Università degli Studi di Trieste
Dipartimento di Scienze Giuridiche, del Linguaggio, dell'Interpretazione e della Traduzione

The Interpreters' Newsletter

No. 27
2022

EUT

n. 27/2022

The Interpreters' Newsletter of the Dipartimento di Scienze Giuridiche, del Linguaggio, dell'Interpretazione e della Traduzione, Sezione di Studi in Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori (SSLMIT) is an international journal promoting the dissemination and discussion of research in the field of Interpreting Studies.

ISSN 1591-4127 (print)
ISSN 2421-714X (online)

Euro 25,00

The Interpreters' Newsletter
Dipartimento di Scienze Giuridiche, del Linguaggio, dell'Interpretazione
e della Traduzione
Sezione di Studi in Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori (SSLMIT)
Università degli Studi di Trieste

ISSN: 1591-4127 (print)
ISSN: 2421-714X (online)

EUT Edizioni Università di Trieste
via Weiss, 21 – 34128 Trieste
eut@units.it
http://eut.units.it
https://www.facebook.com/EUTEdizioniUniversitaTrieste

The Interpreters' Newsletter

No. 27
2022

EUT EDIZIONI UNIVERSITÀ DI TRIESTE

Contents

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), VII-XVII
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34388 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Editorial

The first issue of *The Interpreters' Newsletter* appeared back in 1988, when the scientific study of interpretation was "emerging from its infancy" (Crevatin 1988: 1) and manifesting its interdisciplinary nature. By drawing especially on general linguistics and neurosciences, that first issue set out the journal's mission to explain "the interpreter's ability to carry out extremely complicated operations requiring remarkable psycho-motor co-ordination" (*Ibidem*). Since then, "the discipline has [...] come of age" (Garzone/Viezzi 2002: 2), exploring multidisciplinary scholarly territories and harnessing innovative methodological resources to describe an increasingly diversified and constantly evolving profession, which has experienced different turns over the last few decades (Pöchhacker 2008).

The diverse interests and overarching approach of the journal are all the more reflected in the most recent issues, which explored a wide range of topics, including the didactics of interpreting, corpus-based dialogue interpreting studies, interpreting and interpreters throughout history, sign language interpreting, expertise in conference interpreting, public service interpreting and television interpreting.

In carrying on the tradition of the very first journal on Interpreting Studies, the contributions included in issue 27 of *The Interpreters' Newsletter* address a variety of research areas, encompassing both interpreting practice (papers 1-4) and interpreting education (papers 5-7) with multiple approaches and methods.

The first study related to interpreting practice is based on corpus data from the European Parliament (EP). The EP has attracted the increasingly growing attention of interpreting scholars over the last two decades, making its plenary sittings one of the most scrutinized interpreter-mediated communicative situations. It stands as an ideal source of data for scholars seeking to analyse professional interpreters' performance in the most multilingual international institution ever. Looking at a corpus of English and Polish material from seven plenary debates of the European Parliament held between 2016 and 2020, Magdalena Bartłomiejczyk examines how simultaneous interpreters handle face-threatening, face-enhancing and neutral utterances addressed directly at specific individuals or larger groups participating in the debates. After giving an overview of research on address studies, personal deixis, dialogism in EP plenary debates, mediation of (im)politeness and facework in interpreting, the author outlines a quantitative and qualitative analysis of omissions and additions of addressatives, meaning shifts, (im)personalisation, deictic shifts and facework shifts observed in the corpus. Bartłomiejczyk's study demonstrates that the addressative pattern of the ST is considerably modified by interpreters; in particular, the author concludes that the elimination of addressative forms by the interpreter cannot be said to determine a clear reduction of directness and that face-threatening addressatives are transferred and added by interpreters slightly more often than neutral ones, which, in turn, are more frequently omitted.

The remaining three contributions concerning interpreting practice touch upon remote interpreting. This comes as no surprise given the disruptive impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on how interpreters (and not only interpreters) used to work and to be trained. Two survey studies explore the consequences and effects of pandemic-related constraints for conference interpreters in Spain and for public service interpreters in the Emilia-Romagna region in Italy.

Bachir Mahyub Rayaa and Anne Martin surveyed professional conference interpreters with experience in Remote Simultaneous Interpreting (RSI) to find out more about perceptions, preferences and practices. The analysis of respondents' feedback offers an insightful glimpse of RSI practices in the Spanish freelance conference interpreting market in the wake of the Covid-19 pandemic. Information is provided regarding the frequency and format of remote assignments, location of performance, the most widely used platforms, preferences, training, together with the perception of advantages and disadvantages. Despite the limited sample size, the results point to a radical change in perception, with a general acceptance of RSI, which also brings a number of advantages. Notably, in light of the study RSI appears to be, rather than a temporary solution for a crisis scenario, a consolidated format coexisting with in-person interpreting and having specific advantages and disadvantages. In this respect, the authors are hopeful that greater awareness of the needs and requirements involved in RSI may contribute to better working conditions for the professionals "at the end of the supply chain".

On the other hand, Federica Ceccoli and Ira Torresi examine the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on Public Service Interpreting in Italy. After outlining the professional figure of the Italian "mediator" - a dialogue interpreter who works in community settings, is specialised in interlanguage and intercultural communication, and facilitates migrants' access to public services - they illustrate the online survey that was conducted with twenty-seven mediators working in the Emilia-Romagna region to find out more about the perceptions of their work during the pandemic. The results show that respondents perceived a detrimental effect on their work due to pandemic-related changes, with particular reference to the transition from in-person to remote mediation, which was perceived as more stressful in that it especially prevented non-verbal communication. In light of these findings, Ceccoli and Torresi's overview of the profession over the last two years offers useful suggestions for interpreter training and informing the professional development of Public Service Interpreting in Italy.

The last study relating to remote interpreting is a methodological piece as a result of an experimental endeavour to investigate stress levels in simultaneous interpreting within the broader field of Cognitive Interpreting Studies. Nicoletta Spinolo, Christian Olalla-Soler and Ricardo Muñoz Martín report on an experiment they conducted at a time when RSI was not as common as it can be now, after the dramatic development of apps and platforms for virtual meetings. They collected physiological data by means of a wrist band device, along with a post-task questionnaire to collect psychological data. In particular, their analysis focuses on the measurement of heart-rate variability (HRV) as an indicator of stress in simultaneous interpreters working onsite and remotely. Although the results of their observational and exploratory study are inconclusive, the authors offer insightful methodological suggestions to appropriately "find a way into an interpreter's heart", as all the methodological challenges and pitfalls discussed in this paper can be extremely useful to inform future research in the same field to address questions such as: why is RSI more stressful? What are the conditions that make it more stressful? Is RSI eventually more stressful than in presence events?

The next set of papers revolve around interpreting education and focus on spoken language interpreting and sign language interpreting alike. The first two contributions are based on real life pedagogical experiences. Agustín Darias Marrero and Clara León Delgado scrutinise the role of teaching theatrical techniques in consecutive interpreter training by carrying out a didactic experiment to explore stress management. The authors organised a theatre workshop with students enrolled in a consecutive interpreting university module, with a view to investigating the effectiveness of theatrical techniques in reducing stress levels and improving consecutive interpreting students' skills, including public speaking skills. The analysis of video-recorded consecutive interpreting practice sessions before and after participation in the workshop reveals that the students performed better in consecutive interpreting after the workshop, both in terms of stress management and non-verbal communication. The results confirm previous research on theatrical experience applied to interpreter education on a larger scale (Fernández García *et al*. 2009) and suggest that even a crash course can have beneficial effects on learners in order to minimise stress and optimise target-speech rendition.

Moving to sign language interpreting education, Mark Halley and David G. Phillips critically examine a pedagogical experience in applying discourse analysis to an ASL-English interpreting course. Their students were asked to interpret an academic paper in the field of T&I into a completely different genre, with a special focus on distinguishing features of the new genre selected by the students. Examples of students' output range from breaking news television broadcasts to product infomercials and even a drag show, displaying a terrific level of creativity. Although the authors are nonetheless concerned about the weak proficiency in ASL found in the students' performance, their educational proposal can be inspirational and be adjusted to other learning environments.

Finally, Beneharo Álvarez-Pérez and Jessica Pérez-Luzardo Díaz report on the results of a survey study in which they explore learners' perception and use of glossary making in T&I education. They surveyed learners from two Spanish university programmes where glossary making is addressed multiple times at different stages of the curriculum. The results show that greater efforts are required of the teachers to make learners more aware of the importance of glossaries in the preparation stage of an interpreting assignment, but also that such awareness increases among more experienced students. This work may feed discussion around the role of technologies in glossary making and management, now all the more relevant with the increasingly pervasive role of AI in translation and interpreting (consider the use of tools like DeepL to automatically translate presentations and documents that would have been impossible to read through when made available at very short notice).

After introducing all the papers included in this issue of *The Interpreters' Newsletter*, it is encouraging to acknowledge the diversity of settings, interpreting modalities (spoken and sign language) and modes (simultaneous, consecutive, and dialogue interpreting) represented in it. This testifies to the great development of our discipline across multiple research paradigms and approaches, and it is clear evidence that as a community of scholars we are ready to keep up with both the natural and the unpredictable twists and turns affecting interpreting education and practice.

We would like to take this opportunity to announce the new editorial board, which was opened up to include members from universities in Italy and abroad other than the University of Trieste:

Claudio Bendazzoli, University of Turin
Emanuele Brambilla, University of Trieste
Anne Delizée, University of Mons
Caterina Falbo, University of Trieste
Simo Määttä, University of Helsinki
Natacha Niemants, University of Bologna
Marc Orlando, Macquarie University

The Interpreters' Newsletter will remain open to all kinds of methods and approaches to the study of interpreting and we hope it will continue to accompany T&I scholars in their efforts to gain insight into the past, present and future of the multifaceted world of interpreting.

Claudio Bendazzoli
Emanuele Brambilla

References

Crevatin F. (1988) “Editorial”, *The Interpreters’ Newsletter* 1, 1-2.

Fernández García M. I. / Zucchiatti M. / Biscu M. G. (eds) (2009) *L’esperienza teatrale nella formazione dei futuri mediatori linguistici e culturali*, Bologna, BUP.

Garzone G. / Viezzi M. (2002) “Introduction”, in G. Garzone / M. Viezzi (eds) *Interpreting in the 21st Century. Challenges and Opportunities*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 1-11.

Pöchhacker F. (2008) “The turns of Interpreting Studies”, in G. Hansen / A. Chesterman / H. Gerzymisch-Arbogast (eds) *Efforts and Models in Interpreting and Translation Research: A Tribute to Daniel Gile*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 25-46.

Éditorial

Le premier numéro de *The Interpreters' Newsletter* est paru en 1988, lorsque la recherche sur l'interprétation « sortait de l'enfance » (Crevatin 1988 : 1, notre traduction) et révélait sa nature interdisciplinaire. En s'appuyant notamment sur la linguistique générale et les neurosciences, ce premier numéro se donnait pour mission d'expliquer « la capacité de l'interprète à effectuer des opérations extrêmement complexes nécessitant une coordination psychomotrice remarquable » (*Ibidem*). Depuis lors, « la discipline est [...] entrée dans l'âge de la maturité » (Garzone/Viezzi 2002 : 2, notre traduction). Elle explore en effet des territoires scientifiques multidisciplinaires et exploite des ressources méthodologiques innovantes pour décrire une profession de plus en plus diversifiée et en constante évolution, qui a connu plusieurs tournants au cours des dernières décennies (Pöchhacker 2008).

La diversité des intérêts et l'approche transversale de la revue se reflètent tout particulièrement dans les derniers numéros qui se sont penchés sur un large éventail de sujets, dont la didactique de l'interprétation, les études de corpus en interprétation de dialogue, l'interprétation et les interprètes à travers l'histoire, l'interprétation en langue des signes, l'expertise en interprétation de conférence, l'interprétation de services publics et l'interprétation pour la télévision.

Dans l'esprit de cette toute première revue en Interprétologie, les contributions du numéro 27 de *The Interpreters' Newsletter* présentent des domaines variés de recherche, abordant tant la pratique de l'interprétation (articles 1-4) que son enseignement (articles 5-7) par le biais de différentes approches et méthodes.

La première étude relative à la pratique de l'interprétation repose sur un corpus de données provenant du Parlement européen (PE). Le PE a attiré l'attention croissante des spécialistes de l'interprétation au cours des vingt dernières années, faisant de ses séances plénières l'une des situations de communication interprétées les plus examinées. Il constitue une source de données idéale pour les chercheurs[1] qui se fixent pour objectif d'analyser la performance d'interprètes professionnels dans l'institution internationale la plus multilingue qui soit. Magdalena Bartłomiejczyk exploite un corpus de données en anglais et en polonais constitué de sept débats en plénière tenus au PE entre 2016 et 2020 pour étudier comment les interprètes qui travaillent en simultanée traitent les actes de langage menaçant la face, valorisant la face et les énoncés neutres adressés directement à une personne en particulier ou à un groupe de personnes. Après avoir récapitulé l'état de la recherche sur les formes d'adresse, la deixis personnelle, le dialogisme dans les débats en plénière au PE, ainsi que la gestion de l'(im)politesse et du travail de figuration en interprétation, l'auteure présente une analyse quantitative et qualitative des omissions et des ajouts de termes d'adresse, des glissements de sens, de l'(im)personnalisation, des glissements déictiques et des glissements au niveau du travail de figuration observés dans le corpus. L'étude de Bartłomiejczyk montre que le schéma d'adresse du texte source est considérablement modifié par les interprètes ; en particulier, l'auteure conclut qu'il ne peut être établi que l'élimination des formes d'adresse par l'interprète entraîne un net affaiblissement du caractère direct de la prise de parole. Elle conclut également que les actes de menace de face sont transmis ou ajoutés par les interprètes un peu plus souvent que les énoncés neutres, qui, eux, sont plus fréquemment omis.

Les trois autres contributions concernant la pratique de l'interprétation portent sur l'interprétation à distance. Ceci n'est pas surprenant, étant donné que la pandémie de Covid-19 a nettement perturbé la façon dont les interprètes (et pas seulement eux) avaient l'habitude de travailler et d'être formés. Deux études par enquête explorent les conséquences et les effets des contraintes liées à la pandémie pour les interprètes de conférence en Espagne et pour les interprètes de services publics dans la région d'Émilie-Romagne en Italie.

D'une part, Bachir Mahyub Rayaa et Anne Martin ont interrogé des interprètes de conférence professionnels ayant l'expérience de l'interprétation simultanée à distance (ISD) afin d'en savoir plus sur leurs perceptions, leurs préférences et leurs pratiques. L'analyse des réponses à l'enquête éclaire les pratiques en ISD sur le marché espagnol de l'interprétation de conférence *freelance* dans le contexte de la pandémie de Covid-19. L'étude fournit des informations à propos de la fréquence et du format des missions à distance, du lieu de prestation, des plateformes les plus utilisées, des préférences, de la formation, ainsi que de la perception des avantages et des inconvénients. Malgré le nombre limité de répondants, les résultats indiquent un changement radical de perception, qui s'oriente vers une acceptation générale de l'ISD. Celle-ci présente un certain nombre d'avantages. L'étude met en lumière l'émergence de l'ISD non en tant que solution temporaire pour faire face à une situation de crise, mais en tant que format consolidé

1 Le masculin générique sera utilisé dans la version française de cet éditorial pour désigner les interprètes, les contributeurs du numéro et les chercheurs, mais il s'agit bien entendu autant d'hommes que de femmes.

coexistant avec l'interprétation en présentiel et présentant des avantages et des inconvénients spécifiques. À cet égard, les auteurs espèrent qu'une plus grande sensibilisation aux besoins et aux exigences de l'ISD pourra contribuer à améliorer les conditions de travail des professionnels « en bout de chaîne ».

D'autre part, Federica Ceccoli et Ira Torresi examinent l'impact de la pandémie de Covid-19 sur l'interprétation de services publics en Italie. Après avoir esquissé la figure professionnelle du « médiateur » italien – un interprète de dialogue qui travaille dans des contextes communautaires, est spécialisé dans la communication interlinguistique et interculturelle, et facilite l'accès aux services publics pour les migrants –, les auteures présentent l'enquête en ligne qui a été menée auprès de vingt-sept médiateurs dans la région d'Émilie-Romagne pour en savoir plus sur la manière dont ils ont perçu leur profession pendant la pandémie. Les résultats montrent que selon les répondants, les changements induits par la pandémie ont eu un effet négatif sur leur travail, en particulier en raison du passage de la médiation en face à face à la médiation à distance. Cette dernière a été perçue comme plus stressante tout particulièrement parce qu'elle était un obstacle à la communication non verbale. À la lumière de ces résultats, le panorama de la profession au cours des deux dernières années dressé par Ceccoli et Torresi offre des suggestions utiles pour former les interprètes et alimenter le développement professionnel de l'interprétation de services publics en Italie.

La dernière étude relative à l'interprétation à distance est une réflexion méthodologique née d'une expérience visant à étudier le stress en interprétation simultanée ; elle s'inscrit dans le cadre plus large de l'interprétologie cognitive. Nicoletta Spinolo, Christian Olalla-Soler et Ricardo Muñoz Martín rendent compte d'une expérience menée lorsque l'ISD n'était pas aussi répandue qu'aujourd'hui, à présent que les applications et les plateformes de réunions virtuelles se sont spectaculairement développées. Ils ont recueilli des données physiologiques au moyen d'un bracelet, ainsi que des données psychologiques par le biais d'un questionnaire post-tâche. Leur analyse se centre tout particulièrement sur la variabilité de la fréquence cardiaque (VFC) comme indicateur de stress chez les interprètes travaillant en simultanée, soit en présentiel, soit à distance. Bien que les résultats de leur étude observationnelle et exploratoire ne permettent pas d'établir de conclusion définitive, les auteurs offrent de précieuses suggestions méthodologiques afin de « trouver un chemin pour toucher le cœur d'un interprète ». En effet, tous les défis et pièges méthodologiques discutés dans cet article peuvent être extrêmement utiles pour éclairer les futures recherches dans ce domaine et répondre à des questions telles que : pourquoi l'ISD est-elle plus stressante ? Quelles sont les conditions qui la rendent plus stressante ? L'ISD est-elle finalement plus stressante que l'interprétation en présentiel ?

La seconde série d'articles porte sur l'enseignement de l'interprétation, tant en langues vocales qu'en langues des signes. Les deux premières contributions sont basées sur des expériences pédagogiques authentiques. Agustín Darias Marrero et Clara León Delgado examinent l'apport de techniques théâtrales dans la formation des interprètes en consécutive dans le cadre d'une expérience didactique visant à explorer la gestion du stress. Les auteurs ont mis sur pied un atelier de théâtre avec des étudiants inscrits à un module universitaire d'interprétation consécutive, dans le but d'étudier l'efficacité des techniques théâtrales pour réduire le stress et améliorer les compétences en interprétation consécutive, notamment en matière de prise de parole en public. L'analyse des exercices de consécutive vidéo-enregistrés avant et après la participation à l'atelier révèle que les performances des étudiants sont meilleures après ce type d'apprentissage, tant en matière de gestion du stress que de communication non verbale. Ces résultats confirment ce qui a été établi précédemment sur une plus grande échelle en matière de techniques théâtrales appliquées à la formation des interprètes (Fernández García *et al.* 2009) ; ils suggèrent que même un cours accéléré peut avoir des effets bénéfiques sur les apprenants afin de minimiser le stress et d'améliorer la restitution en langue cible.

En ce qui concerne l'enseignement de l'interprétation en langue des signes, Mark Halley et David G. Phillips rendent compte de manière critique d'une expérience pédagogique visant à allier analyse du discours et apprentissage de l'interprétation en langue des signes américaine-anglais. Leurs étudiants ont été invités à interpréter une communication scientifique dans le domaine de la traduction et de l'interprétation (T&I) en l'adaptant à un genre discursif complètement différent et en portant une attention particulière aux caractéristiques de ce dernier. Les étudiants ont choisi des genres aussi différents qu'un bulletin télévisé d'information de dernière minute, une infopublicité et même un spectacle transformiste, ce qui témoigne d'un niveau de créativité exceptionnel. Bien que les auteurs soient préoccupés par la faible maîtrise de la langue des signes américaine chez les apprenants, leur proposition pédagogique peut être une source d'inspiration et être adaptée à d'autres environnements d'apprentissage.

Enfin, Beneharo Álvarez-Pérez et Jessica Pérez-Luzardo Díaz présentent les résultats d'une étude par enquête dans laquelle ils explorent la perception et l'utilisation de glossaires dans le cadre de l'apprentissage de la T&I. Les auteurs ont interrogé des apprenants de deux universités espagnoles dans lesquelles la constitution de glossaires est abordée à plusieurs reprises à différentes étapes du programme. Les résultats montrent que les enseignants doivent faire davantage d'efforts pour sensibiliser les apprenants à l'importance des glossaires lors de la préparation d'une mission d'interprétation, mais aussi que cette prise de conscience augmente chez les étudiants plus expérimentés. Cette recherche peut alimenter le débat sur le rôle des technologies dans la création et la gestion des glossaires, ce qui est d'autant plus pertinent que l'IA joue un rôle de plus en plus important en T&I (pensez à l'utilisation d'outils tels que DeepL pour traduire automatiquement des présentations et des documents qu'il aurait été impossible de traiter dans un délai très court).

