the speaker cannot but reduce it to some kind of sensorial stimulus. García Landa and I are not interested in this stimulus’s physical configuration as differences in air pressure or in its neurophysiological production or processing, but stress rather its semiotic, i.e. social essence and linguistic, paralinguistic and kinetic configuration as it is produced by the speaker in a specific social situation. By reducing simultaneous interpretation to a neurophysiological and cognitive process taking place as it were in a social vacuum, Gile’s efforts model ignores, precisely, the mediating effort: the assessment of the social situation and the aptest communicative strategies that it calls for. A good interpreter is doing more than simply comprehending, manipulating memory and producing utterances.

8 Searle’s notion of “background” can be roughly assimilated to P .

comprehension to succeed must coincide with those of the speaker's, whereby both are symbolised as *K*), the listener perceives meaning meant as a new "amalgam" of propositional and pragmatic content moulded by and articulated by speech. This García Landa calls comprehended linguistic percept or *LPC*, i.e. meaning understood – a perception that is the cognitive and pragmatic product of speech comprehension⁹, which in turn produces in the subject of comprehension specific a main and a series of secondary contextual effects (*Aa*) – cognitive, pragmatic and even aesthetic. García Landa postulates that communication has been successful if and only if meaning meant as perceived by the speaker and by the listener are identical, i.e. if they are perceptions of the same social object, which in our case is always defined as an intended or comprehended *LP*¹⁰. Such identity can be empirically verified, if at all, at trivial levels; We assume that it must be – and historically has been – achievable often and effectively enough for the species to perceive, talk about, fight over and otherwise act upon the same world and thus survive through collective intentionality (Searle 1995). Even when communication fails, we can become aware of it and think, speak and eventually remedy any mismatch in our mutual perceptions of each other's meaning meant. Together, *K*, *P* and *M* constitute the extra-linguistic half of the hermeneutic package. It is useful perhaps to explain why I think that *Z* has a place – and a most decisive one at that – in my development of García Landa's model. This role is better described negatively: communication cannot be successful if the unconscious resistance to be understood or to understand is such that no amount of conscious effort will help - those of you who are married need no further proof.

Motivations, intentions, and effects

May I interpolate that if, as I have noted, speech acts are not produced in a social vacuum or for no reason at all, they are not without social consequences either: the subject of the comprehension experiences specific contextual effects. Strictly speaking communication can be said to have pragmatically succeeded if

9 Speech comprehension – the mostly spontaneous and immediate seizure of meaning meant – is, of course, but the first Peircean semiosis (see Gorrée 1994) produced through the hermeneutic package. Understanding that the plumber is telling us that we should change the pipes requires nothing beyond such an immediate semiosis. Further semioses may lead us to understand that he is cheating us, that he cheats because of some kind of psychological trauma, and so forth *ad infinitum* (the subject is specifically discussed in Viaggio 1999b).

10 The distinction is methodologically convenient, but in actual fact, even the speaker's perception of what he means to mean is the result of a comprehension process. Only what we comprehend is accessible to our conscience: *LPI*'s can only be postulated.

the pragmatic effects of comprehension match the speaker's pragmatic intentions (i.e. when an argument meant to convince actually convinces), but that is seldom the case. Pragmatic success can be more modestly described as the absence of obvious failure, i.e. when co-operation by one of the interlocutors is not inordinately weakened or cancelled by pragmatic obstacles (irritation and boredom most notably included). In any event, the mediator must be aware that sometimes perceptual identity (*LPI=LPC*) does not go hand in hand with pragmatic success – even as so modestly defined. Of course, unless his loyalty lies squarely with the speaker, the mediator cannot take “pragmatic” sides; yet, in principle, it is nevertheless his duty to help avoid or minimise any unintentional mismatch between motivations, intentions and effects - i.e. between *W* and *Yy* on the one hand, and *U* and *Aa* on the other. It is up to him to determine the relative importance of *LPI/LPC* identity with respect to pragmatic adequacy. By pragmatic adequacy I mean an adequate correlation between the speaker's motivations and intentions and the addressee's motivations and the effects that comprehension has upon him. The mediator has as his fundamental pragmatic task to determine (and establish) relevant *LPI/LPC* identity. Such relevant identity may well be “minus,” as when propositional content deemed socially irrelevant or, worse, pragmatically counterproductive in the new situation is altogether omitted by the mediator; or it may be “plus”, as when information is added; or it may be “zero”, as when information is substituted, for instance in the case where an untranslatable or pragmatically inept joke is substituted with another. If the achievement or avoidance of certain pragmatic effects becomes the main mediating task, as is normally the case at the beginning of exchanges, when the interlocutors are simply breaking the ice and establishing the grounds for co-operation, then propositional identity is totally subordinate to pragmatic adequacy.

Except in the most obvious cases, such as humour, many practitioners, especially in simultaneous conference interpreting, overlook the relative weight of the pragmatic component in communication and mediation. Trainers have thus the task to instil in the new generations a more modern, scientific, global view of mediation as “translation plus”, i.e. as not merely translation, but of translation that is pragmatically adapted to the social needs of mediation. As we have seen, mediation may sometimes become “translation minus” and even “non translation”. But this is the subject of another paper. Let us go back to the subject in hand.

The hermeneutic package

It seems obvious that linguistic knowledge on its own is never enough to infer an *LPI* (i.e. to get a relevantly identical *LPC* from any semiotic chain, whatever

its degree of explicitness). Successful communication (both at the elocution and comprehension poles) requires an adept application of the general and specific, encyclopaedic, thematic and cultural knowledge that governs speech production and perception, fostered rather than impeded by the interlocutors' conscious and unconscious sensitivity and predisposition. Resorting to the model's parlance, we can therefore describe successful communication as a function of the linguistic and extra-linguistic hermeneutic package both consciously and unconsciously applied by either interlocutor in an act of speech. In order to succeed, communication necessitates of both interlocutors an adequate application of knowledge of the linguistic systems *L*, *S*, *H*, and *Q*, of the world at large *K*, and of the social practices and norms *P* and relevant world *M* governing a specific social situation, fostered by a positive unconscious mutual orientedness *Z* - or at least unfettered by excessive resistance. If this is so, it stands to reason that communication cannot succeed unless both the speaker and the addressee share this hermeneutic package. Any mismatches are bound to hamper or altogether prevent communication. This is crucial for the mediator: it is up to him to remedy or minimise, in so far as objectively and deontologically possible, any such mismatches. Successful mediated communication depends on the mediator's adroit application of an adequate hermeneutic package in his double role as pole of comprehension in the original speech act and pole of production in the second one.

The hermeneutic package's didactic significance

It ought to be a truism that translation in general and interpretation in particular begin with having understood and end in having succeeded to communicate. This requires, of course, an adequate innate subjective predisposition, both emotional and cognitive that must be instilled and developed - students must be taught to think as translators and interpreters. In this respect, then, I submit that teaching translation and interpretation must begin by teaching how communication through speech works, what the conditions that must necessarily obtain are, how to determine that they are in fact in place, and how to help institute them or at least palliate their absence if they are not. In other words, the would-be translator or interpreter must himself understand what understanding is, and learn how to achieve it and promote it effectively. All our collective complaints about our students' lack of passive language knowledge and active language competence, general culture and analytic capacity can be reduced to a single hyper-problem: a precarious and flimsy hermeneutic package, full of glaring holes and dangerously loose ends, sloppily applied. It also goes without saying, on the other hand, that expertise at understanding specific people and making oneself understood by specific people in specific circumstances, despite