Après avoir présenté toutes les études publiées dans ce numéro de *The Interpreters' Newsletter*, nous nous réjouissons de constater la diversité des secteurs d'intervention, des modalités (langues vocales et langues des signes) et des modes d'interprétation (simultanée, consécutive et de dialogue) qui y sont représentés. Cela témoigne du grand développement de notre discipline à travers de multiples paradigmes et approches de recherche, et c'est une preuve évidente que notre communauté de scientifiques est prête à suivre de près les évolutions naturelles et imprévisibles de l'enseignement et la pratique de l'interprétation.

Nous profitons de cet éditorial pour présenter le nouveau comité de rédaction de la revue, qui a été ouvert à des membres d'universités italiennes et étrangères autres que l'Université de Trieste :

Claudio Bendazzoli, Université de Turin
Emanuele Brambilla, Université de Trieste
Anne Delizée, Université de Mons
Caterina Falbo, Université de Trieste
Simo Määttä, Université d'Helsinki
Natacha Niemants, Université de Bologne
Marc Orlando, Université Macquarie

The Interpreters' Newsletter continuera d'accueillir une large variété de méthodes et d'approches pour étudier l'interprétation, et nous espérons que la revue continuera à soutenir les chercheurs en T&I dans leurs efforts pour mieux comprendre le passé, le présent et l'avenir de ce monde aux multiples facettes qu'est l'interprétation.

Claudio Bendazzoli
Emanuele Brambilla

Références bibliographiques

Crevatin F. (1988) "Editorial", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 1, 1-2.
Fernández García M. I. / Zucchiatti M. / Biscu M. G. (eds) (2009) *L'esperienza teatrale nella formazione dei futuri mediatori linguistici e culturali*, Bologna, BUP.
Garzone G. / Viezzi M. (2002) "Introduction", in G. Garzone / M. Viezzi (eds) *Interpreting in the 21st Century. Challenges and Opportunities*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 1-11.
Pöchhacker F. (2008) "The turns of Interpreting Studies", in G. Hansen / A. Chesterman / H. Gerzymisch-Arbogast (eds) *Efforts and Models in Interpreting and Translation Research: A Tribute to Daniel Gile*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 25-46.

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 1-19
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34389 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Addressing others through an interpreter: is the directness reduced across the pragmatic spectrum?

Magdalena Bartłomiejczyk
University of Silesia in Katowice

Abstract

This corpus study aims to explore, both qualitatively and quantitatively, how simultaneous interpreters handle face-threatening, face-enhancing and neutral utterances addressed directly at specific individuals or larger groups participating in plenary debates of the European Parliament. The corpus under analysis comprises all English and Polish material from seven debates held between 2016 and 2020. Eleven hours of original speeches and interpretations were manually annotated for second-person deixis and nominal forms of address. Based on previous research, it was expected that interpreters would tend to reduce directness by omitting and transforming addressative forms, and that face-threatening ones would be prone to mitigation. The results of the analysis disprove these initial hypotheses. While the number of addressatives is indeed reduced in the interpretations, this roughly corresponds to the overall text compression rate. Moreover, face-threatening addressatives are transferred and added by interpreters slightly more often than neutral ones, which, in turn, are omitted more often.

Keywords

Simultaneous interpreting, European Parliament, directness, addressative forms, personal deixis, honorifics

Introduction

Conference interpreting may be described as overwhelmingly monologic, especially if viewed against the background of community interpreting, where the primary interlocutors typically enter into a dialogue enabled and coordinated by the interpreter (see, e.g., Tiselius 2022). Still, also in conference settings speakers sometimes do directly address their audience, or specific members thereof. This is definitely the case for plenary debates of the European Parliament (EP). Simultaneous interpreting of interactions (particularly between participants using different languages) vividly shows parliamentary interpreting as part of a triadic exchange. At the same time, the interpreter's role as a mediator and coordinator is extremely limited due to his/her spatial distancing from the participants (in contrast to community interpreting, see, e.g., Wadensjö 1998). Interpreter-introduced shifts may sometimes visibly steer the interaction during the debate in a different direction (e.g., Bartłomiejczyk 2019: 403).

Previous research (e.g., Knapp-Potthof 2005; Monacelli 2009; Warchał *et al.* 2011) has shown the tendency of interpreters to reduce directness. This trend is particularly well-documented for face-threatening content. For interpreting in the EP, Bartłomiejczyk (2016) shows widespread use of mitigation, which is often manifest in face-threatening acts becoming more indirect in the interpretation. This effect is achieved mainly through deictic shifts, impersonalization and omission. However, the corpus in that study is limited in terms of representativeness as the speakers from one political party (UKIP) were deliberately selected to include primarily highly face-threatening content, and only one interpreting direction is examined. Having a larger and more balanced (although also highly adversarial) corpus at my disposal, I would like to explore the questions whether directness tends to be reduced and whether there are any noticeable differences in how addressatives are transferred across the pragmatic spectrum. More specifically, I take into consideration second-person deixis and nominal forms of address as interpreted between Polish and English (in both directions) throughout seven plenary debates held in the years 2016-2020. While (in)directness is obviously a much broader concept (see, e.g., Grainger/Mills 2016), these linguistic forms may be seen as interesting entry points to explore possible shifts in interpreted political discourse, as "pronouns of address are often the site for complex negotiations of face" (Hatim/Mason 1997: 68).

1. Addressing others: a theoretical background

Address Studies is a branch of linguistics that endeavours to answer the question: "Who uses which form towards whom, in what situation and for what purpose?" (Moyna *et al.* 2019: 2). Address research basically deals with second-person deixis (i.e., forms whose addressees can only be derived from the situational context) and nominal forms of address (i.e., vocatives and honorifics that specify a particular addressee), sometimes also with third-person personal reference. As rightly argued by Truan (2021: 2), in parliamentary debates "choosing how to refer to other discourse participants is a strategic, argumentative, and dialogical act". Her contrastive research on monolingual parliamentary discourse vividly demonstrates the exploratory potential of what she calls "the politics of person reference". This paper aims to take a similar, pragmatically-oriented approach to interpreted parliamentary debates. It is ultimately grounded in widely acknowledged (im)politeness theories (Goffman 1967; Brown/Levinson 1987; Bousfield 2008; Culpeper 2011) and informed by more focused explorations of adversarial parliamentary discourse (e.g., Harris 2001; Ilie 2004). Understandably, interpreting adds to the complexity of the communicative event, and my analysis cannot be limited to second-person forms only, as interpreters often transform them so that the meaning they carry is expressed by other means. Moreover, the original speaker's communicative goal is not necessarily achieved to the same degree for source and target language audiences, and this needs to be accounted for through detailed comparative analysis.

Addressing others may substantially differ cross-linguistically, which is a challenge for translation. Considering the two languages involved in the current study, I will try to outline very briefly the relevant differences between Polish and English (for details, see, e.g., Kiełkowicz-Jankowiak 1992; Bogdanowska-Jakubowska/Bogdanowska 2021).

As for nominal forms of address, formal ones employing the addressee's second name rather than position, which are neutral in English, are deemed rather impolite in Polish. Consequently, literal translations (e.g., *Mr Tusk – panie Tusk*) may not be pragmatically equivalent and in most cases Polish interpreters make the necessary adjustment (*panie przewodniczący* 'Mr President' or *panie przewodniczący Tusk* 'Mr President Tusk').

The situation is much more complex when it comes to second-person deixis. As a highly inflectional language, Polish tends to omit personal pronouns and the meaning they carry in English is encoded in verb or adjective endings. Including the pronoun will usually serve emphasis. That is why it is often more appropriate to refer to YOU-perspective as a more general term, not necessarily involving pronominal use. Even more importantly, there is a striking contrast between the versatility of *you* in English and a wide range of corresponding second-person forms in Polish. First, they differ for singular and plural. Second, as a language with a T-V distinction, Polish offers a choice between informal/more intimate forms and formal/more distanced forms. While the former may be expressed relatively straightforwardly with second-person pronouns (*ty* – singular, *wy* – plural) and/or matching second-person verb forms, the latter is more complex. In singular, pronominal nouns *pan* (masculine) or *pani* (feminine) are accompanied with third-person singular forms. In plural, *państwo* (or, possibly, *panowie* when addressing only men or *panie* – only women) may be accompanied either by second-person plural verbs (more informally, e.g., *słyszycie państwo* 'you can hear') or by third-person plural (more politely, e.g., *słyszą państwo* 'you can hear'). Finally, both in English and Polish YOU-perspective can express some general truths, but its generic use appears more informal in Polish (where an impersonal construction is preferable in formal contexts). Consequently, transferring *you* into Polish may be quite difficult, as it requires selecting among a number of possible forms on the basis of the context.

From a monolingual perspective, personal deixis is a prominent topic for analysts of political discourse (e.g., Billig 1995; Chilton 2004). Bani rightly points out that “personal deixis facilitates the transmission of political convictions and is used to accept or reject linguistically the responsibility for an action” (2016: 5). According to Tyrkkö, “personal pronoun use is never more intensively purposeful than in political rhetoric” (2016). However, it is first-person deixis, and in particular the highly ambiguous *we*, that attracts the most scholarly attention (e.g., Proctor/Su 2011). In comparison, *you* seems relatively underresearched, especially in English (but see, e.g., Bull/Fetzer 2006). Still, there are interesting studies concerning languages making a distinction between T and V forms, such as Kostro/Wróblewska-Pawlak (2011) analysing a presidential campaign debate between Tusk and Kaczyński, who try to undermine each other’s positions under the pretence of overt politeness.

2. Dialogism in plenary debates of the European Parliament

Simultaneous interpreting is generally associated with interlingual transfer of monologic discourse rather than of interactions among delegates. Interpreting plenary debates of the EP also largely fits into this pattern. As argued by Kent, “[a]lthough described as ‘debate’, the speeches given by Members during plenaries are mainly directed to consumption by home country audiences via the internet, television and radio rather than as engagement with colleagues who are in the same room” (2009: 57). Marzocchi (1998) also notes lack of spontaneity and little interaction among speakers in the plenary, and points out that real discussions are conducted in other types of meetings with scarce public exposure. Consequently, addressing someone directly may be an exception to the general rule of monologism, but such instances are not particularly rare.

The plenary debates are highly structured events and the time allotments for speakers are short, particularly for MEPs representing small political Groups or unattached. Generally, the debates tend to be more monologic at the beginning, as they start with longer pre-prepared statements by the Council and the Commission. As the debate progresses and MEPs representing ever smaller (and, oftentimes, more radical) political Groups take the floor, the contributions become shorter, more spontaneous (with fewer read-out speeches), more dialogic and, incidentally, also more impolite. Dialogism culminates in the so-called blue card procedure, when MEPs ask short (30 seconds) questions of the speaker who has just finished, and the speaker is supposed to answer, taking maximally one minute. Though the question may even not be interrogative, but take the form of a challenge, and the answer might be very evasive, terms of address and personal deixis are common here.

Incidentally, the level of directness in parliamentary discourse is often artificially limited through institutional restraints. This is very conspicuous in the British House of Commons, where, *inter alia*, interlocutors should address the Speaker rather than their opponent, which is “a distancing strategy, which heightens the formality of the interaction in a way which is almost invariably associated with negative politeness” (Harris 2001: 463–464). In fact, also the EP’s Rules of Procedure require that “Members [...] shall address the President”, but this is neither widely respected (with the exception of the perfunctory initial vocative *Mr/Madam President*) nor enforced.

3. Literature review

The relevant research falls into two categories: pragmatically-oriented studies that explore the postulated distancing effect in interpreting in a more general way, often alongside other shifts, and research focusing specifically on personal deixis. However, only a fraction of the studies (Chang/Wu 2009; Monacelli 2009; Duflou 2012; Bani 2016; Bartłomiejczyk 2016 already mentioned in the Introduction) report on observational research involving simultaneous conference interpreting as performed by professionals.

Studies representing the first category are very numerous, therefore, the discussion will be highly selective. For instance, Knapp-Potthoff (2005) experimentally investigates mediation of (im)politneness by ad-hoc interpreters (three foreign language students). They interpret various versions of a telephone conversation in which the addressee is asked to return an overdue book. The analysis reveals "levelling of politeness" (2005: 70), i.e., far-reaching omission of both politeness and impoliteness strategies. The author hypothesizes that this might be inherent in interpreting. In simple terms, impolite source texts would tend to become less impolite, and polite ones less polite.

In her groundbreaking study of professional community interpreting, Wadensjö (1998) presents evidence of facework performed by interpreters to ensure good rapport between the participants. Their efforts involve, for example, rendering the more formal Russian plural address form *vy* with the more friendly Swedish second-person singular. On the other hand, when the interpreter in the British immigration office addresses Polish interviewees using second-person singular forms in the study by Mason/Stewart (2001), this appears very face-threatening due to the power difference between the interlocutors.

Monacelli (2009), in turn, explores simultaneous interpreting as performed by professionals in authentic conference settings in Italy. The analysis shows, *inter alia*, how stance, voice and face are modified by interpreters through shifts in personal deixis, in transitivity patterns, and in illocutionary force, respectively. The general trend is towards reduced directness and illocutionary force as well as increased distance.

The second category abounds in research on community interpreting, likely to involve some confusion due to primary participants' unawareness of the conventions governing interpreted exchanges. Angermeyer (2005), for instance, outlines how interpreted second-person address can be misunderstood in court if it is directed at someone else than the target language listener. Bot (2005), in turn, examines interpreted psychotherapy sessions. Interpreters frequently depart from the speaker's perspective, either adding *s/he says* and retaining the original deixis, or using fully-fledged reported speech. No specific types of utterances seem particularly prone to this; the author perceives the shifts as idiosyncratic translational behavior that does not lead to misunderstandings.

Dialogue interpreting in high-level political settings is much closer to my field of interest. Here, Zhan (2012) presents the Chinese perspective, characterized by interpreters' clear allegiance to one party, i.e., the Chinese government who employs them as civil servants. The detected shifts fall into two categories according to whether or not the interpreter's footing changes. The category retaining the original footing is dominant and it comprises shifts between first or second and third person. They do not display a clear pattern and some are assessed as awkward. By contrast, the author identifies three clear aims interpreters pursue when using *I* on their own behalf: "to avoid misunderstandings or impoliteness, to cope with frequent changes of speaking subjects, and to correct an error in the rendition" (2012: 214). Many interesting examples are provided, such as the interpreter explaining that the Chinese official is just being modest when he says that his work is of low quality.

In the context of conference interpreting, the study by Warchał *et al.* (2011) is highly relevant, albeit carried out on interpreting trainees recorded in a lab. They interpret consecutively fictitious speeches either criticizing or praising the audience while addressing it very directly as *you*. The envisaged audiences vary across source texts. When the interpreters themselves are among the addressees (students of their university), they tend to employ distancing strategies such as passive and impersonal constructions, nominalization of verbal clauses, or deictic shifts (from *I* and *you* to first-person plural, from *you* to third-person plural). Interestingly, this trend is observable for both criticism and praise.

Chang/Wu (2009), in turn, focus on Q&A sessions from international conferences held in Taiwan. Shifts in addressative forms occur more often when the simultaneous interpreter mediates between two speakers using different languages rather than when s/he enables others to follow an exchange in one language. Interpreters tend to adapt address forms to target language norms (that differ substantially between Chinese and English) and to add them when deemed necessary to clearly identify the addressee.

As an EU interpreter and therefore a 'practisearcher', Duflou (2012) reports on observed departures from the first-person norm, i.e., switches into the so-called "reporting mode". They occur primarily when the interpreter needs to explain some technical problems (such as the speaker's failure to switch on the microphone) or to specify who is being interpreted in case of rapid or overlapping exchanges. However, *says the speaker* may also be added to distance oneself from factual errors or opinions with which the interpreter strongly disagrees.

Bani (2016), in turn, examines first-person singular and plural deixis in authentic Spanish-Italian interpretations provided during a journalism festival in Italy. The analysis reveals a similar prevalence of this type of deixis in the source and target texts, however, the occurrences do not necessarily correspond to each other. In other words, first-person deixis is frequently omitted, added or modified. Omissions tend to decrease the subjectivity of the text, while additions seem to function mainly as 'padding' giving the interpreter extra time for planning. Some additions emphasize the speaker's foreign origin, i.e., where the speaker uses the name of his/her country alongside third-person verb forms, the interpreter introduces first-person plural deixis (e.g., *in Venezuela abbiamo una crisi*).

On the whole, departures from the norm that dictates adherence to source text deixis and personal reference seem frequent across a wide range of interpreting modes and settings. As Zhan rightly notes, shifts of this type "indicate how the interpreter participates in the communication, and point to how s/he perceives and performs the role of a mediator as against the expected/normative role" (2012: 197). They are attributed to various motives and they clearly require more scholarly scrutiny.

4. The study

4.1 Data

The material under analysis comes from the extensive bidirectional, parallel EP-Poland corpus (nearly 21 hours of recordings, over 157,000 tokens) that comprises all the English and Polish contributions to 11 plenary debates of the European Parliament held in the years 2016–2020 (Bartłomiejczyk *et al.* 2022). The analysis covers seven debates – see Table 1 for details. The interpreting directions English-Polish and Polish-English are represented almost evenly. The main topic is the rule of law crisis triggered by the Law and Justice government in Poland, along with other, related moves that limit citizens' rights (bills aimed at a total abortion ban and at forbidding sexual education in schools – debates 3 and 5, respectively). Most of the speakers clearly fall into two opposing camps, arguing either that the democratically elected government has the right to do as it sees fit and the EU should not interfere, or that the government is a danger to democracy and its actions should be thwarted by the EU.

	Date	Title	No. of tokens	Duration of speeches delivered in Polish	Duration of speeches delivered in English	Duration of original speeches in both source languages
1	2016-01-19	Situation in Poland	23,684	58 min 46 sec	36 min14 sec	95 min 00 sec
2	2016-09-13	Recent developments in Poland	8,654	19 min 08 sec	16 min 27 sec	35 min 35 sec
3	2016-10-05	Women's rights in Poland	12,106	29 min 25 sec	17 min 31 sec	46 min 56 sec
4	2018-02-28	Commission decision to activate Article 7 (1) TEU	9,257	09 min 34 sec	25 min 47 sec	35 min 21 sec
5	2019-10-21	Criminalization of sexual education in Poland	6,342	15 min 36 sec	12 min 10 sec	27 min 46 sec
6	2020-01-15	Ongoing hearings under article 7(1) regarding Poland	12,405	16 min 40 sec	31 min 43 sec	48 min 23 sec
7	2020-02-11	Ongoing threat for the rule of law in Poland	10,318	13 min 06 sec	28 min 29 sec	41 min 35 sec
Total			82,766	162 min 15 sec	168 min 21 sec	330 min 36 sec

Table 1: Overview of the material

4.2 Method

For the needs of this study, the material has been manually annotated by the author for addressative forms, which involved a detailed, pragmatically-oriented comparative analysis. The annotation is illustrated in Table 2 (with an additional gloss). Addressative forms in either language are classified as face-enhancing <Add+>, face-threatening <Add-> or neutral <Add=>. As Polish syntax makes a distinction between singular and plural forms, in this language, singular ones are coded as <1>, while plural ones as <2>. Likewise, in Polish, less and more formal forms are coded as <T> and <V>, respectively. The part after the slash refers to the equivalence between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) or lack thereof. Forms that have their close counterparts are coded as </Eq>, and those which do not as </ST> (present only in the source text, i.e., omitted by the interpreter) or </TT> (present only in the target text, i.e., added by the interpreter). </ST> or </TT> may be followed by </sys> if lack of an equivalent addressative form is due to systemic differences between the two languages. Finally, </D-SHIFT> means that the deictic perspective has been modified by the interpreter, while </F-SHIFT> means that the interpreter has performed some facework, changing the pragmatic status of the addressative form (e.g., from face-threatening to neutral or vice versa). The annotations are placed after the relevant item.

Janusz Korwin-Mikke, unattached	Gloss	Interpretation
Panie Przewodniczący! <Add=1V/Eq> Ja nie jestem demokratą. Demokracji nienawidzę, demokracją pogardzam, ale wy jesteście demokratami <Add-2T/ST>. W takim razie przyjmijcie do wiadomości <Add-2T/Eq>, że lud polski, legalnie i demokratycznie, wybrał PiS. Chcieliście demokracji <Add-2T/Eq>, no to ją macie <Add-2T/Eq>.	Mr President, I'm not a democrat. I hate democracy, I despise democracy, but you are democrats. Then, acknowledge that the Polish people, legally and democratically, has elected PiS. You wanted democracy, so you've got it.	Mr President, <Add=/Eq> I'm not a democrat. I hate democracy. @ D-Democracy is vile. I want you to understand <Add-/Eq>, the democrats in Poland voted for PiS. You wanted democracy <Add-/Eq>, you've got democracy <Add-/Eq>.