linguistic, cultural, psychological, political and other barriers, demands intellectual and experiential maturity: one cannot really expect to come across truly competent mediators at a very young age. This essential maturity requirement has led to the widespread assertion that interpretation should be a postgraduate academic endeavour. Indeed, if simultaneous interpretation is taken for what it really is, namely the most demanding form of mediated intercultural interlingual communication from the cognitive and neurophysiological point of view, then there is no reason why interpreters should be churned out in two to four years by the hundreds, with no intercultural experience, and both existentially and intellectually immature. But then there is no reason either for them to have to acquire such maturity studying something at best marginally relevant to mediating: if physicians and lawyers are not expected to mature elsewhere in academia, why then interpreters? Let interpretation be a postgraduate course at a school of interlingual intercultural mediation, not just an afterthought to other pursuits.

That having been said, whatever the human material that may befall us, it is clear that our task can only begin to succeed if we manage to equip our students with a minimally adequate hermeneutic package – or, rather, help them acquire it on their own – and impart to them a minimally competent skill at applying it. This requires, above all, developing the habit of methodical analysis, i.e. teaching a hermeneutic method (with discourse analysis firmly rooted at its centre). In this, our main obstacle lies in the *contra natura* essence of translational comprehension. A mediator, by definition, is dealing with communication not addressed to him, in which he is not directly interested, either cognitively or, worse, emotionally. The main difference between a direct interlocutor and a mediator, then, lies in their respective attitude towards what is being said. We must teach our students to listen and read as if they were personally interested in the pragmatic and cognitive effects of comprehension. Unless these basic elements are reasonably in place, there is simply no hope that in whatever real or imaginary social situation pertaining at the moment, meaning as understood by the student will be relevantly identical to the speaker's meaning meant.

Then comes the second part. This meaning meant that is not meant for them and about which they tend not to give a hoot, our student must now transmute into their own meaning meant – except that this new *LPI* must now be articulated in the target language. The turn has come for the student to make himself understood – not in general, not in the abstract, but by a specific if imaginary audience (about which the student probably does not care a hoot either) endowed with their own adequate or inadequate hermeneutic package, which they will apply more or less competently or willingly, in part as a function of their own interests in or resistance to the contextual effects of having

processed the stimulus provided by the mediator. Now, our student must speak as if he had his own personal stake in what he is saying, i.e. in the speech act that he initiates. As any other speaker, he too cannot but have a conscious motivation, governed by an unconscious motivation, governing in turn a main and a host of secondary pragmatic intentions. He must simply try and attune them to his function as professional mediator. At this point, his active competence to produce all manner of suitable linguistic utterances in the target language becomes indeed decisive – but not much more than his ability to assess the audience’s hermeneutic capability and willingness to co-operate, without which communication between him and them cannot succeed. Unless these complementary hermeneutic and heuristic competencies are reasonably in place, there is little chance a) that the student will have understood the speaker, b) that he will have adequately transmuted meaning understood into meaning meant, and c) that he will then manage to convey his meaning meant relevantly, i.e. in such a way that it can be properly and effectively understood by his audience without unnecessary or unjustified processing effort; so that e) his audience will end up relevantly understanding the meaning meant by the speaker. This, alone, is what successful mediation is about¹¹ – namely, bringing about relevant identity between the speaker’s *LPI* and the addressee’s *LPC*.

Let me explain once again what I mean by relevant identity: 1) Rarely if ever do the motives that prompt a speaker to produce and verbalise a speech perception match the motives that move a listener to pay attention and try to understand it. To boot, in mediated interlingual communication not only is there by definition a total or at least partial absence of a shared linguistic hermeneutic package (otherwise why the need for a mediator?) but, more decisively, even if co-operation is fully in place, rarely if ever do the respective extra-linguistic hermeneutic packages overlap enough for full comprehension to be possible - or mutually relevant. The last and most difficult task to be taught and learnt is, precisely, that of mediating between people who, however bent on understanding each other, lack crucial elements of the hermeneutic package that makes such understanding possible, and, besides, have no fully shared assessment of relevance.