Table 2: An example of corpus annotation for addressative forms

In Table 2, the fragment is transferred relatively closely in terms of addressative forms, even though, interestingly, there is one very clear shift in the overall meaning (*the democrats in Poland voted for PiS*). The ST is decisively face-threatening, which is reflected in the presence of four face-threatening addressative forms. Not only do they express face-threatening acts such as blaming and criticizing, but also they are all T forms, not fully appropriate in parliamentary discourse. The latter, obviously, cannot be transferred into English, which may lower the perceived level of face threat. The initial address to the chairperson is classified as neutral due to its purely perfunctory role. Out of the five addressative forms present in the ST, four are transferred to the TT and none is added by the interpreter. The pragmatic status of all the transferred forms (i.e., <Add=> or <Add->) remains the same. More divergent renditions will be illustrated in Section 4.4.

4.3 Quantitative analysis

Out of 1,168 addressative forms present in the STs, 647 were transferred into the TTs (albeit not always with the same pragmatic status), while 521 were omitted and 337 were added in the TTs. Therefore, 55% of the original addressative forms were transferred to the TTs, and 45% were omitted. In the TTs, on the other hand, transferred addressatives account for 66%, and added ones for 34%. This suggests that the interpretations are somewhat less direct than the originals, however, such a conclusion could be misleading. It should be taken into consideration that simultaneous interpreting generally involves more omission than addition and the TTs tend to be shorter than the originals. Across the EP-Poland corpus, the text compression rate is 14.33% (Bartłomiejczyk *et al.* 2022: 116), while in the material under analysis, the reduction rate for addressatives is 15.84%. These values are quite close.

As already indicated, some modifications are attributable to systemic differences between the two languages involved. Among forms present only in the STs, 74 (14.20%) belong to this category, and among forms present only in the TTs – 48 (14.24%). The shares of language-dependent omissions and additions are therefore almost identical, and they should not act as a confounding factor in the analysis. A great majority (over 85%) of omissions and additions are optional.

Facework shifts changing the pragmatic status of an addressative occurred only 19 times, and deictic shifts 78 times. The facework shifts mainly caused mitigation of face-threatening addressatives, which were neutralized 12 times. The opposite shift occurred five times, and in two cases face-enhancing addressatives were neutralized. The deictic shifts resulted in 36 non-equivalent second-person forms in the STs and 42 in the TTs. These include 62 face-threatening addressatives as compared with 10 neutral and 6 face-enhancing ones.

Results accounting for the pragmatic status of addressatives across the material are shown in Table 3. They suggest a tendency for interpreters to boost face-threatening content: face-threatening addressatives seem somewhat more likely to be transferred closely or added than neutral ones. The number of face-enhancing addressatives is probably too low to venture any generalizations, but there also seems to be a slight tendency to add rather than omit them. The emerging pattern in transferring addressative forms according to their pragmatic status was tested with the Chi-square test (significant at $p<.05$). The obtained result is $\chi^2 = 18.97$, $p<.001$, which indicates that the detected differences are significant.

Addressative forms	Neutral (<Add=>)	Face-threatening (<Add->)	Face-enhancing (<Add+>)	Total
Transferred closely (pairs of equivalent addressatives in ST and TT)	253 (40.29%)	338 (53.82%)	37 (5.89%)	628
Omitted (present only in ST)	269 (51.63%)	220 (42.25%)	32 (6.14%)	521
Added (present only in TT)	139 (41.25%)	171 (50.74%)	27 (8.01%)	337

Table 3: Transfer of addressative forms according to their pragmatic status

4.4 Qualitative analysis

The (in)frequent use of addressative forms seems to be a feature of individual speakers' style. A mixture of addressatives of varying pragmatic status often co-occurs with first-person singular forms, which are relatively rare and decisively outnumbered by first-person plural forms across the corpus. Therefore, there seems to exist a distinct 'personal' style, whose representatives include MEPs from various political Groups (and using either source language) such as Guy Verhofstadt, Syed Kamall, Sophia in 't Veld, Ryszard Legutko and Robert Biedroń. In this section, I will briefly discuss the most typical interpreting shifts that either make this style less apparent or boost it.

4.4.1 Omission proper

There are several distinct reasons why an addressative form that is present in the original may be missing in the interpretation. The most straightforward one is the interpreter deleting whole propositions in which addressatives are embedded, i.e., what I call omission proper – see Table 4.

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
1. Stanisław Żółtek, ENF	Zajmijcie się <Add-2T/ST> lepiej tym, co sami stworzyliście, <Add-2T/ST> czyli napływem zarazy islamskiego terroru.	You'd better work on what you've created yourselves: the influx of the plague of Islamic terror.	–
2. Patryk Jaki, ECR	I państwo celowo kłamiecie <Add-2V/ST> i wprowadzacie <Add-2T/ST> wszystkich w błąd.	And you are deliberately lying and you are misleading everyone.	–
3. Ryszard Legutko, ECR	Nie ma niczego złego w takiej konstrukcji i żeby pan nie wiem jak arytmetycznie to obracał, <Add-1V/ST> to i tak pan tego nie udowodni, <Add-1V/ST> bo to jest całkowicie racjonalna, normalna konstrukcja.	There is nothing wrong with this construction and however you swivel it arithmetically, you will not prove it, because it's a totally rational, normal construction.	There is nothing wrong @ with @ this composition of the Tribunal. It's totally rational and normal construction of the composition of a court.
4. Julie Ward, S&D	So, thank you. <Add+/ST> Continue <Add+/ST> to speak up. Together we can be strong.	Together we will be strong.	Wspólnie będziemy silne.

Table 4: Omission proper

Examples 1-3 illustrate omission of highly face-threatening content, with Examples 1 and 2 addressed more generally at the speaker's opponents in the audience, and Example 3 – at MEP Verhofstadt, who took the floor directly before MEP Legutko. The face-enhancing Example 4 is addressed at Polish pro-choice activists whose representatives are present in the gallery.

While it would be tempting to attribute the shifts in Examples 1-3 to the interpreters' desire to mitigate the message, omission may easily stem from other considerations than reducing danger to the addressees' face, such as difficulty to keep up in view of the speakers' high delivery rate. Comprehension problems seem less likely, as in all three cases we deal with A-B interpretations provided by native speakers of Polish. Cognitive constraints and the tendency not to offend may in fact both conspire, which results in a mitigated TT version.

4.4.2 Meaning shifts

Sometimes omission and/or addition of addressatives is related to shifts in meaning that affect a longer text fragment – see Table 5.

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
5. Guy Verhofstadt, ALDE	So, I have only one question to you, < Add-/ST> and I think you can respond <Add-/ST> to that at least, as Prime Minister. If the Venice Commission gives a negative opinion, shall you follow this opinion <Add-/Eq> of the Venice Commission? And can we maybe have answer immediately?	I hope that I have answered, and that you are responsible for this as Prime Minister, for this also. If the Venice Commission gives a negative opinion, you should track this opinion and act in accordance with it. Maybe this is the answer.	Mam nadzieję, że odpowiedziałem, i że pani jest za to odpowiedzialna <Add-1V/TT> jako premier, za to również. Jeżeli Komisja Wenecka wydaje negatywną opinię, to to powinien powinni państwo <Add-2V/ Eq> śledzić tą opinię i postępować według niej. Być może to jest właśnie odpowiedź.
6. Janusz Korwin-Mikke, unattached	To wy chcieliście <Add-2T/ST> w Polsce demokracji. Gdyby w Niemczech panowało cesarstwo, to Adolf Hitler byłby w pałacu cesarskim tylko raz do roku: na konkursie akwarelistów. To dzięki demokracji tacy ludzie jak Hitler, Obama, Trump dochodzą do władzy.	It is you who wanted democracy in Poland. If the empire had ruled in Germany, Adolf Hitler would be in the imperial palace only once a year: during a contest for watercolourists. It is thanks to democracy that people like Hitler, Obama, Trump come into power.	It is you who are undermining <Add-/TT> democracy in Poland. But I mean, really, you know, <Add=/TT> sometimes I wonder wheth- @ what you're doing, <Add-/TT> whether Adolf Hitler isn't here sometimes. I mean, you adopted <Add-/TT> that kind of pose.

Table 5: Substantial meaning shifts

In Example 5, we deal with two different speech acts. What was clearly a question in the original, one addressed at PM Szydło, becomes a suggestion in the interpretation. This has some impact on further interaction, as, predictably, PM Szydło does not answer, and MEP Verhofstadt insists on asking later on. Example 6 illustrates a very major shift in meaning, although the speech act remains the same: accusation. MEP Korwin-Mikke's anti-democratic stance and his peculiar joke are not transferred, while the gist of the accusation itself changes and the argument is developed to finally compare the addressees to Hitler. Strikingly, the only matching elements in the TT are *democracy in Poland* and *Adolf Hitler*, and the interpreter seems to be improvising on the basis of them and the general accusatory tone.

In both the cases, the interpreters (each of whom is working from their foreign language) probably faced serious problems with understanding the original message, and they resorted to the strategy of inferencing or even parallel reformulation (Gile 2009). Consequently, adding and deleting addressatives appears to be a side-effect of emergency strategic processing.

4.4.3 (Im)personalization

Impersonal constructions conceal the agent of an activity, or at least foreground the activity and background the agent. In English, they are mainly associated with passive voice and the indefinite pronoun *one*. In Polish, the range is wider, including passives of transitive and intransitive verbs (e.g., *mówiono* 'one spoke') as well as subjectless constructions with modal uninflected verbs (e.g., *trzeba* and *należy* 'one should'). The analysis reveals both transformations in which second-person forms are rendered as impersonal constructions (Table 6, Examples 7 and 8) and vice versa (Examples 9-11).

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
7. Terry Reintke, Verts/ALE	You could have had <Add-/ST> an open debate also looking at liberalising the abortion law that there is in Poland, but you did not. <Add-/ST> You proposed <Add-/ST> only to move forward with one of the proposals […].	One could have an open debate, also considering a potential liberalization of the law. This was not done, the proposal included going to the commission with only one proposal […].	Można było przeprowadzić otwartą debatę, zajmując się także potencjalną liberalizacją prawa. Tego nie zrobiono, propozycja @ obejmowała pójście do komisji tylko z jedną propozycją […].
8. Sophia in 't Veld, ALDE	Madam Commissioner, <Add=/ST> I heard you say <Add=/ST> – and I only partially agree with you <Add-/ST> – that abortion is not an EU matter.	I can say that I only partially agree that abortion is not a European matter.	Mogę powiedzieć, @ że tylko po części się zgadzam, że aborcja nie jest kwestią europejską.

9. Guy Verhofstadt, ALDE	The point is and what makes us concerned and alarms most Members here in the House, and what a democrat never does, is is then to use or abuse this huge majority to dismantle the checks and balances in the country.	What really is at stake here and what arouses our concern and what alarms many among us is that you're using, you're abusing this significant majority to dismantle the regulatory mechanisms in the country.	O co tutaj naprawdę chodzi i co wzbudza @ naszą troskę i co alarmuje wielu spośród nas to to, że używacie, <Add-2T/TT> lub nadużywacie tej istotnej większości <Add-2T/TT> do tego, żeby rozmontowywać system mechanizmów regulacyjnych w kraju.
10. Beata Szydło, PM of Poland	[…] wydaje mi się, że wiele ważnych, niezwykle ważnych spraw, niezwykle ważnych problemów, które zasługują na pochylenie się i naszą uwagę, dzieje się obecnie w Europie.	[…] it seems to me that many important, highly important things, highly important problems that deserve interest and our attention are happening now in Europe.	I think that you, <Add+/TT> honourable Members, <Add=/TT> have many important issues to discuss. I think there are many problems that you address <Add+/TT> at the moment, that you need to grapple with. <Add=/TT>
11. Robert Iwaszkiewicz, EFDD	Otóż odpowiadam na wszystkie te pytania: ręce precz od Polski!	So, I'm answering all these questions: hands off Poland!	To those questions I say: leave Poland alone. <Add-/TT>

Table 6: (Im)personalization

Example 7 shows typical grammatical shifts, including the use of the subjectless verb *można* 'one could', an active-passive transformation (*this was not done*) and replacing a verbal phrase with a nominal one (*the proposal*). All this deflects the blame, and the opposite effect is achieved in Example 9, where infinitives are replaced with second-person forms. Impersonalization as I understand it, however, goes beyond the term as used by grammarians. In Example 8, we see very local omissions of an honorific and two second-person forms that make the face-threatening act off-record, i.e., the interpreter does not say explicitly whose view the speaker questions and therefore does not directly challenge Commissioner Jourová. By contrast, in Example 10, the interpreter adds an honorific and several second-person forms to enhance the positive image of the EP, which facilitates the PM's attempt to divert attention from the rule of law crisis in Poland. Example 11, in turn, shows that a personal and an impersonal imperative may be equally impolite.

Impersonalization and its opposite may also be achieved by a variety of other means that cannot all be illustrated here due to space constraints: for instance, by deleting or adding an optional subject of a transitive verb, or replacing personal pronouns with other pronoun types.

4.4.4 Deictic shifts

Deictic shifts are defined here narrowly as referring only to personal deixis (i.e., they do not encompass, for example, place deixis expressed with pronouns such as *here*). The interpreter can either replace second-person deixis with other personal forms (Table 7, Examples 12 and 14) or vice versa (Examples 13 and 15).

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
12. Ryszard Legutko, ECR	Jeżeli mówi się, że w Polsce dokonano zamachu stanu, to znaczy, że ten, kto to mówi, nie rozumie sensu słów, których używa, albo specjalnie ten sens ten sens zmienia.	If one says that a coup d'etat was committed in Poland, it means that the one who says it does not understand the sense of the words they're using, or they're deliberately changing this sense.	If you talk <Add=/TT> about a coup d'etat in Poland then you either don't know <Add-/D-SHIFT> what you're saying <Add-/D-SHIFT> or you are deliberately twisting language. <Add-/D-SHIFT>
13. Stanisław Żółtek, ENF	Komisarze unijni, <Add-2T/D-SHIFT> zapomnieliście <Add-2T/D-SHIFT> gdzie jest wasze miejsce <Add-2T/D-SHIFT> i chcecie rządzić <Add-2T/D-SHIFT> swoimi panami, to jest narodami, które was mianowały <Add-2T/ST> przez poprzez swoje rządy.	European Commissioners, you have forgotten where your place is and you want to rule your masters, that is, the nations that nominated you through their governments.	But the European Commissioners seem to have forgotten wh- their place. They want to @ basically rule over the countries that they have @ effectively taken over by s- @ overthrowing governments.
14. Joanna Kopcińska, ECR	Nie straszmy ludzi polexitem.	Let's not scare people with Polexit.	Do not scare <Add-/D-SHIFT> people with Polexit.
15. Rasmus Andresen, Verts/ALE	And the worst thing you can do <Add-/D-SHIFT> is to ban sex education from public. If you ban <Add-/D-SHIFT> sex education out of public schools, young people will ask others or they will be anxious.	The worst thing we can do is to ban public education in public schools. If we do this, young people will anyway investigate and ask questions.	Najgorszą rzeczą, jaką możemy zrobić, to zakazać @ edukacji publicznej w szkołach publicznych. Jeśli to uczynimy, @ będą i tak drążyli i zadawali pytania młodzi ludzie.

Table 7: Deictic shifts

The most typical shifts occur between second-person and third-person forms, usually preserving the number (see Examples 12 and 13), and between second-person plural and inclusive WE (see Examples 14 and 15). Deictic shifts usually affect face-threatening acts that are perceived as more direct and offensive if they include second-person deixis. The interpreter's transformations, therefore, may exert a significant ideological impact. By using third-person forms, criticism is “deflected from its original target, the audience [...], the blame for the state of affairs apparently laid on a third party, not involved in the communication event” (Warchał et al. 2011: 786). Truan argues that third-person reference is a “marked linguistic choice to refer to someone who is present” (2021: 4). By using first-person plural, in turn, criticism is blunted as the speaker rhetorically accepts a part of the responsibility. If the interpreter introduces WE-perspective, they may well be imposing on the original speaker a political identity that the latter does not wish to assume (on the ideological implications of WE, see, e.g., Pavlidou 2014).

4.4.5 Addition proper

Addition of addressatives that are clearly unrelated to any elements in the ST and do not fall under major meaning shifts (as illustrated in 4.4.2) is rare. It may occur at the beginning of a speech in the form of adding perfunctory honorifics and/or thanks for being given the floor that were missing in the original – see Table 8, Example 16.

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
16. Zdzisław Krasnodębski, ECR	Ja może zacznę od tego odpowiedzi, bo pani in ‘t Veld nie udzieliła odpowiedzi na moje pytanie.	Maybe I will start with this answer, because Ms in t’ Veld hasn’t answered my question.	Thank you very much, <Add=/TT> Madam President. <Add=/TT> First of all, I would like to comment on what @ Ms in ‘t Veld said.

Table 8: Addition

In Example 16, the addition seems to be something in between an appropriateness repair on behalf of the speaker who fails to respect the conventions and a filler giving the interpreter the opportunity to hear a longer ST chunk (in line with the observations by Bani 2016). The strategy of inserting fillers is observable not only at openings; added addressatives are typically neutral and include *honourable Members, ladies and gentlemen, (as) you know, you see* and their Polish counterparts.

4.4.6 Facework shifts and other facework

While most of the shifts described in the previous sections obviously affect facework, few of them radically change the pragmatic status of an utterance. Examples of those that do are presented in Table 9.

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
17. Jadwiga Wiśniewska, ECR	Panie Biedroń! <Add-1V/F-SHIFT> Powiem wyraźnie i pomału, żeby pan zrozumiał. <Add-1V/Eq>	Mr Biedroń, I will say it clearly and slowly, so that you understand.	Mr Biedroń, <Add=/F-SHIFT> I will say it clearly, so you can understand. <Add-/Eq>
18. Syed Kamall, ECR	But before you unleash a volley of words, <Add-/F-SHIFT> let me <Add=/ST> make a plea […].	Before you take the floor, please […].	Zańmnim panowie, państwo @ zabiorą głos, <Add=2V/F-SHIFT> proszę […].

Table 9: Facework shifts

In Example 17, the shift is caused by the literal translation of the initial honorific, which is impolite in Polish but neutral in English and would require some modification to obtain a similar illocutionary effect. The rest of the utterance is equally face-threatening in both the ST and the TT. Many of the detected shifts going in either direction concern such honorifics. Example 18, in turn, shows euphemization through replacement of a rather poetic and clearly critical phrase with a neutral one that does not pass a judgement on the manner in which the addressees typically talk.

More subtle facework that is not reflected in my annotation may also come into play. The interpreter may mitigate or boost face threat to the extent that does not change the status of a given addressative form – see Table 10.

Example no. & original speaker	Source text	Gloss	Interpretation
19. Syed Kamall, ECR	So, if you decide to gang up today <Add-/Eq> on the democratically elected government of Poland […].	So, if you want to accuse of something the government, democratically elected in Poland […]	Więc jeżeli państwo tutaj chcą zarzucać coś <Add-2V/Eq> rządowi demokratycznie wybranemu w Polsce […].
20. Ryszard Legutko, ECR	Nie wiecie, <Add-2T/Eq> co to jest kornik drukarz.	You don't know what European spruce bark beetle is.	Do you know what these beetles are? <Add-/Eq>

Table 10: Subtle facework

Example 19 is similar to Example 18 in that it affects the choice of a particular evaluative phrase describing the addressees' actions. However, the assessment is clearly negative in both cases, though the phrase used originally is definitely stronger and more colloquial. In Example 20, a very direct accusation of lack of knowledge is transformed into a rhetorical question that obviously implies the same but changes the status of the face-threatening act from on-record to off-record. Such moves, in either direction, are quite frequent across the material.

5. Conclusion

The obtained results run counter to the initial expectations based on previous research. First, there is no clear reduction of directness through elimination of addressative forms by the interpreter. Although there are fewer addressatives in the TTs than in the STs, the reduction rate of nearly 16% is only slightly higher than the overall text compression rate in the corpus. Direct comparison with existing studies, though, is not possible due to marked differences in methodology. None of the studies discussed in Section 2 actually takes into consideration the general tendency towards omission rather than addition in simultaneous interpreting.

Second, the expected trend towards mitigation of face-threatening content was not in evidence. To the contrary, face-threatening addressatives were transferred and added in the TTs slightly more often than neutral ones, which, in turn, were omitted more often. The difference is not very pronounced, but statistically significant. This is surprising, but may be partly attributable to my classification according to pragmatic status, which, admittedly, is not very fine-grained and disregards subtle facework such as exemplified in Table 10.