How can a simultaneous interpreter – let alone a student – reach such a level of hermeneutic analysis and heuristic prowess... in the 250 odd milliseconds that equals real time in simultaneous interpretation? The model I propound here, I submit, helps visualise and stake out the road. This is, I think, its pedagogical

11 In our view, there is little point in researching speech comprehension and production in translation or interpretation *per se*, as if it were a different animal. Rather, what translation and interpretation do indeed offer a researcher is a unique window into speech-related and cognitive processes and anomalies that are normally inaccessible in non-translational speech.

usefulness, and on this basis I proceed to suggest that a particular approach be tried out.

A new pedagogical approach

The difficulty that comes immediately to mind when speaking about conference interpreting is the most apparent (but not, I dare venture, the fundamental one): that of medium- and short-term memory for consecutive interpretation, and of short-term memory and real time (including the overlapping of speech comprehension, processing and production) for simultaneous interpreting. Consecutive interpretation does not pose this latter *contra natura* problem (and, as such, it is cognitively “easier”), but introduces its own: the artificially long separation between comprehension and production (whereby it becomes cognitively more difficult)¹². The only kind of interpreting that is free from both anti-natural demands is dialogic interpretation (the only form of mediation that, within the limitations of a person’s hermeneutic package, can be performed “naturally”), whence its limited training value... Unless, of course, the hermeneutic asymmetry is stressed, which demands an “unnatural” stretching of the student’s hermeneutic package and its heuristic application. This, I submit, could well be the most adequate beginning for professional training, of both interpreters and translators. If neurophysiologically simultaneous interpretation is the most demanding form of mediated intercultural interlingual communication, and if consecutive interpretation is the form that most unnaturally taxes medium-term memory and demands a new auxiliary, potentially distracting mnemonic technique, what about learning first to mediate interlingually and interculturally without additional “unnatural” demands and limitations? Only once the essence of mediating is more or less assimilated does it make sense to make it neurophysiologically more complicated. It should not take inordinately long.

It bears pointing out that there is a crucial difference in the way the hermeneutic package needs to be accessed by the interpreter and the translator: real time. If the translator normally has enough time to access – and extend – his linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge as he is translating, i.e. by interrupting his work, what the interpreter cannot remember there and then is as good as non-existent – or worse. Often, awareness that he knows, say, a word or term that refuses to come to mind will distract an interpreter from the task in hand, whether it be understanding or speaking. That is why training, especially of

12 Which, by the way, should be a decisive argument **against** making consecutive an eliminatory step before simultaneous, unless the problems lie in an obvious hermeneutic inanity rather than in memory or note taking.

simultaneous interpreters, must pay particular attention to increasing the immediate, automatic accessibility of a rich and systematically organised hermeneutic package.

Some suggestions

In the light of the facts discussed above, may I put forward some basic suggestions that might improve interpreter training:

- 1) Stress from the very beginning and at all stages that mediating involves, on the one hand, the mediator's pragmatic and cognitive hermeneutic ability to identify relevance a) for the speaker, b) for the speaker's original addressees (individually and collectively), and c) for his, the mediator's, own addressees (again, both individually and collectively). It also entails his heuristic competence to produce an optimally relevant series of speech acts himself, so that he can reasonably assume that within the subjective and objective limitations inherent to any act of interlingual intercultural mediation optimum relevant identity may be obtained in the end between the perception that a speaker wishes to convey and what the interpreter's interlocutors perceive¹³.
- 2) Obviate any unnecessary complications due to the chronological distance or overlap of both speech acts and the reification of speech through writing until an apt hermeneutic method is basically in place (again, this should not take too long). At the same time, pull speaker and interlocutor culturally and socially further apart, thus honing the student's mediating abilities.
- 3) Proceed to simultaneous interpretation with a clear awareness that a student's ability to comprehend and produce speech must compete and overlap with his ability to mediate effectively.