In line with the results reported by Bani (2016) for first-person deixis, the addressative pattern of the ST is considerably modified by interpreters. Many second-person forms are omitted or added even though this is not enforced by systemic differences between the source and target languages. However, as shown by the qualitative analysis, the omitted or added addressatives often have clear counterparts in other personal forms or various impersonal constructions. When we take a more holistic view at a speech and its interpretation, addressatives introduced by interpreters often seem to compensate for others that were deleted elsewhere, so that the overall personal style of the speaker is represented quite faithfully.

A further question related to addressatives that emerges now is whether other factors beyond the pragmatic status might also play a role in how they are transferred by interpreters. The variables that may be worth investigating are the interpreting direction (English-Polish or Polish-English) and the speaker's political positioning (pro- or anti-EU). More broadly, I envisage a follow-up taking into consideration other deictic perspectives, in particular, first-person singular forms whose modification may have serious ideological and psychological implications.

References

Angermeyer P. S. (2005) "Who is 'you'? Polite forms of address and ambiguous participant roles in court interpreting", *Target* 17/2, 203-226.

Bani S. (2016) "Personal deixis in Spanish-Italian simultaneous interpretation", in C. Calvo Rigual / N. Spinolo (eds) *Translating Orality,* Special Issue of *MonTI* 3trans, 1-16.

Bartłomiejczyk M. (2016) *Face Threats in Interpreting. A Pragmatic Study of Plenary Debates in the European Parliament*, Katowice, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Bartłomiejczyk M. (2019) "Pragmatic equivalence as a challenge for interpreters of political discourse", *Linguistica Silesiana* 40, 385-408.

Bartłomiejczyk M. / Gumul E. / Koržinek D. (2022) "EP-Poland: building a bilingual parallel corpus for interpreting research", *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies* 22/1, 110-126.

Billig M. (1995) *Banal Nationalism,* Los Angeles, SAGE.

Bogdanowska-Jakubowska E. / Bogdanowska N. (2021) "Addressing the other in Poland (the 20th and 21st centuries): Different times, different contexts, different meanings", *Journal of Pragmatics* 178, 301-314.

Bot H. (2005) "Dialogue interpreting as a specific case of reported speech", *Interpreting* 7/2, 237-261.

Bousfield D. (2008) *Impoliteness in Interaction,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Brown P. / Levinson S.C. (1987) *Politeness. Some Universals in Language Usage,* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Bull P. / Fetzer A. (2006) "Who are we and who are you? The strategic use of forms of address in political interviews", *Text & Talk* 26, 3-37.

Chang C. / Wu M. M. (2009) "Address form shifts in interpreted Q&A sessions", *Interpreting* 11/2, 164-189.

Chilton P. (2004) *Analysing Political Discourse: Theory and Practice,* London, Routledge.

Culpeper J. (2011) *Impoliteness: Using Language to Cause Offence,* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Duflou V. (2012) "The 'first person norm' in conference interpreting (CI) – some reflections on findings from the field", in B. Harris / M. J. Blasco Mayor / M. A. Jimenez Ivars (eds) *Interpreting Brian Harris: Recent Developments in Translatology,* Frankfurt a. M., Peter Lang, 145-160.

Gile D. (2009) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training. Revised Edition*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Goffman E. (1967) *Interaction Ritual: Essays on Face-to-Face Behavior,* New York, Pantheon Books.

Grainger K. / Mills S. (2016) *Directness and Indirectness Across Cultures,* London, Palgrave Macmillan.

Harris S. (2001) "Being politically impolite: Extending politeness theory to adversarial political discourse", *Discourse and Society* 12 /4, 451-472.

Hatim B. / Mason I. (1997) *The Translator as Communicator,* London, Routledge.

Ilie C. (2004) “Insulting as (un)parliamentary practice in the British and Swedish parliaments. A rhetorical approach”, in P. Bayley (ed.) *Cross-Cultural Perspectives on Parliamentary Discourse*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 45-86.

Kent S. J. (2009) “A discourse of danger and loss. Interpreters on interpreting for the European Parliament”, in L. Stern / U. Ozolins / S. B. Hale (eds) *The Critical Link 5: Quality in Interpreting: A Shared Responsibility*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 55-70.

Kiełkowicz-Jankowiak A. (1992) *A Socio-Historical Study in Address: Polish and English*, Frankfurt a. M., Peter Lang.

Kostro M. / Wróblewska-Pawlak K. (2011) “Między kurtuazją a deprecjacją. Formy adresatywne jako środek retoryczny w polemicznym dyskursie politycznym” (in English, “Between courtesy and depreciation. Forms of address as a rhetorical device in polemical political discourse”), *Forum Artis Rhetoricae* 3, 37-57.

Knapp-Potthoff A. (2005) “Secondhand politeness”, in K. Ehlich / I. Sachiko / R. J. Watts (eds) *Politeness in Language: Studies in its History, Theory and Practice*, Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter, 203-218.

Marzocchi C. (1998) “The case for an institution-specific component in interpreting research”, *The Interpreters’ Newsletter* 8, 51-74.

Mason I. / Stewart M. (2001) “Interactional pragmatics, face and the dialogue interpreter”, in I. Mason (ed.) *Triadic Exchanges. Studies in Dialogue Interpreting*, Manchester, St Jerome, 51-70.

Monacelli C. (2009) *Self-Preservation in Simultaneous Interpreting: Surviving the Role*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Moyna M. I. / Kluge B. / Simon H. J. (2019) “Address and address research: Here’s looking at you, kid”, in B. Kluge / M. I. Moyna (eds) *It’s Not All about ‘You’: New Perspectives on Address Research*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 1-20.

Pavlidou T.S. (2014) “Constructing collectivity with ‘we’. An introduction”, in T.S. Pavlidou (ed.) *Constructing Collectivity. ‘We’ Across Languages and Contexts*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 1-19.

Proctor K. / Su I.-W. (2011) “The 1st person plural in political discourse – American politicians in interviews and in a debate”, *Journal of Pragmatics* 43, 3251-3266.

Tiselius E. (2022) “Conference and community interpreting: commonalities and differences”, in M. Albl-Mikasa / E. Tiselius (eds), *The Routledge Handbook of Conference Interpreting*, London, Routledge, 19-33.

Truan N. (2021) *The Politics of Person Reference*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Tyrkkö J. (2016) “Looking for rhetorical thresholds: Pronoun frequencies in political speeches”, <https://varieng.helsinki.fi/series/volumes/17/tyrkko/>.

Wadensjö C. (1998) *Interpreting as Interaction*, London, Longman.

Warchał K. / Łyda A. / Jackiewicz A. (2011) “Whose face? ‘Us’ and ‘them’ in English-Polish consecutive interpreting”, *Meta* 56/4, 775-795.

Zhan C. (2012) “Mediation through personal pronoun shifts in dialogue interpreting of political meetings”, *Interpreting* 14/2, 192-216.

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 21-42
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34390 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Remote Simultaneous Interpreting: perceptions, practices and developments

Bachir Mahyub Rayaa and Anne Martin
Universidad de Granada

Abstract

This paper seeks to address the issue of remote simultaneous interpreting (RSI) focusing on the rapid spread of this interpreting mode since the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic in March 2020. To this end, practising conference interpreters were asked to participate in a survey aimed at exploring their perceptions of several RSI-related issues, from a quantitative and qualitative standpoint. The current paper analyses part of the results of that survey, offering an initial overview of the situation regarding RSI in the freelance conference interpreting market, its implications for the profession, advantages, disadvantages. From these initial results, conclusions can be drawn regarding the relative preference of interpreters for remote or on-site interpreting, the different forms of remote interpreting, the most widely used platforms, the locations from which RSI takes place, their advantages and disadvantages together with the solutions adopted to mitigate the impact of such disadvantages.

Keywords

Remote interpreting practices, Remote Simultaneous Interpreting, interpreting during the Covid-19 pandemic, interpreters' perception, interpreting technology.

Introduction

Remote interpreting (RI) is not a new phenomenon, particularly in community interpreting settings. Some authors place its origins in Australia in 1973 in emergency health settings (Fernández Pérez 2015), later spreading to the USA in the early eighties (Kelly 2008).

In conference interpreting settings, although RI (particularly remote simultaneous interpreting RSI) attracted increasing attention in the years running up to March 2020, in practice its use was limited. SIDPs (Simultaneous Interpreting Delivery Platforms) providing the technical means to offer this service appeared on the market before 2020 and many professional associations had begun to publish position papers and recommendations on the issue (AIIC 2019; ITI 2019; Cases Silverstone 2020). International institutions such as the United Nations and the European Parliament carried out studies to test the feasibility of introducing RSI (Mouzourakis 2006). Debates amongst professionals were ongoing, many expressing practical concerns and unease resulting from a feeling of insecurity and fear in the face of technology-related changes (Fantinuoli 2018a). DG SCIC chaired an ISO working group on the issue with the aim of drafting international standards on remote platforms. In the process, an in-depth study of several SIDPs was carried out in 2019, the results of which fed into a Publicly Available Specification on RSI platforms, pending the development of a full ISO standard[1]. Therefore, we can see that the issue of RSI was a clear reality in the field of conference interpreting before 2020 as part of a wider technological trend in the profession which had been referred to as "the upcoming technological turn in interpreting studies" (Fantinuoli 2018a: 11). Indeed, RSI had already been dubbed the greatest change in the profession since the use of simultaneous in the Nuremberg Trials (Constable 2015; Fantinuoli 2018b).

The sudden outbreak of the pandemic, with its sweeping lockdowns and social distancing, meant that the world we had previously known ground to a halt. Online communication, for which no sector was wholly prepared, became the only outlet in all spheres of life. As a result, solutions that had not been fully developed or were in a pilot phase, such as online teaching, online meetings and RSI, suddenly became the only possible solution and were adopted across the board. Not only did this herald in sweeping changes in communication practices in general but also altered previously existing professional standards. RSI emerged as a modality which responded to new corporate and institutional needs based on disruptive technology (Kaplun 2018; ANETI 2020) signalling an unprecedented paradigm shift.

1. RSI: general considerations

In this paper we use the terms RI, distance interpreting and RSI to refer to any form of interpreting in which the interpreter is physically removed from the

1 ISO/PAS 24019:2022 <https://www.iso.org/standard/80761.html>, accessed September 29, 2022.

speakers and/or listeners of the communicative act in which s/he is involved, regardless of whether these other participants share a location or are also remote from each other. In other words, we are not using the term RSI to refer exclusively to totally location-neutral events but rather to subsume a number of possibilities encompassing different constellations of who is where (Fantinuoli 2018a). Amongst these possibilities we find hybrid events, which are partly on-site and partly remote, or working from hubs, i.e. interpreting studios where interpreters work together in booths with the support of technicians, but with the speakers and audience participating remotely.

Whilst the reasons for scholarly interest in RI were clear before 2020, the sea-change that came about subsequently has made research an urgent necessity, on the one hand to further our understanding of such a radical change and, from a practical standpoint, to underpin the justification for new working conditions and training methods in this rapidly evolving professional landscape, enabling the profession to participate actively in shaping and driving the profession of the future, rather than simply reacting to external forces (Tejada Delgado 2019).

Before the Covid-19 pandemic, RSI had already been the object of research, particularly regarding videoconferencing in legal interpreting settings (Braun/Taylor 2011). However, research has not been limited to community or legal settings, as studies were also carried out in RI in conference interpreting settings (Moser-Mercer 2003, 2005; Roziner/Shlesinger 2010; Seeber *et al.* 2019). Although such research was performed when RI was a new possibility beginning to appear on the horizon, it can no doubt help to shed light on the many issues now surfacing with the widespread use of remote conference interpreting since March 2020.

As yet there has been little academic research published on RI since the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic probably due to the lengthy publishing process in academic outlets. Some studies are beginning to see the light (Przepiórkowska 2021; Chia-Ming Fan 2022; Ortego Antón/Fernández Minga 2022) and no doubt more will follow. RI is also the topic of some unpublished undergraduate and graduate dissertations (e.g. Ferri 2021; López González 2022; Pedrouzo González 2022). However, in the period since March 2020 there have been many documents published online, recommendations issued by professional associations and debates, seminars and forums for professionals that provide a context for the study of RI and are included as references in this paper. In most of these, similar issues are repeatedly flagged up with regard to the advantages and disadvantages. Some of these issues had already been mentioned in studies carried out before the pandemic (Moser-Mercer 2003, 2005; Mouzourakis 2006; Braun/Taylor 2011; Seeber *et al.* 2019). The positive issues arising point to RI offering greater flexibility, a widening market which is now global, an increase in meetings that would otherwise not have hired interpreting services, a reduced carbon footprint and an easier work/life balance (Tejada Delgado 2019). On a more negative note, the topics raised refer to technical issues such as sound quality and internet connection stability, security issues such as data protection and liability, cognitive overload and negative effects on interpreters' health and wellbeing, together with the practical measures to offset the impact of all the above (Ferri 2021; López González 2022; Pedrouzo González 2022).

There is now a wealth of professional experience in RSI which has been evolving at a rapid pace since March 2020. The present study attempts to tap into that practical experience with regard to the aspects repeatedly appearing in the documents, recommendations and debates mentioned above, exploring interpreters' perceptions regarding the most widely mentioned issues in an attempt to identify noticeable trends.

It is a given in the interpreting community that cognitive load[2] is increased during RSI in comparison with on-site interpreting (AIIC 2019; Ordeig 2019; ANETI 2020; Cases Silverstone 2020; Vita/Sentamans 2022). This is primarily due to the fact that the interpreter performs more concurrent tasks which, in turn, generates increased stress: in addition to listening and speaking, the interpreter must construe meaning without the numerous sensory inputs of an on-site event (Constable 2015) whilst managing the handover process with colleagues who are physically absent, liaising with them through an online chat or video call, and experiencing constant concern about the internet connection. The effects of such conditions have led to recommendations regarding shorter shifts, the number of interpreters per assignment and the length of the working day (AIIC 2019; ITI 2019; Cases Silverstone 2020; FIU 2020; ANETI 2020). Both Moser-Mercer *et al.* (1998) and Braun (2011) had already suggested that simultaneous interpreting shifts should be shorter in remote settings due to the effect of increased cognitive load on performance during the second part of a 30-minute shift, when the interpreter is becoming tired.

One of the basic issues in all forms of interpreting is sound quality and particularly so in remote settings. This fundamental issue, which has been the object of widespread attention both before and since the onset of the pandemic, may have effects on interpreting performance, quality, interpreters' health and liability. Previous research and the ISO/PAS have established the minimum acceptable thresholds in technical terms (AIIC 2019)[3].

A further issue widely mentioned in the interpreting community is security and data protection, understandably so when confidentiality may be at risk in online events or interpreters held liable for security breaches. Indeed, Zoom, which appears to be the most widely used platform, initially had serious problems regarding data security (Howell 2021).

Working in a remote setting in principle opens up a wider market for interpreters (Bond 2019; DG SCIC 2019; Jiménez Serrano 2019a) who can theoretically operate on different continents in the course of the same day and obtain more contracts in general, as RI lowers organisational costs. In practice, however, in a global market interpreters may have to compete with colleagues who have not secured adequate working conditions, thus opening up the possibility of the hard-fought gains of the on-site market, such as limited working hours, working in pairs and adequate technical conditions amongst others, being lost or reduced in remote settings. Such working conditions guarantee quality interpreting and

2 Cognitive load refers to the amount of mental activity imposed on working memory at any one time.

3 Results regarding sound quality and health impacts will be analysed in a future publication.

an appropriate professional environment for practitioners. In some forums, interpreters report modifications in the way fees are calculated and the amount of fees in general, and some reports point to organisers occasionally suggesting that RI should be remunerated at lower rates than on-site interpreting (Jiménez Serrano 2019b; Ferri 2021).

Health issues have also been the subject of debate and recommendations among professionals since March 2020. In particular, over the past two years concerns have been voiced regarding acoustic shock (high intensity, high frequency sounds) and toxic sound (potentially harmful environmental noise) due to inadequate sound quality, more frequent with remote interpreting equipment than on-site (Mahyub Rayaa 2022).

There has also been interest in the general wellbeing of interpreters as the increased cognitive load of RI, due to the increase in concurrent activities performed, coupled with the limitation of communication channels, would seem to cause increased fatigue, lack of concentration, feelings of alienation and general anxiety. There is every reason to suppose that RI involves the same screen fatigue as that mentioned by many non-interpreters, suddenly forced to conduct their lives online during the lockdown period of the pandemic. Prolonged online activities would appear to lead to feelings of alienation (Moser-Mercer 2003; Mouzourakis 2006; DG SCIC 2019). In fact, the interpreters who participated in DG-SCIC's study suggested that "every little home noise became a distraction and made concentration difficult" (DG SCIC 2019: 10).

Interpreting has always been classified as a stressful occupation, and anxiety may be increased in remote settings due to potential problems inherent in such settings, for example, dependence on an internet connection, lack of technical support, possible power cuts and legal liability if such events occur (Ordeig 2019).

Teamwork has always been at the heart of conference interpreting (Ordeig 2019) and yet, in many RI situations, having a boothmate located remotely means that such teamwork is very difficult to maintain, as is rapport-building with organisers, speakers and participants.

Feelings of alienation in this new context are not only due to the marked difference between working at home alone and the close teamwork in most on-site interpreting. RSI is part of a wider economic trend in which technology is used to commoditize services and depersonalize their providers (Fantinuoli 2018a, 2018b; García Crecente 2019).

Digital platforms are at the heart of this new business model in our economies which has upturned the traditional service industries in a trend which has been labelled "uberisation" (Chamorro-Premuzic 2014) or the "gig economy" (Brown 2009). Even though tools such as Google Docs provide the possibility for joint work on glossaries and sharing of documents for preparation, on-site teamwork is clearly undermined by this new technology-driven order as the interpreters' activity becomes fragmented, and practitioners become isolated at the end of the supply chain.

In this context, with an ever-widening distance between the suppliers and consumers of goods and services, decision-making about how the profession is practised is no longer in the hands of the practitioners but, rather, in the hands of those who control the technology. Thus, practitioners risk losing control over how their profession functions and, as a result, are unable to guarantee the working conditions necessary for high-quality service (Kahane 2020).

It seems essential for interpreters to understand and digest this disruptive technology-based transformation in the profession and participate in the process to have at least some influence on the change (García Crecente 2019; Fantinuoli 2018a; Tejada Delgado 2019), unlike the written translation sector in which, even though the technological paradigm shift has been more gradual, practitioners' terms are largely dictated by the major translation software companies (Jimenez Serrano 2019b).

2. Aims of the study

The general aim of the present study is to canvass the opinions and perceptions of a group of professional interpreters with regard to RI, specifically RSI, following two years of the Covid-19 pandemic (March 2020 to March 2022) and coinciding with the gradual removal of restrictions. The study seeks to explore these opinions and perceptions about the impact of RSI on professional standards, the technical implications of RSI, and its comparison with in-person interpreting. It is hoped that trends will be identified that can facilitate our understanding of the evolution of the profession during those two years and contribute to the necessary reappraisal of working conditions in this new scenario.

More specifically, the aims of the study seek to ascertain the following:

- Which mode of interpreting is most widely used in remote settings, the frequency of remote assignments, the average length and format of such assignments, the locations from which interpreters work and the platforms used.
- Whether interpreters have received training in RI and, if so, the nature, length and desirability of such training.
- Interpreters' opinions regarding the advantages and disadvantages of RSI in comparison to in-person interpreting and their preference, if given the choice, between one or the other.
- Interpreters' opinions regarding the impact of RSI on the profession, specifically in relation to their performance, fees, volume of work and health.

The current paper will study the first three aims, leaving the fourth for a future publication.

3. Methodology

This research is based on an anonymous on-line survey with a largely qualitative approach aiming at the identification of trends, as has been stated. No statistically significant results are sought. The original survey questionnaire was in Spanish and contained 24 mostly open-ended questions aimed at obtaining as much qualitative information as possible.

This initial version of the survey questionnaire was piloted by a group of five experts, who all filled in the survey and subsequently took part in a focus group discussion. All were conference interpreters and two also had research and academic experience in translation and interpreting.

As a result of this process an additional section was added on Training in RSI and the order of some sections was changed. Moreover, several open-ended questions were subdivided into multiple choice questions with an additional field for participants to add comments. The final version of the survey after the pilot process contained a total of 54 questions, due to the addition of more multiple-choice questions (cf. https://forms.gle/dM55ut1gYowCNxFh8).

The current paper analyses the responses to the first 33 questions.

Google Forms was chosen for the design and administration of the on-line survey as it offers straightforward survey instrument design and processing of the data, and participants would probably be familiar with this popular platform. Moreover, it offers a guarantee of anonymity.

The final version of the survey was sent to various professional associations of interpreters[4] on 08/02/22 with an explanatory email. The deadline for completion was 08/03/22. A reminder was sent to the same forums one week after the survey was initially sent. 37 responses were received, accounting for just over 33% of the target population, consisting of approximately 112 interpreters[5].

The survey was drafted in Spanish and begins with a brief explanatory text (see link above) which refers to the general aims of the study and requests informed consent for participation. If potential respondents declined to give consent, they could not access the survey questions. This preamble also informed participants that the approximate time for completion was 15 minutes, estimated according to the results of the pilot phase. Email addresses were included to request further information if required.

As is standard with Google Forms, at the end of the survey respondents were asked for confirmation before sending their responses, thus avoiding answers being sent by mistake and allowing the participant to abort the sending process if desired.

Google Forms collates the replies on a spreadsheet, assigning a new line to each participant with all their answers, specifying the date and time of each response, and indicating the acceptance of informed consent.

The responses to the first 33 questions were extracted and are analysed in this paper. The spreadsheet facilitates the calculation of the quantitative replies to multiple choice questions and calculates percentages, together with the correlations between replies. It also produces graphs representing the results, amongst other functionalities. Complex statistical analysis software was not used as the nature of the sample did not require it. The qualitative answers to open-ended questions were analysed and codified according to their content. Subsequently, an order of greater to lesser frequency of topics raised was established, reflected in sections 4 and 5 (Results and Discussion).

As occurs with other methods of scientific research, anonymous on-line surveys have their advantages but also their limitations (Opdenhoff 2011; Andrade

4 Full answers to the survey, including the associations to which respondents belonged, can be consulted at: <https://figshare.com/s/9512c888638448992bd2>.

5 This reflects the total number of interpreters in the forums the survey was sent to, but it may have reached other interpreters outside these forums.

2020). We have attempted to minimize the limitations although some may persist and should be taken into account when interpreting the results of the survey or extrapolating them to RSI in other contexts. The following are the main limitations detected.

- The survey was administered in Spanish so, inevitably, its scope is limited to those practitioners who speak this language.
- The survey was sent to professional organisations based in Spain, which could limit its scope to the Spanish or Spanish-speaking market. However, due to the international nature of the profession and the delocalization brought about precisely by RSI, the results show that, in addition to Spain, respondents are based in Brussels, Argentina, Australia, USA and several Arab states.
- Another limitation may take the form of self-exclusion by those interpreters who seldom or never perform RSI, as they may have understood that the survey was not aimed at them. Indeed, we are aware that at least three senior colleagues did not fill in the survey for this reason, although that was not the intention of the authors, as their perception would have been equally useful and interesting. This attitude could possibly have weighted the results in favour of those interpreters who work more frequently in remote settings.
- The survey does not apply any specific mechanism to prevent double participation. Methods can be applied to this end, although we chose not to do so for several reasons, preferring to trust in the responsibility and honesty of the participants. It was deemed unlikely that this would be a problem, bearing in mind that in interpreting research the difficulty would seem to be the opposite: securing participation in such surveys (Opdenhoff 2011). Secondly, the various methods for avoiding double participation are not totally effective, do not guarantee anonymity and could even limit the number of bona-fide responses received. No duplicated responses have been detected.
- Some questions had two parts, an initial multiple-choice question followed by an open-ended section to provide explanation of the multiple-choice answer. In a limited number of cases, respondents only replied to the multiple-choice section and did not justify this answer with an explanation. This made interpretation of the results less detailed and nuanced.

4. Results

4.1 Participants

Thirty-seven responses were received, indicating an approximate response rate of over 33% calculating the number of interpreters to whom the survey was sent, although it may have been forwarded to others. The majority of respondents were aged between 51 and 55 (20%), followed by 41-45 and 56-60 years (17% each). In overall terms, 74% of the sample were over the age of 41.

The vast majority were women (79%), whilst men accounted for 18% of the sample. Responses indicated that 77% had more than 16 years of professional experience, and 26% had between 31 and 35 years of experience.

Over 81% of respondents had Spanish as their A language, although, in some cases, in combination with English, Arabic, Italian, Catalan or Galician (i.e. subjects with double A). The majority B language amongst the participants was English (46%) and the majority C language was French (32%).

There was a high level of membership of professional associations, accounting for 83% of participants. 54% were members of AICE (the Spanish Professional Association of Conference Interpreters), whilst 14% were members of ASETRAD (the Spanish Association of Translators, Correctors and Interpreters). Other associations mentioned are AIIC (International Association of Conference Interpreters), ATA (American Translators Association) and AUSIT (Australian Institute of Interpreters and Translators). 7 respondents had no professional affiliation.

70% of the subjects indicated that their main market was Spain although others indicated that they also worked on other markets (European countries, Australia, Arab states, USA). Five participants stated that they worked on the Brussels market, whilst 4 were based in Argentina.

4.2 RI and its modalities during the two years of the pandemic

100% of the respondents performed RI assignments during the period 2020-22. The following figure reflects the modes of interpreting involved. Respondents could mark more than one option.

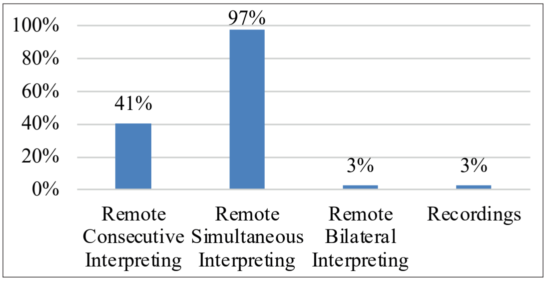

Figure 1. RI modes performed.

This study focuses on RSI, which has been performed by 97% of participants. The following question inquired about the frequency of RSI.

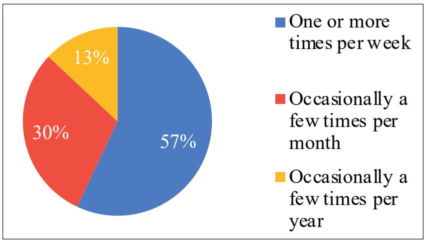

Figure 2. Frequency with which RSI is performed.

Respondents were requested to provide a general description of their RSI assignments. There is a wide range of different kinds of assignments, from short sessions of less than two hours with a small number of participants to international conferences of an academic, business or political nature, in one case with delegations from 26 countries. Comments reflected a wide variety in many organisational aspects and in the RSI platforms used.

The most frequent average length per assignment is a half-day (70%), covering events lasting from 90 minutes to 4 hours, followed by assignments lasting between 30 and 90 minutes (24%).

With regard to the format of remote events interpreted, 76% of respondents state that they are totally online, and 19% that they are mostly hybrid, with one or more of the parties (interpreters, speakers, or audience) participating from a remote location.

87% stated that they usually perform RSI from home, although more than one option could be marked. The other locations were as follows:

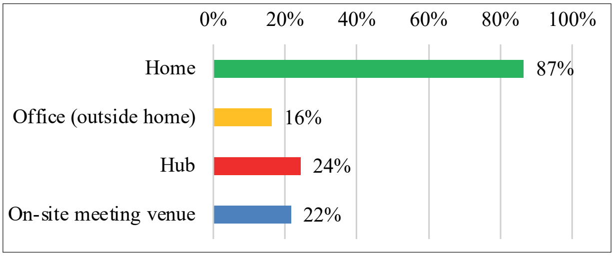

Figure 3. Location where RSI is performed.

4.3 Platforms used in RSI

Participants were asked to indicate the RSI platforms they worked on, using a scale from zero (never) to five (maximum frequency). Zoom clearly stands out ahead of all other platforms, with 70% of participants indicating "maximum frequency" and 16% indicating "high frequency" (number 4 on the scale). Figure 4 shows the results obtained in this section.

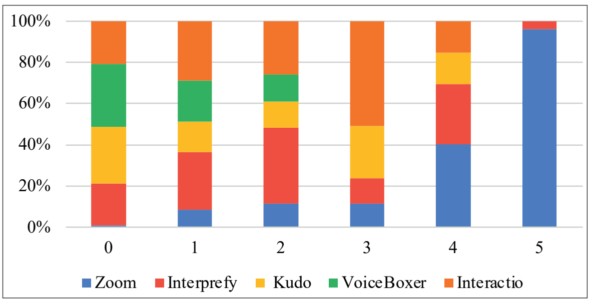

Figure 4. RSI platforms: frequency of use.

Other platforms mentioned are Webex, Teams (for consecutive mode), BlueJeans and Olyusay.

Respondents were asked whether they received technical assistance when working with platforms that do not automatically provide it, such as Zoom. The results are presented in Figure 5.

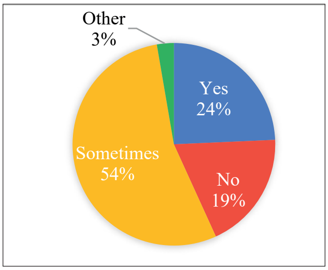

Figure 5. Technical assistance in Zoom and other platforms that do not provide it.

4.4 Training in RSI

60% of respondents stated they had received training in RSI, whereas 32% had not and the remaining 8% marked the box for "other", indicating *ad hoc* practice sessions with colleagues before their first RSI experience.

The majority of those who had received training (71%) had done so in workshops offered by the SIDPs, followed by 33% who had received training offered by some other entity. More than one response to this question could be marked. Amongst the "other entities" respondents mentioned professional associations and agencies.

With regard to the length of training, the 22 participants who answered this question indicated varying lengths, with the majority having received between one and five hours per platform. Other, individual answers mentioned longer training periods, of between 12 hours and several days during 2020.

76% of participants considered training in RSI to be necessary, whilst 14% felt that it was not. The remaining 4 participants (11%) commented that whilst it may be useful it was not essential, and a brief explanation would suffice.

In the 33 comments made, most participants acknowledged that RSI is similar to in-person interpreting, but the majority believe that RSI has specific features with which interpreters need to become familiar, particularly in the initial stages, for example the functioning and technical requirements of the different platforms. Other issues mentioned were the need to learn how to coordinate with booth partners when working on Zoom, and how to deal with auditory and cognitive fatigue.

Some answers indicated that training helps to reduce the additional stress caused by working in an unknown online environment or being dependent on technology. It was also stated that training improves the professional nature of the service and may also enable interpreters to help clients in the event of technical problems. Finally, it was pointed out that RSI is the future of the profession and should therefore be the object of training initiatives and university courses.

The few respondents who considered training unnecessary indicated that "it is only the format that changes, the actual technique is the same" or "if you work from a hub, training is not needed".

4.5 Preference between RSI and in-person interpreting

49% of respondents preferred in-person interpreting to remote, whilst 24% chose RSI. 27% did not come down clearly on either side and in practically all cases preferred a combination of both formats, stating that they are complementary and that when much travelling is involved, RSI is preferred.

4.6 Preference of location for RSI

When asked about their preferred location for performing RSI the results were as follows:

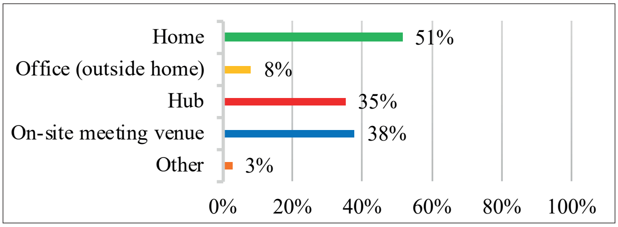

Figure 6. Preferred location for performing RSI.

One or more options could be chosen and it is interesting to note that 15 participants (41%) selected their home as the only option; 4 (11%) selected "home", and also either a "hub", "the venue of the event" or "their office" (outside the home). 7 participants (19%) selected a hub and the venue of the event, and 4 respondents (11%) selected "hub" as a single option.

For those preferring to work from home, the main reason given was convenience, followed by time-saving in journeys to assignments. Three interpreters stated they had invested in good quality equipment, a stable internet connection, and had adapted a suitable area in their home for RSI, which they claimed fulfilled technical requirements better than hubs. Few reasons were given for not working from home, and they referred to the excessive responsibility of depending on one's home internet connection and equipment, or difficulties in work-life balance.

For those preferring to work from a hub or the event venue the main reason was the technical support provided, together with simultaneous interpreting consoles and the possibility of coordinating with their booth partner.

For those who only marked the event venue as their preferred location, the reasons most frequently expressed were the proximity to the speakers and being in a working environment.

As for those who preferred working in an office outside their home, convenience and separation of family life from work were the reasons adduced. Most respondents were based in Spain but, as mentioned, some were based in other markets. These results showed no correlation between market and preferred location for performing RSI.

4.7 RSI and the change in the relationship with stakeholders

Respondents were asked whether the relationship with the three main stakeholders in the interpreting process (clients, speakers and colleagues) had changed, in comparison with in-person interpreting. More than one option could be selected. The results are as follows:

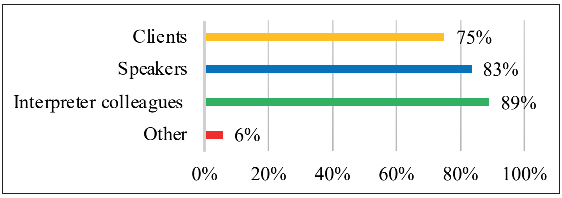

Figure 7. Relationship with the three main stakeholders.

Most respondents feel that the relationship with clients, speakers and colleagues has changed. In general terms, they attribute this to the loss of direct contact with these three stakeholder groups when working online, which influences their form of communication and interaction in comparison to in-person settings. Specifically, with regard to clients, the loss of opportunities for communication and networking is mentioned, the fact that assignments are offered with little advance notice, and attempts are made to negotiate lower remuneration.

With respect to speakers, the biggest change is loss of access to them in remote settings, meaning that it is impossible to consult them on terminological issues and obtain information or documentation. It was felt that the relationship of interpreters with speakers in RSI is more distant and that speakers are less aware of the interpreter's work, believing it to be mechanical. Little effort is made by speakers to improve sound quality.

As far as the relationship with colleagues is concerned, respondents indicate that coordination with booth partners is more difficult, particularly the handover in Zoom. The relationship with interpreters with other language combinations has also suffered.

4.8 Advantages and disadvantages of RSI in comparison with on-site interpreting

The following lists reflect the order of frequency of the topics mentioned by participants in response to open-ended questions.

Advantages:

- Convenience and flexibility of interpreting from home or another place of one's choice which improves quality of life, work-life balance, carbon footprint, use of resources.
- Saving time and effort in travelling to assignments, so more assignments can be accepted.
- Saving time and money for organisers, avoiding expenses incurred when hiring non-local interpreters.
- Ideal format for pandemic scenarios, guaranteeing continuity of professional activity.
- Shorter working hours as RSI meetings tend to be shorter and more concise.
- Access to assignments that would not be possible otherwise because of distance or lack of technical resources, especially for interpreters living far from main conference venues.
- RSI often reaches a wider audience than on-site interpreting.

Disadvantages:

- Lack of technical assistance, which increases interpreters' workload and likelihood of technical problems, especially:
  - poor sound quality from speakers using inadequate microphones;
  - coordination of handover.
- Lack of interaction with colleagues, clients and speakers, and of non-verbal communication.
- Loss of contact with participants makes interpreting seem like an automatic process and users tend to forget that there are interpreters at work as the booths are not visible.
- Little awareness about interpreters' copyright on their renditions. Recordings are often made and posted on the Internet or circulated without their permission.
- Greater cognitive load.
- Possible hearing disorders in the future.
- Solitary and alienating activity: the interpreter is alone to face technical and other problems.
- RSI from home involves working in a non-professional environment.
- Many different platforms with different technical requirements.
- Future working conditions may deteriorate due to increased competition.

4.9 Suggestions for solutions to problems detected

The majority insisted that the main solution to the various problems and disadvantages detected is to educate clients and speakers in advance, raising awareness about microphone quality (the need to use headphones with integrated microphones), the need to speak from a quiet location, to have a stable internet connection, and to be familiar with the platform and how the interpreting system works. In this sense, an awareness campaign on interpreters' rights was proposed.

As a solution for the coordination problems on Zoom, respondents insisted on the need for an interface for communication between interpreters, as is available on specific RSI platforms, and on the need for technical assistance throughout the assignment. With regard to sound quality, the sound transmission frequency on Zoom could be increased, as Zoom has a high-fidelity function. Increased contact with other interpreters was also mentioned in specific locations such as hubs to promote unity and defence of remote interpreting requirements.

5. Discussion

The sample was composed primarily of experienced interpreters in mid-career, who would logically be concerned with events that are shaping their professional future and willing to embrace ongoing changes in the profession. Most were affiliated to professional associations, which implies greater access to the guidelines and support offered by such associations during the pandemic.

Accordingly, there was a high level of RI in general being performed by these respondents, on a weekly or monthly basis, which would suggest that RSI is not a random or sporadic activity, as it may have been before the pandemic, or during the initial lockdown period, but has now become fully incorporated into their normal workflow. This said, it is also true that this finding may be due to the fact that interpreters who frequently perform RI were those most likely to respond to our questionnaire (cf. Section 3). Therefore, we cannot assert that this pattern is representative of the profession as a whole. However, it does indicate that a reasonably high proportion of the respondents perform RI on a regular basis and points to a trend amongst them.

It is interesting to note that the remote activity reported did not only involve simultaneous but also a considerable amount of consecutive interpreting. The current study and most of the survey questions are focused on RSI, but the fact that over 40% of respondents also perform remote consecutive is an interesting finding for future research.

Most references would seem to point to RI being primarily employed in short meetings with a reduced number of attendees (DG SCIC 2019; Cases Silverstone 2020; Mahyub Rayaa 2022) and, indeed, the results of this study support this as over 70% of respondents stated their average RSI assignment did not last longer than a half-day. However, some longer events were reported, even large international conferences completely on-line lasting several days and, in general, our results report a wide range of meeting types taking place with RSI. This could indicate an evolution from the first months of lockdown when only essential meetings were held, gradually extending to cover different meeting types. Such a finding may indicate that instead of disappearing once lockdown ended or being limited to small meetings, RSI is gaining ground and also being used as an alternative for all kinds of events, including large international conferences. Such a conclusion is tentative, however, as at the time of the study the pandemic was still ongoing. Comments would seem to indicate that the use of RSI has increased during each wave of the pandemic.

Another interesting finding is that 48% of respondents report that they prefer on-site interpreting to RSI and the remaining 52% is divided between those who actually prefer RSI or who may prefer it depending on the circumstances. 25% prefer a combination of on-site and RSI, which would seem to indicate a clear shift away from the pre-pandemic climate of rejection of RSI amongst interpreters and be indicative of a possible evolution not based exclusively on necessity. It would also suggest that these interpreters are reasonably satisfied with their working conditions in RSI, indicating that the worst fears have not become a reality and that the profession as a whole has been able to secure similar conditions in RSI to those achieved in on-site interpreting in terms of length of working day, number of interpreters, documentation, fees, etc. Over 86% of respondents reported that most work was done from their home and, indeed, over 40% reported that this was in fact their location of preference for RSI, clearly higher than those preferring a hub which, again, would seem to contrast with pre-pandemic opinions (Jiménez Serrano 2019a). This finding, together with many of the freely expressed comments[6], suggests that these interpreters have been assertive in creating a positive and technically sound environment in which to perform RSI at home when it became the only possible workplace, with meeting venues and hubs closed due to lockdown. There were also comments regarding the desirability of working from a hub as a way to overcome many of the disadvantages, which would not seem consistent with the fact that only 4 respondents marked "hub" as their preferred remote setting and 9 in combination with other settings. Perhaps, for most respondents, the advantages of working from home were greater than those of working from a hub.

The total predominance of Zoom as the most frequent platform for RSI was no doubt a foreseeable result. Before March 2020, in Europe Zoom was unknown as an interpreting platform and, arguably, in contrast to the USA, not even widely known as a videoconferencing platform. Initially, attention focused on the specific SIDPs as the means by which RSI could be enabled, and during the first months of the pandemic these platforms were constantly improving their functionalities vying with each other to become as interpreter-friendly and ISO-compliant as possible. The stakes were high as international institutions and large multinational organisations sought to continue business. However, such platforms were beyond the budget of many private market meetings. During the initial months of the pandemic, Zoom became one of the most widely used videoconferencing platforms in general and, as it had a low-cost, rudimentary simultaneous interpreting feature, clients began to request interpreting via Zoom. Two years after the beginning of the pandemic a process of natural selection would seem to have taken place in the private market, with over 70% of respondents in this study stating they use Zoom with maximum frequency, above all other platforms in all markets represented in the sample except Australia where Interprefy and Kudo were predominant. However, the number of respondents based in Australia was too low to be significant. It is true that this study reflects freelance interpreters working on the private market and not in institutional settings, which do use specific SIDPs (Pedrouzo González 2022).