13 It is worth noting that, barring the totally un-hermeneutical clozing (which may, perhaps help detect psycho-motor ability, though I doubt it very much), all the exercises I know of are hermeneutically oriented one way or another. As I see it clearly now, the common aim of all the ones I have suggested myself, from abstracting and condensing (Viaggio 1992b) to active inferring (Viaggio 1996a), through cognitive clozing (Viaggio 1992a) and sight translation (Viaggio 1995), and of my views on kinesics (Viaggio 1997) or the difficulties of metalingual use in simultaneous interpretation (Viaggio 1996b), has been systematising and developing the hermeneutic package and fostering its application – except that until fairly recently I lacked a unifying model that could shed systematic light on all these different skills as applied to understanding *LPI*'s in one language and facilitate their verbalisation in a new language as a function of the new hermeneutic package to be applied by the interpreter's interlocutors.

Conclusion

Let me stress the obvious corollary of the model: communication theory as applied to mediated intercultural interlingual communication together with its simplest and most glaring and accessible application – dialogic interpretation, should be taught at the very beginning. Unless the mediating essence of interpretation has been fully assimilated, it is premature to try and develop the specific cognitive and motor skills that distinguish consecutive or, especially, simultaneous interpretation from other forms of mediation. I, for one, find it unrealistic to teach simultaneous interpretation as an alternative to translation. It should come at the very end of a full relevant academic experience in mediated interlingual intercultural communication. As most of us advocate, selection at this stage must be fair and realistic: few students have the required congenital cognitive and motor disposition (like musicians or mathematicians, interpreters and translators are born after all!). I hope that my development of García Landa's model may help set priorities right: ontologically and by the degree of neurophysiological¹⁴, cognitive and social complexity and difficulty of the tasks in hand. One thing, I submit, is certain: barring the mnemonic and psychomotor techniques specific to consecutive and simultaneous interpretation, the didactics of interlingual intercultural mediation boils down to getting students to develop their hermeneutic package, and to access and heuristically apply it ever more aptly and automatically.

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14 Lest it should not be clear, García Landa and I do not deny the value and usefulness of research into the neurophysiological and cognitive aspects of speech production and comprehension in general, and in translation and interpretation in particular: we simply insist upon putting the social horse before the cranial cart (for a detailed discussion see Viaggio 1996c).

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APPENDIX 1

The Garcia Landa Models as Developed by Viaggio

a. The model of the act of speech (a general model of verbal communication)

García Landa's models of verbal communication and translation (initially formulated in his 1978 doctoral thesis and published in 1990 and 1998) are, to my knowledge, the most comprehensive, refined and rigorously formalised to date. In consultation and co-operation with him, I have developed and synthesised them into a mediation model. The versions discussed below are the latest. In its present form, the model of (successful) communication can be summarised as follows:

- 1) Every act of speech D (whether oral V , written T , or interiorised I) in a given language o is a social transaction whereby someone (the subject of production), out of a conscious motivation W , governed by an unconscious predisposition to communicate Z , with a main pragmatic intention Y and secondary pragmatic intentions y , wishes to communicate a perception LPI^5 which is a function of a given set of pre-comprehension schemes, knowledge base or passing theories K .
- 2) To that effect, he sets in motion a complex mental operation which involves mainly constructing and presenting to his interlocutor(s) a finished social product which is a sign chain F in language o . Such a chain consists of a) a phono-morpho-syntactic structure X (actualising a certain phono-morpho-semantic system L); b) a semantic potential S (actualising a semantic system H); c) a rhythmico-prosodic structure V (actualising a rhythmico-prosodic system R); and d) a register J (from a register series Q). This chain is also necessarily accompanied by a series of suprasegmental (paralinguistic or typographical) features C , and kinetic or graphic features E that reinforce, nuance or modify its sense. (In written and face-to-face oral communication, then, the stimulus triggering the comprehension process consists of three components: F , C and E , although the last one is lost in strictly acoustic communication such as radio, telephone, etc., often making comprehension more difficult.)
- 3) The speech act is carried out in a given social situation or socio-historical field G governed by a shared system of beliefs, norms and practices, or a certain shared life and personal experience P , within a given relevant world M , at a historic moment VH , and, within that moment, at a specific time t . (All components are characterised by specific set of features m , n , etc.).
- 4) Someone else (the subject of comprehension, who more often than not is the same person playing both roles, i.e. communicating with himself), is listening and understanding in a complex mental operation which results in