6 Cf. Q22: <https://figshare.com/s/9512c888638448992bd2>.

This predominance of Zoom on the private market, a result also found by López González (2022), is possibly not only due to the high cost of SIDPs, but also to the fact that most interpreting clients now feel reasonably comfortable with Zoom and, importantly, because the sound quality is not lower than that offered by many SIDPs[7]. Although Zoom is not an SIDP, its RSI feature has gradually been refined so that two years after the onset of the pandemic a relay function has been added, together with a high-fidelity audio feature. Problems remain, however, notably the lack of technical support and lack of contact with booth partners necessitating some form of back channel for interaction outside the system, often consisting of WhatsApp contact involving another device. This back channel is necessary for interpreters to listen to booth partners, to offer help if needed, to step in if technical problems arise and particularly for the handover process. This extra channel increases cognitive load, which can affect concentration. Difficulties with the handover function due to lack of contact are consistently repeated by respondents in the freely expressed comments. Indeed, this issue was flagged as one of the main current disadvantages of RSI on platforms such as Zoom and there would appear to be a wide consensus amongst interpreters about the need to resolve this shortcoming, beyond the current *ad hoc* measures they have devised themselves.

According to our data, one of the problems associated with RSI via Zoom, namely lack of technical support, seems to have been partially addressed through *ad hoc* solutions applied by users and interpreters themselves. Respondents claimed that when working on Zoom or other platforms that do not offer technical support, in an overwhelming majority of cases, such support was available either "always" or "sometimes". The study does not explore the nature of that support, but its availability would seem to point to pragmatic solutions being sought to cover evolving needs, shaping a clear trend. Evidently, Zoom is not compliant with specifications included in the International Standard 24019:2022, but the existence of such a standard is a benchmark to aspire to.

Given that the study addresses the initial phases of RSI under the difficult circumstances of the pandemic, it is encouraging to note that almost 60% of respondents have received some form of training. As could be expected, most of this training is in the form of short workshops offered by the SIDPs. Indeed, during the initial months of the pandemic the main specialised platforms offered free, online training sessions. At that time, many interpreters had time to spare and were possibly apprehensive about and aware of the need to prepare for the paradigm change that was taking shape in the profession. The high level of uptake reflected in these results points, once again, to an assertive professional group, seeking to respond actively and pre-emptively to their new needs.

Not surprisingly, the advantages of RSI listed by the respondents include those widely mentioned in documents published in professional circles (Bond 2019; Tejada Delgado 2019), such as greater flexibility, time saving, improved work-life balance, reduced carbon footprint, and the possibility to accept more

7 The results of this study regarding sound quality will be addressed in further depth in a future article.

assignments in less time, indicating that this is indeed the case in practice. Indeed, the time and energy saved on travelling to assignment venues was the one advantage most frequently mentioned by the respondents, which is consistent with their preference for working from home.

As regards the disadvantages noted, again they were consistent with the literature for the most part (ITI 2019; DG SCIC 2019; Cases Silverstone 2020), focusing particularly on technical problems and lack of professional contact with booth partners. Importantly, lack of social contact and interaction with colleagues was also highlighted in many comments. A technical problem that was mentioned repeatedly was poor sound quality of speakers' equipment. In in-person interpreting, the speakers' equipment is provided and controlled by the organisers and/or technicians. In RI, there is often no such control and speakers often use the microphones embedded in laptops or other devices, which do not produce sufficiently good sound quality for interpreting. When asked how such shortcomings could be overcome, respondents repeatedly suggested training, not only for interpreters but also for speakers, particularly with reference to the quality of their microphone.

Comments also hinted at depersonalization in RSI and some of its consequences, such as the tendency of users to forget the interpreters' existence even more than in on-site settings because they are not physically visible. Respondents suggested that this factor makes interpreting seem automatic and users consider them to be "machines", "a voice", "a computer programme" and "a robot". These comments are consistent with the service provider being alienated and isolated at the end of the supply chain, as mentioned above (cf. Section 1). Such misconceptions about the nature of interpreting have always been an issue in private market settings, and it would seem that RSI potentially aggravates such misconceptions, reflecting characteristics of the "gig economy" mentioned by Fantinuoli (2018a) and García Crecente (2019).

This feeling of alienation and depersonalization is reinforced in comments about the way in which relationships with the main stakeholders have changed, with particular emphasis on lack of interaction with colleagues.

6. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to explore the perceptions of interpreters with regard to RSI. Abundant information was collated regarding the frequency and format of remote assignments, location of performance, preferences, training, together with the perception of advantages and disadvantages. From these results it is clear that RSI is not a temporary solution for a crisis scenario but a consolidated format coexisting with in-person interpreting and having specific advantages and shortcomings.

The study offers an image of an assertive, mid-career, female professional working on the private market, mainly on Zoom from a home environment which has been duly adapted. She has a certain degree of technical assistance and appreciates not having to travel for assignments. The problems highlighted are specific and mainly refer to speakers using substandard microphones, inadequate provision of a function for the handover process with booth partners and a sense of isolation due to lack of direct contact with other stakeholders.

Wider comments would seem to place professionals in the context of an increasingly technology-based working environment, with interpreters providing a service in isolation at the end of a supply chain although taking pre-emptive measures to offset the inherent disadvantages of such a situation. Few respondents depict themselves as passive victims of an inevitable situation. Such clear assertiveness could perhaps be attributed to the strong professional socialization of conference interpreters in general and our subjects in particular, together with the clear leadership of organisations such as AIIC and DG-SCIC.

Hopefully, such results can contribute to reflect the huge and almost daily change in conference interpreting practices at a crucial time in the evolution of the history of the interpreting profession.

References

AIIC (Association Internationale des Interprètes de Conférence) Taskforce on Distance Interpreting (2019) "AIIC Guidelines for Distance Interpreting (Version 1.0)", <https://aiic.org/site/world/about/profession/guidelines#remote-interpreting>.

Andrade C. (2020) "The limitations of online surveys", *Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine* 42/6, 575-576, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0253717620957496>.

ANETI (Asociación Nacional de Empresas de Traducción e Interpretación) (2020) "La revolución de la Interpretación Simultánea Remota: ¿promesa o realidad?", <https://aneti.es/la-revolucion-de-la-interpretacion-simultanea-remota-promesa-o-realidad/>.

Bond E. (2019) "EU gives in-principle green light to use of Remote Interpreting Platforms", <https://slator.com/eu-gives-in-principle-green-light-to-use-of-remote-interpreting-platforms/>.

Braun S. (2011) "Recommendations for the use of video-mediated interpreting in criminal proceedings" in S. Braun / J. Taylor (eds) *Videoconference and Remote Interpreting in Criminal Proceedings*, Antwerp, Intersentia, 301-328.

Braun S. / Taylor J. (eds) (2011) *Videoconference and Remote Interpreting in Criminal Proceedings*, Antwerp, Intersentia.

Brown T. (2009) "The gig economy", <www.thedailybeast.com/the-gig-economy>.

Cases Silverstone M. (2020) "Guía orientativa. La interpretación simultánea remota", <https://www.aice-interpretes.com/enlaces/archivoenlace4362.pdf>.

Chamorro-Premuzic T. (2014) "The Uberisation of talent: can the job market really be optimised?", <https://www.forbes.com/sites/tomaspremuzic/2014/03/21/the-uberisation-of-talent-can-the-job-market-really-be-optimised/#185eb06f2e60>.

Chia-Ming Fan D. (2022) "Remote Simultaneous Interpreting: exploring experiences and opinions of conference interpreters in Taiwan", *Compila-*

tion and Translation Review 15/2, 159-198, <https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.202209_15(2).0005>.

Constable A. (2015) "Distance Interpreting: a Nuremberg moment for our time", <https://aiic.ch/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/di-a-nuremberg-moment-for-our-time-andrew-constable-01182015.pdf>.

DG-SCIC (2019) "Interpreting Platforms. Consolidated test results and analysis. European Commission's Directorate General for Interpretation (DG SCIC)", <https://ec.europa.eu/education/knowledge-centre-interpretation/sites/kci/files/interpreting_platforms_-_consolidated_test_results_and_analysis_-_def.pdf>.

Fantinuoli C. (2018a) "Interpreting and technology: the upcoming technological turn", in C. Fantinuoli (ed.) *Interpreting and Technology*, Berlin, Language Science Press, 1-12.

Fantinuoli C. (ed.) (2018b) *Interpreting and Technology*, Berlin, Germany, Language Science Press.

Fernández Pérez M. M. (2015) "La interpretación remota en contextos de violencia de género" in C. Toledano Buendía / M. Del Pozo Triviño (eds) *Interpretación en contextos de violencia de género*, Valencia, Tirant Humanidades, 101-122.

Ferri E. (2021) *Gli effetti della pandemia da COVID-19 sull'interpretazione simultanea: come cambia il panorama. Una indagine tra interpreti e organizzatori di eventi in Italia*, unpublished MA Thesis, DIT, University of Bologna at Forlì, <https://amslaurea.unibo.it/22865/>.

FIU, Spain (Freelance Interpreters United) (2020) "Prácticas recomendadas para ISR", <https://docs.google.com/document/d/10pGcb83NXKBxSvOdoqnlDWgGEk2pQ5iML50-ulMlSy0/edit?fbclid=IwAR0JwsQf-sycumLMbXzmnJpjhsFZPx7gzG1_LM_e_dp6x9D9N4Fi6qMC2z0#heading=h.naep4un6vhgd>.

García Crecente P. (2019) "El taxi, los intérpretes y la uberización de la economía", <https://aibarcelona.blogspot.com/2019/03/el-taxi-los-interpretes-y-la.html?m=1>.

Howell L. (2021) "One year on: is Zoom safe to use?", <https://www.netitude.co.uk/blog/one-year-on-is-zoom-safe-to-use>.

ITI (Institute of Translation and Interpreting) (2019) "Position statement on Remote Interpreting", <https://www.iti.org.uk/resource/position-paper-remote-interpreting.html>.

Jiménez Serrano O. (2019a) "Foto fija de la interpretación simultánea remota al inicio del 2020", *Revista Tradumàtica. Tecnologies de la Traducció*, 17, 59-80.

Jiménez Serrano O. (2019b) "Interpreting technologies. Introduction", *Revista Tradumàtica. Tecnologies de la Traducció*, 17, 20-32.

Kahane E. (2020) "El futuro de la profesión de intérprete de conferencias" Inaugural Lecture (unpublished document), Master's Programme in Conference Interpreting, University of Granada, November 13, 2020.

Kaplun, T. (2018) "A fresh look at Remote Simultaneous Interpreting", <https://aiic.co.uk/document/271/AIICBlog_Dec2018_KAPLUN_A_fresh_look_at_remote_SI_EN.pdf%20right%20click%20and%20Copy%20Link%20Location>.

Kelly N. (2008) *Telephone Interpreting. A Comprehensive Guide to the Profession*. Bloomington, USA, Trafford Publishing.

López González M. A. (2022) *Interpretación antes y después de la pandemia: la interpretación remota*, unpublished undergraduate dissertation, FTI, University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, <https://accedacris.ulpgc.es/bitstream/10553/117105/1/TFG_Lopez_Gonzalez_Maria_Adela.pdf >.

Mahyub Rayaa B. (2022) "La interpretación simultánea remota árabe-español en tiempos de COVID-19. La percepción del intérprete", in M. P. Bermúdez / M. Guillot (eds) *International Handbook for the Advancement of Science* (Vol. 1), Toronto, Thomson Reuters, <https://proview.thomsonreuters.com/launchapp/title/aranz/monografias/255257473/v1.10/document/x112_Capitulo111.xhtml>.

Moser-Mercer B. (2003) *Remote Interpreting: Assessment of Human Factors and Performance Parameters,* Joint project, International Telecommunication Union (ITU). École de traduction et interprétation, University of Geneva (ÉTI), <https://aiic.org/document/516/AIICWebzine_Summer2003_3_MOSER-MERCER_Remote_interpreting_Assessment_of_human_factors_and_performance_parameters_Original.pdf>.

Moser-Mercer B. (2005) "Remote interpreting: issues of multi-sensory integration in a multilingual task", *Meta* 50/2, 727-738.

Moser-Mercer B. / Künzli A. / Korac M. (1998) "Prolonged turns in interpreting: effects on quality, physiological and psychological stress (pilot study)", *Interpreting* 3/1, 47-64.

Mouzourakis P. (2006) "Remote interpreting. A technical perspective on recent experiments", *Interpreting* 8/1, 45-66.

Opdenhoff J. H. (2011) *Estudio sobre la direccionalidad en interpretación de conferencias: de las teorías a la práctica profesional*, Doctoral thesis, Department of Translation and Interpretation, University of Granada, <http://hdl.handle.net/10481/17571>.

Ordeig F. (2019) "A hands-on taste of RSI (Remote Simultaneous Interpreting): a brief personal view", <https://aibarcelona.blogspot.com/2019/01/>.

Ortego Antón M. T. / Fernández Minga S. (2022) "Los sistemas de interpretación remota. ¿Es oro todo lo que reluce?", *Hikma: Estudios de Traducción* 21/1, 85-105, <https://doi.org/10.21071/hikma.v21i1.13385>.

Pedrouzo González N. (2022) *El impacto de la pandemia de COVID- 19 en el trabajo de interpretación en las principales instituciones de la Unión Europea desde marzo de 2020 hasta la realización del presente trabajo*, published Master's thesis, Bellaterra: Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, <https://ddd.uab.cat/record/268664>.

Przepiórkowska D. (2021) "Adapt or perish: how forced transition to Remote Simultaneous Interpreting during the COVID-19 pandemic affected interpreters' professional practices", *Między Oryginałem a Przekładem* 4/54, 137-159, <https://doi.org/10.12797/MOaP.27.2021.54.08>.

Roziner I. / Shlesinger M. (2010) "Much ado about something remote: stress and performance in Remote Interpreting", *Interpreting* 12/2, 214-247.

Seeber K. G. / Keller L. / Amos R. / Hengl S. (2019) “Expectations vs. experience. Attitudes towards video remote conference interpreting”, *Interpreting* 21/2, 270-304.
Tejada Delgado A. (2019) “Is the public sector interpreting market ready for digital transformation?”, *Revista Tradumática* 17, 88-93.
Vita A. / Sentamans J. (2022) “Freelance United Interpreters, Spain: tus decisiones moldean el Mercado”, *La Linterna del Traductor* 21, <http://lalinternadeltraductor.org/n21/fiu-spain.html>.

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 43-62
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34391 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on Italian mediation services: a focus on mediators' perceptions in Emilia-Romagna

Federica Ceccoli
Università di Modena e Reggio Emilia

Ira Torresi
Università di Bologna*

Abstract

Sharing the same physical and visual space with the other two participants in the interaction has traditionally been a standard working condition for Italian "mediators" – a profession that entails community interpreting, interlanguage and intercultural communication, and facilitating migrants' access to public services. This, however, was clearly impossible during the Covid-19 pandemic, when mediators worked mostly remotely. In order to investigate the impact of Covid-19 and Covid-19-related measures on the profession, an online survey was conducted with mediators working in the Emilia-Romagna region about the perceptions of their work during the pandemic. Respondents reported that during the Covid-19 pandemic mediation became more difficult and stressful than in pre-Covid-19 times. A thematic analysis of responses revealed that the main reasons for this were connected with remote mediation, especially with the lack of non-verbal contact that hindered empathy and limited mediators' agency.

Keywords

Mediation, *mediazione*, Covid-19, survey, remote interpreting, public service interpreting, community interpreting

* Although both authors shared article conceptualization, writing and revising, Ira Torresi is responsible for the Introduction and §1-3; Federica Ceccoli for §4-6.

Introduction

As all crises do, the Covid-19 pandemic has highlighted the importance of clear and effective communication between public service providers and their users, including those who do not speak the official national language (Federici 2021: 181). In Italy, professional communication services between public services and migrants are largely subsumed by the long-established practice of *mediazione*, which is the focus of this paper. A first caveat is in order here: we are aware that in Translation and Interpreting (T&I) Studies "mediation" increasingly recurs as a hypernym for both translation and interpreting. In particular, "intercultural mediation (IM) is a form of translatorial intervention which takes account of the impact of cultural distance *when translating or interpreting*" (Katan 2013: 84, our emphasis). Since we will be referring only to the Italian scene, in this paper we will use the term "mediation/mediazione" (which admittedly *does* entail both translating and interpreting). In the Italian context, this term refers to a practice that encompasses community/public service interpreting, intercultural and interlanguage communication, and facilitating migrants' access to public services. Section §1 expands more on this practice. §2 offers a short overview of the kind of impact that the remote mode might be expected to have on mediation, based on existing literature on remote interpreting (including during the Covid-19 pandemic). §3 outlines the aims and scope of our research, the results of which are discussed in §4-5 and in the Conclusions.

1. About mediation (as *mediazione*)

In Italy, interlanguage and intercultural communication services called *mediazione* were first introduced between the 1980s and the 1990s in public services because of the increase in immigration flows and the consequent need to provide linguistic support and promote the understanding of cultural differences (Favaro 2001). Despite its relatively long history, the practice of mediation is still extremely heterogeneous, and definitions of the mediator's role and tasks vary from one institution or region to another (Belpiede 2002).

The very terminology around mediation is fuzzy. While one more comprehensive version of the term is "interlinguistic and intercultural mediation" (Luatti 2011), the governments of the regions that have compiled a profile for this job[1] use the term "intercultural mediator", without any reference to the interlinguistic side of the practice. The government of the Emilia-Romagna region (the area where we conducted our study) describes the intercultural mediator as someone who "is able to identify and convey the needs of the foreign user, assist and facilitate his or her integration into the host country, carry out activities of interface between the user and the network of local services, and encourage actions aimed at the promotion of interculturality" (Regional Government

1 Only 13 regions out of 20 have done so (Barbieri *et al.* 2021: 7).

Decree no. 1371/2010[2]). Nonetheless, mediators in Emilia-Romagna are in fact "employed for interpreting" (Baraldi/Gavioli 2020: 177) – a job requirement that is probably subsumed implicitly under "convey[ing] the needs of the foreign user" and "activities of interface". Mediators are, however, not required to have any kind of education or training in T&I. In Emilia-Romagna, they may actually qualify for the job either through a special course (which does not include T&I) or through professional practice alone[3]. At any rate, the public administrations of Emilia-Romagna usually have contracts with agencies or cooperatives that provide mediation services – they do not hire individual mediators directly (Barbieri *et al.* 2021: 19).

The lack of a univocal definition and terminology is related to the national legislative gap. Although the role of mediators was mentioned (but in no way defined) in the Italian legislation with the Turco-Napolitano law of 1998[4], later amended and abolished by the Bossi-Fini law of 2002, there is still no nationally recognized regulatory framework for this profession, but there are only regional and/or local regulations and/or guidelines of private bodies or agencies.

This legislative gap is also evident in the lack of a professional certification system and of a register of qualified professionals. The tasks performed by Italian mediators are indeed often equivalent to the functions covered by community or public service interpreters in other countries of the world. However, there is no mention of mediation, as such or as a version of community/public service interpreting, in the recently revised UNI standard 11591/2015. Nor can mediators join major national or local T&I's associations (Assointerpreti, AITI, ANITI, AIIC Italia, TradInFo), which do not include mediation among members' or candidates' professional categories[5]. Being excluded from T&I professional associations means that mediators do not have access to the certification and lifelong learning opportunities provided by such associations, some of which (including remote interpreting training, which will be relevant in the following) are specific for interpreting-related professions and may not be available elsewhere out of university training.

At the same time, in professional practice and despite scholarly work that argues otherwise (e.g. Falbo 2013), there is some perceived difference in terms of what is expected of mediators as opposed to what is expected of interpreters.

2 <http://sitiarcheologici.integrazionemigranti.gov.it/Attualita/Approfondimenti/approfondimento/Pagine/Mediazione/EmiliaRomagna_scheda.html> (viewed 9/4/22).

3 <https://www.regione.emilia-romagna.it/urp/servizi-e-strumenti/domande-frequenti-faq/sociale/cittadini-stranieri/come-si-consegue-la-qualifica-di-mediatore-interculturale> (viewed 18/7/22).

4 <https://www1.interno.gov.it/mininterno/site/it/sezioni/servizi/old_servizi/legislazione/immigrazione/legislazione_200.html> (viewed 18/7/22).

5 <https://www.assointerpreti.it/diventa-socio/>; article 7 of <https://aiti.org/it/regolamento-ammissioni>; <https://www.aniti.it/requisiti-di-ammissione/>; <https://aiic.org/site/world/join/process/explained/prerequisites>; <https://www.tradinfo.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/Modulo-di-iscrizione-SOCIO-ORDINARIO.pdf>, all viewed on 19/2/22.

An interpreter is expected to have mainly linguistic and terminological competence and specific training in interpretation. Conversely, additionally to being proficient in their working languages, mediators are expected to have a thorough knowledge of cultures and competence in facilitating intercultural relationships (Gavioli 2009: 22-23). They are also supposed to foster migrants' integration and access to institutions (Rudvin/Spinzi 2014: 58), as well as opening the space for intercultural communication (Baraldi 2009) and "positive intercultural relations" (Baraldi 2015: 59).