his producing a perception $LPCo$, which is also a function of the same knowledge base K . In order to do so, he must build upon or overcome his conscious motivation or resistance U and be in turn governed by an unconscious predisposition to communicate Z . We should stress the active nature of comprehension, whereby the comprehender (re-)constructs his speech perception of the speaker's meaning-meant retro-applying his own filters U , Z and K to the acoustic/optic stimulus $[FCE]$. Comprehension, moreover, produces upon him a main and secondary pragmatic effects Aa , which may or may not correspond to the speaker's intentions.

The key notion is that, whether written or oral, literary or not, a speech act is much more than its verbalised vehicle - which is, itself, more than its sheer linguistic chain. Resorting to the symbols alone (where $>$ indicates determination, \bullet production and $\bullet\bullet$ production through retro-projection; the mantissas represent the events and phenomena taking place in real space/time and the exponents the virtual systems or structures gravitating upon them) verbal communication is then formulated as:

$$D(V/T/I)o: W^Z > Yy > LPI^K o \bullet \\ Fo(Xm^L, Sm^H, Vm^R, Jm^Q)CmEmJG^{PM}VHtm \bullet\bullet U^Z > LPC^K o \bullet Aa$$

Communication will have succeeded if:

$$G^{PM} (LPIo [=] LPCo)$$

b. The interlingual intercultural mediation model

The truly expert interpreter, of course, does more than merely re-produce a speech perception: he mediates, he shuttles between the speaker's lips and the addressee's ears, modifying or altogether disregarding certain elements as a function of his own *skopos*. The mediator takes such "liberties" because he is a human being involved in speaking, as opposed to a machine receiving one code through its keyboard and producing another on its display. In this liberty lies the heuristic nature of his activity. As has often been said, the translator does not find equivalencies, he creates them each time he comes up with a verbalisation: an Fi which is the product a) of his comprehension of the $LPIo$ - his $LPCo$ (the hermeneutic part of his task), and b) his analysis of the new communicative situation (K , G , P , M , VHt , U^Z). Such an analysis may well lead him to modify even the intention or function of the original speech act. We are, in fact, still dealing with identity, except that now our aim is not so much global propositional and pragmatic identity but relevant identity, i.e. the necessary degree of perceptual identity (and it may be zero) that allows for the relevant correlation (NB, not necessarily correspondence) of the speaker's and the mediator's pragmatic intentions, on the one hand, and the contextual (cognitive

and pragmatic) effects of comprehension on the other. On the basis of this relevance, the mediator operates a transmutation of *LPCo* into *LPIi* and produces his new chain *Fi* with all manner of transformations. Between what he has understood as comprehender of the *LPIo* and what he decides to convey as verbaliser of his *LPIi* lies the essence of the interpreter's mediating activity: by transforming he exercises both his deontologically responsible freedom and his loyalty.

In symbolic notation, the model of interlingual intercultural communication would look like this:

$$\text{Do: } W^Z > Yy > \text{LPIo}^K \bullet [\text{Fo}(\text{Xm}^L, \text{Sm}^H, \text{Vm}^R, \text{Jm}^Q) \text{CmEm}] \text{G}^{\text{PM}} \text{VHtm} \bullet \bullet \\ \text{U}^Z > \text{LPCo}^K \bullet \text{Aa} [\bullet]$$

$$\text{Di: } [\bullet] W^Z > Yy > \text{LPIi}^K \bullet [\text{Fi}(\text{Xn}^L, \text{Sn}^H, \text{Vn}^R, \text{Jn}^Q) \text{CnEn}] \text{G}^{\text{PM}} \text{VHtm} + \\ \text{n} \bullet \bullet \text{U}^Z > \text{LPCi}^K \bullet \text{A}$$

Where the symbol $[\bullet]$ stands for the adaptation that the mediator operates between *LPCo* and *LPIi*. Mediation succeeds when, within a given objective situation influenced by subjective emotional and cognitive factors, relevant perceptual identity $[=]$ is established between what the speaker wishes to convey and what the interlocutor understands:

$$\text{G}^{\text{PM}} (\text{LPIo} [=] \text{LPCi})$$

This is, then, an ideal model of what may be heterofunctional/heteroscopic mediation, which posits as a felicity condition a relevant identity between *LPIo* and *LPCi*. Thus, it serves also as a quality standard, harmonising description and prescription: unjustified, avoidable deviations from global identity can be deemed to be methodologically wrong. To my mind, our model's uniqueness is that it assimilates and dialectically develops all relevant attempts at defining and explaining translation (dynamic equivalence, *théorie du sens*, *skopos*theorie, etc.) encompassing and accounting for all of the relevant factors identified so far. Another advantage is its symbolic notation, which makes it possible to represent the relevant notions and their relationships directly and graphically, so that no time is wasted discussing names and definitions, which is the social researcher's bane. As a matter of fact, the notions can be developed without changing the symbols.

APPENDIX 2

The Symbols and their Definitions

<i>W</i>	Conscious motivation governing elocution.
<i>Z</i>	Unconscious mutual orientedness governing both interlocutors.
<i>Y</i>	Main pragmatic intention.
<i>y</i>	Secondary pragmatic intentions.
<i>U</i>	Conscious motivation or resistance governing comprehension.
<i>A</i>	Main pragmatic (or contextual) effect.
<i>a</i>	Secondary pragmatic (or contextual) effects.
<i>LP</i>	Speech perception - articulation of the propositional and affective content through speech.
<i>LPI</i>	Intended speech perception - what the speaker means to convey.
<i>LPC</i>	Comprehended speech perception - what is perceived by the comprehender.
<i>K</i>	Relevant knowledge and pre-comprehension schemes.
<i>D</i>	Speech act - <i>V</i> oral, <i>T</i> written, <i>I</i> inner, <i>L</i> reading.
<i>F</i>	Linguistic-signs chain (utterance).
<i>o</i>	Source language.
<i>i</i>	Target language
<i>X</i>	Phono-morpho-syntactic structure.
<i>L</i>	Phono-morpho-syntactic system.
<i>S</i>	Semantic potential.
<i>H</i>	Semantic system.
<i>V</i>	Rhythmico-prosodic structure.
<i>R</i>	Rhythmico-prosodic system.
<i>J</i>	Register.
<i>Q</i>	Possible registers (it is a moot point whether registers constitute a system).
<i>C</i>	Paralinguistic (elocutional) or perilinguistic (typographic) configuration.
<i>E</i>	Kinetic or graphic configuration.
<i>G</i>	Socio-historic field.
<i>P</i>	System of beliefs, experiences, norms and practices (culture or background knowledge).
<i>M</i>	Relevant world.
<i>VH</i>	Historic time.
<i>t</i>	Moment.
<i>n, m</i>	Specific characteristics.
<i>></i>	Determination.
<i>•</i>	Unidirectional production.

- Bi-directional production (retro-projection by the comprehender on the sensorial stimulus of his motivation/knowledge and its projection on the speech perception).
- = Perceptual identity.
- [=] Relevant perceptual identity.
- [•] Transmutation by the mediator of the comprehended perception into intended perception (the basis of relevant identity).

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