Those expectations outline that the mediator's role is a particularly active one that entails a certain degree of agency, intended here as the ability and responsibility to independently choose the ways and contents of one's actions (Baraldi 2019). Not only do mediators facilitate communication with their translation and interpretation activities (which implies that they are in fact interpreters and translators), but they are also involved in clarifying cultural implicit elements, creating shared meanings and common ground (Tonioli 2016). Their activities additionally include coordinating the flow of information (Russo/Mack 2005; Gavioli 2009), which appears very similar to the interactional role of the dialogue interpreter described by Wadensjö (1998).

It seems, then, that even in the face of unclear legal and professional standards (or perhaps due to this lack of clarity), the expectations towards mediators in Italy include and perhaps exceed those that are held towards public service or community interpreters elsewhere in the world. In the following, then, we will intend mediation (the term traditionally used by the Italian public administration) as a *de facto* synonym with the profession internationally known as public service interpreting (PSI). In this respect, we agree with Merlini and Gatti (2015: 140) that "the schematic classification into typologies of behaviour proves to be rather ill-suited to an in-depth theoretical analysis of real-life interpreting practice"[6]. One example of a less schematic analysis of real-life practice is Delizée (2022), whose field observations of mediators' work in a French hospital during the Covid-19 crisis highlight the importance of mediators' agency in shaping not only the communication, but also the very social situation they engage in. We hope that our research will contribute to shed some more light on how mediators' (and interpreters') agency is perceived by mediators themselves, in particular at a time of crisis and in RI settings.

2. Covid-19, remote interpreting and mediation

The Italian Presidential Decree of March 9, 2020, marked the beginning of a period of general lockdown where physical movement was only possible for essential work. As a result, many of the community and public services for which mediators worked were provided online only. They included schools, social

6 Merlini and Gatti use the term "healthcare interpreting" to describe the work of *mediatori* (Merlini /Gatti 2015: 146), consistently with their critique of rigid notions of the interpreter's "role".

services, and public administration at large, excluding healthcare – telehealth was not systematically adopted in Italy. This meant that all mediation and interpreting services also needed to be provided mostly online, through remote interpreting (RI) tools.

RI was first adopted in community settings to meet the language needs in countries such as Australia (a pioneer in this area, with RI services established as early as in the 1970s to cater for minority language communities in non-urban areas) and the USA (in the 1980s) (Kelly 2008). In Italy, it was introduced only more recently. VEASYT[7] was the first company to introduce professional remote video-interpretation services in Italy in 2012, first in sign language and then in several verbal languages. Allowing for 30-minute interpreting slots, up to a maximum of 120 minutes, VEASYT appears specially tailored to the needs of community interpreting or mediation rather than the conference setting. Videoconferencing platforms, however, were never popular among Italian public administrations, and mediation continued to be largely practised with mediators and mediation users being present in the same room until the Covid-19 outbreak.

This does not mean that RI was not widely spread – conversely, it was rapidly gaining ground, in community interpreting (SHIFT 2017) and conference interpreting alike (Moser-Mercer 2003, 2005a, 2005b). Initially, interpreters appeared to see it as a threat rather than an opportunity (Gentile 2016: 276; Gentile 2021: 164-166). In terms of mediation as understood in the Italian context, the use of pre-pandemic remote mediation was certainly limited and mostly in the form of telephone mediation in the healthcare setting (Amato 2017). Conversely, in the Covid-19 era most mediation jobs took place online, on platforms such as Google Meet, Zoom or Microsoft Teams that allowed for what Braun (2015: 352) would define as three-way videoconferencing, with each participant including the mediator in separate locations.

This dramatic shift of setting and working conditions happened so abruptly that some mediators did not have the time (nor the opportunity, see §2) to train ahead for RI, nor did the public service providers have the time to train on how to best conduct online meetings (Bernardi/Gnani 2022: 65). Conversely, training seems to be a critical factor of RI success in pediatric therapy settings (Sultanić 2022: 96) and legal settings (AVIDICUS project, Braun 2016). According to Braun and Taylor (2012), in the first edition of AVIDICUS (2008-2011) video-mediated interpreting amplified terminology and turn management problems, as well as creating additional difficulties related to lack of eye contact and sound quality issues, and increasing interpreters' cognitive load, early signs of fatigue, and lack of empathy with their interlocutors. Such results largely confirmed those of the ViKiS project (Braun 2007) which analyzed videoconference interpreting in business settings. RI-related issues were effectively reduced in AVIDICUS-2 (2011-2013) by training both interpreters and police officers on the use of RI before its implementation, and by using high-quality equipment. These measures reduced the interpreters' perceived level of stress and the number of interpreting errors. Still, the interviews conducted during AVIDICUS-3 (2013-2016) with legal profes-

7 <https://www.veasyt.com/it/live.html> (viewed 30/3/22).

sionals, interpreters, and representatives of videoconferencing service providers revealed an insufficient awareness on the part of many legal and institutional representatives regarding the complexity of videoconferencing interpretation, and a lack of adequate training for interpreters (Braun *et al*. 2016).

The ViKiS and AVIDICUS projects have brought attention to the coordinating role of the dialogue interpreter, which is both amplified and hampered by RI. Interpreters were more frequently called upon to manage the interaction and this "led them to do more coordination than in traditional bilateral interpreting assignments" (Braun 2015: 362). This increased burden adds up to the "peculiar challenges of RI, which include the lack of contextual cues, difficulties with turn-taking, overlapping talk, deixis, and acoustic strain, to mention only a few" (Amato/Mack 2022: 469).

Having to resort to RI literally overnight, without training or notice at a time of global health crisis (a frightful and burdensome situation in itself), can only count as further aggravating factors. In fact, this abrupt shift seems to have had a heavy impact even on simultaneous interpreters, a category that may be perceived to be more familiar with working through headphones and being physically (although not emotionally) more separated from the interpreted interaction than mediators and dialogue interpreters. A survey conducted among professional simultaneous interpreters in 2021 highlighted a range of causes for interpreters' distress while performing RI, from acoustic problems leading to hearing loss, to feeling detached from the interpreted situation, pointing to loss of empathy (Ferri 2022).

It is easy to imagine that mediators, too, would experience RI as an increased cognitive burden and as a challenge to their active role, just like the dialogue interpreters involved in AVIDICUS and ViKiS, while struggling with acoustic problems and loss of empathy as much as the simultaneous interpreters surveyed by Ferri (*Ibid*.).

3. Aim and scope of the study, research design and methodological issues

In this study, we aim at answering one overarching research question: in which way(s), if any, have the Covid-19 pandemic and its consequences (e.g. lockdowns, remote work, etc.) affected mediators' work?

This is complemented by two more detailed sub-questions:

How did the transition to *remote* mediation impact on mediators' working conditions and stress levels? And,

Did the consequences of the Covid-19 pandemic have an impact on how mediators exert their *agency*?

The research questions were further detailed into the online questionnaire whose English translation can be found in Appendix 1. The survey design included 31 questions. The first 10 questions were aimed at collecting socio-demographic information about mediators, while the remaining 21 were both multiple choice and open-ended questions, aimed at eliciting subjective responses on mediators' perceptions about their profession during the Covid-19 pandemic.

One methodological issue arose with reference to the wording we should adopt in the questionnaire for *agency*, as respondents may not have the necessary metalanguage to easily grasp what is meant by the specific English term *agency* that is used in academic circles. Due to the need to translate the term into Italian, we used the descriptive phrase *ruolo attivo* ("active role") in the questionnaire. We were aware that this would shift the focus of the research question from the specific notion of agency to the more general one of active participation (as an acknowledged speaker) in the mediated interaction, but we felt this wording would be easier to grasp for our respondents, who had no way of asking for clarification while answering the questionnaire. It is worth mentioning again that, due to the gaps in the professionalization of mediation discussed in §1, mediators do not necessarily receive formal higher education in mediation, T&I or intercultural communication.

For data to be internally consistent, we limited our scope to mediators working for mediation agencies in the Italian region of Emilia-Romagna, a region in northern Italy. This meant that respondents could be expected to share comparable working contexts in terms of legal and administrative framework, working conditions, broader social context, and so on. Seven mediation agencies located in six different cities (Reggio Emilia, Modena, Bologna, Forlì, Ravenna and Ferrara) were contacted by e-mail and asked to distribute the link to the anonymous survey (via Google Forms) to their pool of mediators. The online survey remained open for eight weeks between February and March 2022, and 27 mediators responded in this timeframe. The response rate cannot be established, as we do not have information on the number of mediators who were contacted by each agency[8].

The socio-demographic data of the sample (first 10 questions) is presented in §4. The answers to the remaining 21 questions were coded and qualitatively analyzed by means of thematic analysis jointly by the two authors, based on the original responses in Italian. The most recurrent themes that emerged are described in the sub-sections of §5, and exemplified by excerpts of the original responses translated into English by the authors.

4. Socio-demographic data

The 27 mediators who completed the online survey were between 20 and 64 years of age at the time of the survey (Table 1) and lived in 18 distinct locations across the Emilia-Romagna region. 5 of them (18.5%) were born in Italy, while 22 (81.5%) were born abroad.

8 As mentioned in §1, in Emilia-Romagna only agencies and cooperatives are in contact with the freelance mediators they hire, and there is no public list of professionals that can be consulted.

Age range	No. of respondents	%
20-24	1	3.7%
25-29	0	0%
30-34	10	37%
35-39	4	14.8%
40-44	4	14.8%
45-49	1	3.7%
50-60	6	22.2%
Over 60	1	3.7%

Table 1. Age of respondents (total = 27)

The breakdown by country of birth (Table 2) is comparable to both data collected by the Regional administration among mediators (Barbieri *et al.* 2021: 35) and that of the general population of immigrants living in Emilia-Romagna[9].

County of birth	No. of respondents	%
Italy	5	18.5%
Morocco	4	14.8%
China	3	11.1%
Albania	2	7.4%
Nigeria	2	7.4%
Pakistan	2	7.4%
Turkey	1	3.7%
'Abroad'	1	3.7%
Ghana	1	3.7%
Ivory Coast	1	3.7%
Libya	1	3.7%
Romania	1	3.7%
Tunisia	1	3.7%
Moldova	1	3.7%
Egypt	1	3.7%

Table 2. Countries of origin of respondents (total = 27)

The data relating to the time of residence in Italy (Table 3) show that the mediators who were not born in Italy are long-term migrants, who moved to Italy more than 15 years before the time of the survey (20 respondents, i.e. 90.9% of

9 <https://www.tuttitalia.it/emilia-romagna/statistiche/cittadini-stranieri-2021/> (visited 5/8/22).

the sub-sample of 22 foreign-born mediators), or at least 10 years prior to the survey (2 respondents, or 9.1% of the foreign-born mediators).

Time of residence	No. of respondents	%
More than 15 years	20	90.9%
10-15 years	2	9.1%

Table 3. Time of residence in Italy of foreign-born respondents (total = 22)

When asked how they would define their profession, 22 participants (81.5%) described themselves as "cultural and language mediators", 3 (11.1%) as "cultural mediators", 1 (3.7%) as a "language mediator", and 1 (3.7%) as an "interpreter". By adopting the definition "cultural and language mediators", most of them emphasize the importance of both the linguistic and cultural sides of the practice and do not align with the terminology used by the Emilia-Romagna region (§1, Barbieri *et al.* 2021) that only mentions the intercultural aspect.

Definition	No. of respondents	%
Cultural and language mediator	22	81.5%
Cultural mediator	3	11.1%
Interpreter	1	3.7%
Language mediator	1	3.7%

Table 4. Respondents' definition of their job (total = 27)

As shown in Table 5, most respondents had considerable working experience as mediators/PSI. This suggests that they had started their professional career long before Covid-19 measures (including RI) set in, and may have noticed any changes that such measures brought in the professional practice.

Experience as mediator	No. of respondents	%
More than 14 years	10	37%
10-14 years	3	11.1%
5-9 years	7	25.9%
0-4 years	7	25.9%

Table 5. Number of years worked as a mediator/PSI (total = 27)

As to the settings in which they worked as mediators (a question that allowed for multiple choices and also for a free description under the option "Other"), schools were mentioned by 17 (62.9%); hospitals by 20 (74.1%); police stations, courthouses, and social services by 4 (14.8%) each; and shelters and prisons by 2 (7.4%) each. The variety of working settings mentioned by most respondents, as well as the positioning of the question as the last socio-demographic item in the questionnaire, suggests that the answers to questions 11-32, detailed in §5, were not referred to any one specific setting, but to respondents' working experience as a whole.

5. Analysis and discussion of mediators' perceptions of Covid-19 impact on their professional practice

Answers to questions 11-31 were analyzed by means of thematic analysis. The most recurrent themes are arranged in this section following the two exploratory research questions outlined in §3. Therefore, §5.1 investigates the impact of the transition to remote mediation on mediators' working conditions and stress levels; while §5.2 deals with the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on how mediators exert their agency (worded as "active role") in the interaction.

5.1 Transition to remote mediation

5.1.1 Previous RI experience, equipment, training

26 mediators out of 27 (96.3%) reported working remotely during the Covid-19 pandemic, and for 15 of them (a slight majority, 55.6%) this was a new mode of mediation since they had never worked remotely before (while the remaining 12, or 44.4%, had already practised remote mediation). The majority of the respondents (23 out of 27, 85.2%) indicated that they had the adequate equipment to work remotely, while the 4 participants (14.8%) who did not have the necessary equipment said that the tools they would need were a business mobile phone (other than their personal one), a good internet connection, a computer, and a headset.

Additionally, 18 respondents (66.7%) would have liked or would still like (at the time of the survey) to take a remote mediation training course. The primary areas of interest for further training were the following: i) computer and technology skills (especially related to the newest applications and platforms used to hold remote meetings); ii) how to be prepared and the best mediation strategies when working remotely; iii) psychological issues related to both working remotely and during a world health crisis.

5.1.2 RI-induced change in mediation techniques and strategies

14 mediators (51.9%) did not perceive any change in the mediation techniques and strategies they usually adopt even after the transition to remote mediation, whereas 13 mediators (48.1%) did report a change.

A thematic analysis identified one main category of causes of those changes, namely the frequent absence of nonverbal communication in remote mediations (without or with poor video connection). This absence resulted in a mode of mediation that was more reliant on written material that could be consulted offline, as reported in Excerpt 1, or in a kind of interpreting that was perceived as a mere interlinguistic transfer of verbal elements ("translation", as in Excerpt 2)[10].

> 1. They [my mediation techniques and strategies] have changed in that they [mediations] were online rather than in-person, so there were no *extralinguistic and contextual elements, no direct relation and sometimes no eye contact* (when the families did not turn their webcams on, for instance). However, it was possible to send translated material, give them time to read it, and reschedule the meeting. It was much more informal.

> 2. All the *non-verbal and paraverbal language was missing*. So, it was *more of a translation than mediation* proper.

5.1.3 Advantages, difficulties and stress connected with RI

The transition to remote mediation appears to have had some advantages, such as saving on travel time and money (mentioned by 5 respondents, 18.5%) and staying safe from the virus (reported by 1, 3.7%).

However, negative consequences in terms of increased difficulty and stress were mentioned more frequently, and respondents expanded more on the reasons causing them.

One commonly mentioned drawback of RI was working from home. Many of our respondents were not equipped to work from home and had to do so without being able to isolate themselves from their children and family, who were also at home. This caused noise and distractions that undermined the mediators' concentration. In addition, the instability of the internet connection added to the stress and tension.

> 3. […] The workplace! *Mediation work relies on listening and observation, so one needs to stay focused, which is not possible if one is at home with her children!* […] Facemasks! Having to meet someone across a screen is already complicated, *if people wear facemasks, understanding what they say is twice as complicated for me*.

> 4. Faulty connections – *so stressful!*

Another reason that made the mediators' work more stressful and challenging was the feeling of worry and anxiety of the other two parties involved in the mediation, the migrant families and the Italian service providers (Excerpt 5). Apparently, such worry and anxiety are perceived to hamper effective communication and to make mediation more tiring and burdensome, as detailed in Excerpts 6 and 7.

> 5. Yes, the situation was *stressful* [there were] *fears, anxieties*, being far from one's country. Changing one's social life and relations.

10 In all the excerpts displayed in this paper, italics is used to emphasize the most relevant passages.

6. It did have an impact, *work got more difficult because of the worries, the diffidence*, and also because of the *tension* that one feels verbally.

7. Everybody was worried, doctors were stressed, patients scared. It's much more *burdensome*. I have to explain many times.

Additional and less recurrent reasons, which were also mentioned by single respondents, appear worthy of mention here because they outline difficulties that are specific to the Covid-19 pandemic.

One is the time constraint imposed by encounters taking place on remote platforms. When meeting in presence, the appointment time can be more easily negotiated (at least in the Italian culture). Conversely, having to remain within an allotted time apparently leaves less leeway for a real cultural encounter (Excerpt 8):

8. Yes because the mediator *is not given the time to explain* and to make it possible for the two cultures to merge.

Another reason why RI was perceived as more stressful by one respondent was the feeling of responsibility attached to translating legal documents with healthcare consequences (the several Prime Minister's Decrees). It should be mentioned that during the Conte government, such decrees were a major topic and source of key information across all public administrations, including social and educational settings where legal and medical discourses that put so much at stake for the mediator might have been less common in pre-Covid-19 times. It should also be highlighted that the same respondent who mentioned this responsibility as a burden also connected it with an aspect that stems directly from the mediator's agency, intended as the possibility and responsibility of changing the social situation s/he engages in – creating hope and trust while translating the particulars of a global health crisis (Excerpt 9):

9. *More responsibility* to convey what the DPCM (Prime Minister's decree) says and *create hope and trust*.

5.2 Mediators' agency during the Covid-19 pandemic

Over the past 20 years, the mediator's active participation in the interaction as an acknowledged participant with conversational power has been increasingly examined in the international literature (Wadensjö 1998; Angelelli 2004; Mason/Ren 2012). Often, this concept has been expanded as to include agency, intended as the mediator's/interpreter's active choice of his/her course of action that can change the outcome of the conversation and the surrounding social situation (Baraldi/Gavioli 2012; Baraldi 2019; Delizée 2022). Items 22 to 25 of the survey sought to investigate mediators' perceptions about their own agency and active participation in the interactions they mediate when working during an emergency such as a world health crisis. For the metalinguistic concerns outlined in §3, one generic Italian wording was used to subsume both concepts, *ruolo attivo* (active role). In order to establish firmer common ground about what was intended by "mediator's active role", respondents were asked to define what the phrase meant to them.

The answers were varied, but can be categorized into two main themes: i) facilitating communication by eliminating not only linguistic but also cultural barriers; and ii) encouraging and maintaining the human relationship with the migrant family. Interestingly, these representations of a mediator's *active* role are very similar to the mediator's role *per se* (§1), suggesting that in the professionals' minds, mediating normally goes beyond mere interlinguistic transfer.

Significant examples of point i) are given in Excerpt 10 (through a metaphor that aptly summarizes the mediator's role as a facilitator) and Excerpt 11:

> 10. The role of the mediator is *like mayonnaise in a sandwich, it softens and decreases the barriers* between the service provider and the family [...]

> 11. To me it's the ability to *collect cultural information/data and being able to decipher it and at the same time process it* in such a way it can be understood by all those involved in the mediation, so as to create an *interaction channel*.

As anticipated in point ii) above, in addition to the ability to remove linguistic and cultural barriers, the mediator's active role was associated with the ability to create a human relationship with the parties involved, a trait that has been acknowledged as an important part of mediation, especially in healthcare settings (Merlini/Gatti 2015). In the following Excerpts 12 to 16, we have emphasized the key words that refer to that ability – listening, empathy, trust, helping and welcoming the other (see also Excerpt 8 above):

> 12. *Being physically there*, *welcoming*, *empathizing* with those who are in the minority situation and group.

> 13. *Human relationship* of *communicating* with and *understanding* the other *in a relation of help*.

> 14. *Listening* and *presence*, creating *trust*.

> 15. I think the [mediator's] active role is *being part of the other's life, of their history* in the moment when you are mediating.

> 16. Trying to *help* people understand in the clearest and most active way possible, I try my best and put people *at ease, so they do not feel embarrassed at trying to make themselves understood*.

> 17. Identifying people's needs, stress management, *contextualization*, *explicitation*, active communication, *trust-building*, *listening*. *Patience*.

Table 6 summarizes and contrasts the answers to two closed questions on how the respondents' role was perceived from not very active to very active before and after the outbreak of Covid-19. An evident loss of activity appears to have been perceived.

	Pre-Covid-19	During Covid-19
Not very active	0	7 (25.9%)
Active	12 (44.4%)	9 (33.3%)
Very active	15 (55.6%)	11 (40.7%)

Table 6. Active/Non-active self-perceived role (total = 27)

When asked about the reason for this change in perception, some mediators associated a less active role to the necessary shift to remote mediation. In their opinion, the distance eliminated the possibility of establishing a closer relationship with the parties involved (Excerpt 18). Sometimes, the other parties' resistance against the remote mode offered less leeway to exert an active role (Excerpt 19). This partly contrasts with Excerpt 20, where the same reason (providers' and families' resistance to use new technology) led to the mediator having to take on an even more active role in order to bridge a wider gap:

> 18. Telephone mediations are *cold and fast*.
>
> 19. *Not all service providers or families accept the remote mode*, for privacy reasons and out of habit.
>
> 20. [...] *some people could not use the various platforms well*, some did not know how to behave in a remote mediation, some did not understand, *so I had to adjust to each and every new situation* using a different method and strategy.

Other open-ended questions that did not explicitly foreground the notion of an active role also yielded responses that implied mediators' perceptions of their agency. Sometimes these highlighted the silver linings of RI given the circumstances, as in Excerpts 21 and 22:

> 21. The opportunity of *preserving some contact*, despite distancing and the lockdown. Being able to experiment with a new working methodology.
>
> 22. *Being still able to solve people's problems is a good thing anyway*.

Other respondents, conversely, point mainly to the difficulty in maintaining a relationship of trust and empathy, which, as we have seen above, is a crucial aspect of mediators' self-perceived active role. This is apparent in Excerpts 23-27. Interestingly, some mediators seem to think that when one strips mediation of that active and empathetic role, what is left is translation or (just) interpreting, clearly, and questionably, intended here as a merely interlinguistic practice:

> 23. The *DISTANCE* with people! My profession consists in a part of essential work that is NON VERBAL observation, which allows me to collect data that are important to create a relation of *trust and empathy* [...].
>
> 24. We no longer had the space to create a relation of *trust*, families were more *detached*.

> 25. The *human aspect went missing*. It was *more [working as] a translator than a mediator*.

> 26. It was a lot different, yes, everybody behind a screen. Some with facemasks, some without. We *missed the human interaction, and everything that is cultural mediation*.

> 27. Yes, of course the atmosphere is different, it has become *just language interpretation*. We are all more *mechanical*…

All in all, it seems that most of our respondents perceived a decline in their agency or active role during the Covid-19 pandemic. This was mainly related to a loss of non-verbal contact due to RI and Covid-19 prevention measures. This in turn hampered empathy and trust-building, which our respondents recurrently mentioned as unequivocally positive components of agency.

6. Conclusions

In this paper we carried out a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the results of an online survey completed by 27 mediators from the Emilia-Romagna region in Italy. The aim was to investigate mediators' perceived impact of Covid-19 and Covid-19-related measures on mediation services. The results confirmed that professional mediators perceived a detrimental effect on their work due to pandemic-related changes.

This was mainly due to the transition from in-person to remote mediation, which the professionals perceived mainly as more difficult and stressful (in line with conference interpreters: Gentile 2021; Amato/Mack 2022: 469; Ferri 2022). There were two main reasons for this: firstly, mediators had to deal with the feelings of increased worry, anxiety and stress of the two other parties involved, i.e. the migrant families and the Italian public service providers; and secondly, the limited availability of non-verbal communication in the remote mode hampered mediators' agency, glossed as "active role" in our questionnaire. Mediators reported playing a less active role because they could not establish and maintain the same level of listening, empathy, and trustful and supportive relationships that they had in presence before the pandemic.

Furthermore, although the mediators agreed that technology allowed them to continue working at a time when they could not travel or even leave their homes due to Covid-19 prevention measures, they did not always have good internet connection and it was not easy to use the digital platforms for remote mediation without any prior training.

Even though we acknowledge the limited size of the sample of respondents, we believe that the results can provide some insight into Italian mediators' perceptions of their profession during the Covid-19 pandemic. These findings may have implications for the training and professional development of mediators. Ongoing training that allows mediators to become familiar with new working conditions and understand what strategies to adopt to coordinate an online meeting with remote mediation would be as crucial as it is for all dialogue interpreters (Braun 2016). This would imply giving mediators the same opportunities for professional development that interpreters and translators enjoy through their professional associations.

References

Amato A. (2017) "Incontri medici faccia a faccia e telefonate al servizio d'emergenza sanitaria in Italia e di emergenza negli Stati Uniti: un confronto", in F. San Vicente / P. Capanaga / G. Bazzocchi (eds) *Oraliter - Formas de la comunicacion presencial y a distancia*, Bologna, BUP, 143-160.

Amato A. / Mack G. (2022) "Interpreter education and training", in F. Zanettin / C. Rundle (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Methodology*, London / New York, Routledge, 457-475.

Angelelli C. (2004) *Medical Interpreting and Cross-cultural Communication*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Baraldi C. (2009) "Il significato della mediazione con bambini e adolescenti", in C. Baraldi / G. Maggioni (eds) *La mediazione con bambini e adolescenti*, Roma, Donzelli, 3-34.

Baraldi C. (2015) "Dialogue Interpreting in an Italian Immigrant Support Centre: mediating constructions of social conditions", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 20, 57-72.

Baraldi C. (2019) "Pragmatics and agency in healthcare interpreting", in R. Tipton / L. Desilla (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Pragmatics*, London / New York: Routledge, 319–335.

Baraldi C. / Gavioli L. (2012) *Coordinating Participation in Dialogue Interpreting*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Baraldi C. / Gavioli L. (2020) "Authentic mediated interactions for training healthcare mediators", in N. K. Pokorn / M. Viezzi / T. R. Felberg (eds) *Teacher Education for Community Interpreting and Intercultural Mediation*, Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete.

Barbieri M. / Mato J. / Facchini A. / Salvador D./ Costantini R. (2021) *La mediazione inter-culturale in Emilia-Romagna. Uno strumento per le politiche di inclusione e di contrasto alle disuguaglianze. Report di ricerca – giugno 2021*, <https://bit.ly/3JrPSvr> (visited 18/07/2022).

Belpiede A. (2002) *Mediazione culturale*, Torino, Utet.

Bernardi E. / Gnani F. (2022) "The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on medical interpreters / cultural mediators in Italy", *FITISPos International Journal* 9(1), 54-77.

Braun S. (2007) "Interpreting in small-group bilingual videoconferences: challenges and adaptation processes", *Interpreting* 9/1, 21-46.

Braun S. (2015) "Remote interpreting", in H. Mikkelson / R. Jourdenais (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Interpreting*, London / New York, Routledge, 352-367.

Braun S. (2016) "The European AVIDICUS projects: collaborating to assess the viability of video-mediated interpreting in legal proceedings", *European Journal of Applied Linguistics* 4/1, 173-180.

Braun S. / Davitti E. / Dicerto S. (2016) *AVIDICUS 3 Project – Research Report*, <http://wp.videoconference-interpreting.net/?page_id=180> (last visited 9/4/22).
Braun S. / Taylor J. (2012) "AVIDICUS comparative studies - part I: traditional interpreting and remote interpreting in police interviews", in S. Braun / J. Taylor (eds) *Videoconference and Remote Interpreting in Criminal Proceedings*, Antwerp / Cambridge / Portland, Intersentia, 99-118.
Delizée A. (2022) "Mission humanitaire médicale en situation de crise COVID-19: l'âgentivité du médiateur interculturel", *FITISPos International Journal* 9/1, 146-166.
Falbo C. (2013) "'Interprete' et 'mediatore linguistico-culturale': deux figures professionnelles opposées?", in G. Agresti / C. Schiavone (eds) *Plurilinguisme et monde du travail. Professions, opérateurs et acteurs de la diversité linguistique. Actes des Cinquièmes Journées des Droits Linguistiques*, Rome, Aracne, 253-270.
Favaro G. (2001) *I Mediatori linguistici e culturali nella scuola*, Bologna, EMI.
Federici F. (2021) "Translation in contexts of crisis", in E. Bielsa / D. Kapsaskis (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Globalization*, London / New York, Routledge, 176-189.
Ferri, E. (2022) *Gli effetti della pandemia da COVID-19 sull'interpretazione simultanea: come cambia il panorama. Una indagine tra interpreti e organizzatori di eventi in Italia*, unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Bologna.
Gavioli L. (2009) "La mediazione linguistico-culturale come interazione. Introduzione al volume", in L. Gavioli (ed.) *La mediazione linguistico-culturale: una prospettiva interazionista*, Perugia, Guerra, 11-40.
Gentile P. (2016) *The Interpreter's Professional Status. A Sociological Investigation into the Profession*, unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Trieste.
Gentile P. (2021) "Interpreting in a globalized world: current perspectives and future challenges", in E. Bielsa / D. Kapsaskis (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Globalization*, London / New York, Routledge, 161-175.
Katan D. (2013) "Cultural mediation" in Y. Gambier / L. Van Doorslaer (eds) *Handbook of Translation Studies* Vol. 4, Amsterdam / Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 84–91.
Kelly N. (2008) *Telephone Interpreting: A Comprehensive Guide to the Profession*, Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.
Luatti L. (2011) *Mediatori atleti dell'incontro: Luoghi, modi e nodi della mediazione interculturale*, Gussago: Vannini Editrice.
Mason I. / Ren W. (2012) "Power in face-to-face interpreting events", in C. Angelelli (ed.) *The Sociological Turn in Translation and Interpreting Studies*, Amsterdam / Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 234-253.
Merlini R. / Gatti M. (2015) "Empathy in healthcare interpreting: going beyond the notion of role", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 20, 139-160.
Moser-Mercer B. (2003) "Remote interpreting: assessment of human factors and performance parameters", <https://aiic.org/document/516/AIICWebzine_Summer2003_3_MOSER-MERCER_Remote_interpreting_Assessment_of_human_factors_and_performance_parameters_Original.pdf> (last viewed 9/4/22).

Moser-Mercer B. (2005a) “Remote interpreting: issues of multi-sensory integration in a multilingual task”, *Meta* 50/2, 727-738.
Moser-Mercer B. (2005b) “Remote interpreting: the crucial role of presence”, *Swiss Association of Applied Linguistics* 81, 73-97.
Rudvin M. / Spinzi C. (2014) “Negotiating the terminological borders of ‘language mediation’ in English and Italian. A discussion on the repercussions of terminology on the practice, self-perception and role of language mediators in Italy”, *Lingue Culture Mediazioni / Languages Cultures Mediation* 1/1-2: 57-79.
Russo M. / Mack G. (2005) *Interpretazione di trattativa: La mediazione linguistico-culturale nel contesto formativo e professionale*, Milan, Hoepli.
SHIFT (2017) *Report 2: Remote technologized interpreting (telephone-based and video-based remote interpreting): main features and shifts with on-site bilateral interpreting*, <https://site.unibo.it/shiftinorality/en/project-outputs/report-2-remote-technologized-interpreting-telephone-based-and-video-based-remote-interpreting-main-features-and-shifts-with-on-site-bilateral-interpreting> (last viewed 9/4/22).
Sultanić I. (2022) “Interpreting in pediatric therapy settings during the COVID-19 pandemic: benefits and limitations of remote communication technologies and their effect on turn-taking and role boundary”, *FITISPos International Journal* 9/1, 78-101.
Tonioli V. (2016) “Una figura da ri-definire. Il mediatore linguistico e culturale”, in C. A. Melero Rodríguez (ed.) *Le lingue in Italia, le lingue in Europa: dove siamo, dove andiamo*, Venice, Edizioni Ca’ Foscari - Digital Publishing.
Wadensjö C. (1998) *Interpreting as Interaction,* London / New York, Routledge.

Appendix 1

English translation of the questionnaire

1. Where do you live? (City)
2. Where were you born? (Country)
3. If you were not born in Italy, how long have you been living in Italy?
4. What is your highest level of education?
(high school – university degree – PhD)
5. What are your working languages?
6. How would you define your profession?
(cultural mediator, linguistic-cultural mediator, linguistic mediator, interpreter)
7. How long have you been working as a mediator/interpreter?
(0-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years, 14+ years)
8. Do you have other jobs?
(yes/no)
9. If you have other jobs, which ones?
10. In which settings do you work as a mediator/interpreter?
(school, hospital, police, courtroom, other)
11. During the COVID-19 pandemic, did you have to work remotely?
(yes/no)
12. Had you ever mediated/interpreted remotely before?
(yes/no)
13. Do/did you have the right equipment to mediate/interpret remotely (e.g., computer, headphones, etc)?
(yes/no)
14. If not, what do/did you miss?
15. Which was the hardest part of your work during the COVID-19 pandemic?
16. Please describe any positive aspects of your work during the COVID-19 pandemic.
17. Has your relationship with migrant families changed while mediating/interpreting for them during the COVID-19 pandemic?
18. Has your relationship with Italian public service providers (teachers, doctors etc.) changed while mediating/interpreting for them during the COVID-19 pandemic?
19. Can you tell us if the atmosphere of the meetings which you mediated during the pandemic was different than usual (e.g., teachers/doctors were more or less friendly, families/patients were more or less friendly/worried) and if this had an impact on your work?
20. Do you feel your mediation techniques and strategies have changed during the pandemic?
(yes/no)

21. If you feel your mediation techniques and strategies have changed, how?

22. What does the expression "mediator's active role" mean to you?

23. How active do you usually consider your role as a mediator in the interaction?

(very active, active, little active)

24. During the COVID-19 pandemic, how active was your role as a mediator in the interaction?

(very active, active, little active)

25. If you answered that your active role as a mediator has changed during the pandemic, can you describe what particular aspects of it changed, and how?

26. Would you like or would you have liked to attend a training course about remote mediation/interpreting?

(yes/no)

27. If so, which aspects would you like to tackle during the training course?

28. Which one of the following phrases best describes the mediator's/interpreter's role?

(language expert, cultural expert, communication facilitator, word-for-word translator, advocate for migrant families)

29. Would you like to add any comment to your previous answer?

30. Which cultural aspects make mediation/interpreting situations difficult?

(culture-bound terms and phrases including dialects and slang, differences in cultural habits and behavioural patterns including social/cultural rituals, meaning of gestures, others)

31. During the COVID-19 pandemic, was it difficult to manage the cultural aspects that you mentioned in the previous answer, especially if you worked remotely?

32. Please leave your email address if you wish to be contacted again by the researchers for an interview. Thank you!

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 63-87
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34392 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Finding a way into an interpreter's heart: methodological considerations on heart-rate variability building on an exploratory study

Nicoletta Spinolo,
Christian Olalla-Soler and
Ricardo Muñoz Martín
DIT, Università di Bologna

Abstract

Physiological indicators of stress such as galvanic skin response, cortisol, and heart rate are gathering momentum in Cognitive Translation and Interpreting Studies. Heart-rate variability (HRV) is gaining ground as a possibly reliable indicator of stress for tasks that do not involve physical activity. However, using electrocardiography and photoplethysmography (PPG) sensors in research involves following methodological guidelines to prevent negative impacts on data. We performed an observational, exploratory study on HRV in onsite vs. remote interpreting with interpreters (n = 5) with no experience in remote interpreting. Data was collected with Empatica E4 wristbands, which use PPG sensors to measure heart rate variability. We report results, yet our focus is the methodological issues derived from using heart rate (HR) and HRV as indicators of stress that we encountered both at data collection and in the analysis. We will formulate methodological recommendations regarding HR, HRV and (1) the characteristics and size of the sample; (2) the structuring of data collection sessions; (3) the selection of stimuli; (4) its relationship with other variables; (5) the selection of heart-related indicators; and (6) statistical analysis.

Keywords

Interpreting, arousal, heart-rate variability, methodology, naturalistic data collection.

Introduction and rationale

Research on remote and distance interpreting has compared stress levels of professionals carrying out onsite and distance simultaneous interpreting with a traditional interpreting booth and console (Moser-Mercer 2005, Roziner/Shlesinger 2010). Here, we compare stress levels of professionals carrying out onsite vs. remote simultaneous interpreting (RSI) tasks on an RSI platform. Stress was measured with the indicators heart rate (HR) and heart-rate variability (HRV, time changes between consecutive heartbeats). The research questions we explored are:

1. Is there a difference between remote SI and onsite SI in terms of stress?
2. If so, does remote SI become less stressful after the first use of an RSI platform?
3. Does stress correlate with (a) filled pauses in the target text, (b) other disfluencies in the target text, and (c) delivery speed of the source text?

In this exploratory study, our aim was to test our research design (§2) and not to provide answers to these questions. Hence, we provide our results (§3), discuss the methodological limitations, and provide recommendations for using HR and HRV as indicators of stress (§4).

1. Stress

Professional *multilectal mediated communication* (MMC) tasks–especially, simultaneous interpreting (SI)–are customarily described as *stressful* activities (e.g., Mackintosh 2003; Bayer-Hohenwarter 2009; Gile 2009: 112–113) because they often come with time pressure and high cognitive demands. In the Cognitive Translation and Interpreting Studies (CTIS) literature, the terms *stress, time pressure* and *anxiety* are sometimes used interchangeably but some terminological precisions are in order.[1] These terms pivot on *arousal*–i.e., how awake, activated and alert you are at a point in time; hence, *arousal* refers to graded states of neurovegetative activation associated with physical and psychological variations. Arousal is a coin with a physical side and a psychological side. Physically, arousal involves biological systems such as the autonomic nervous system and the endocrine system. Psychologically, arousal impacts emotions and behavior, and it affects memory, attention, and decision-making. The intensity of arousal may span from *apathy* to *relaxation*, *stress*, and *anxiety* (Figure 1). Non-pathological *apathy* describes a lack of motivation or goal-directed behavior and indifference to one's surroundings, and *relaxation* hints at abatement of intensity, vigor, energy, or tension, resulting in calmness of mind, body, or both (VandenBos 2015).

1 *Time pressure*–the feeling or awareness that one's duties exceed one's ability to complete them in the afforded time–is a well-known kind of stress for the MMC professional (e.g., Jensen 1999; De Rooze 2003; Sharmin *et al.* 2008; Weng/Zheng 2020; Rojo *et al.* 2021; Weng *et al.* 2022). It should not be confused with *lack of time*, which is the stressor prompting time pressure (see below).

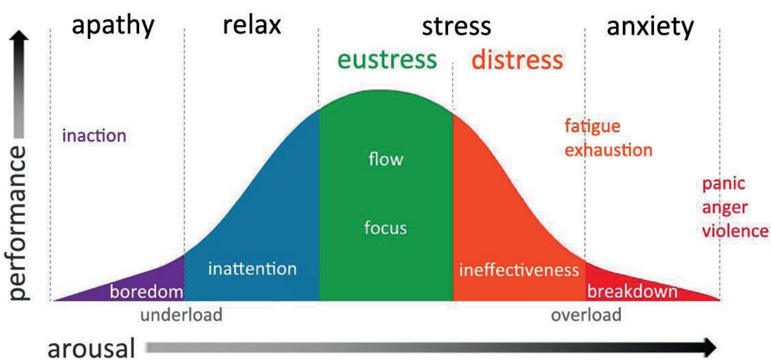

Figure 1. A model of the Yerkes-Dodson (1908) law of interaction between arousal and performance

Stress is a normal response of emotional tension to *stressors* (see below). Moderate stress, or *eustress*, is positive, whether in bursts–as when reacting to avoid a sudden danger–or continuous, as when we work feeling focused and in control. Eustress may foster a state of deep concentration and task absorption known as *cognitive flow* (Moneta 2018), which often results in both an optimal experience and top performance (Stranks 2005: 5). When facing difficulties, higher levels of stress may result in feeling overwhelmed or unable to cope with standing demands. This is *distress*, a non-adaptive response that may result in impaired performance, blocks and breakdowns.[2] *Anxiety* is a strong reaction to distress, a future-oriented, long-acting emotion of apprehension, fear, dread, or uneasiness and somatic symptoms of tension that anticipate impending danger or misfortune (cf. VandenBos 2015). Anxiety may linger after its cause wanes or disappears.

Stressors are detrimental or damaging factors causing stress. Cooper *et al.* (1982) class interpreters' stressors into physical/environmental, task-related, and interpersonal. Examples of stressors are poor ventilation, lighting problems, booth space, acoustics, sustained concentration, delegates reading their speeches, having a heavy accent or speaking too low, and the like. Stressors researched in CTIS include long turns in the booth (Moser-Mercer *et al.* 1998), conditions in media interpreting (Kurz 2002), lack of background knowledge (Macintosh 2003), and fast speech (Korpal 2016).

Regardless of the stressor, the nature (not the intensity) of individual response patterns tends to remain unaltered. However, people react in different ways when facing a stressor. De Rooze (2003) found systematically lower translation quality in most translators under stringent time constraints, but 25% of them reached higher quality scores also systematically (three data-collection in-

2 As in Figure 1, we keep the terms *eustress* and *distress* to underscore that the response may be deemed positive or negative, but stress seems to be just one phenomenon, albeit graded (Bienertova-Vasku *et al.* 2020), and part of the wider construct of arousal. Hence, it would be more correct to describe eustress as *positive arousal* and distress as *negative arousal.* Both positive and negative arousal may be moderate or high.

stances).[3] People perceive and adapt to stressors in different ways (Sapolsky 2015; Ebner/Singewald 2017).

Stressors may be situational, like noise and the place where you interpret. Moser-Mercer (2005) studied interpreters' physiological reactions in on-site and RSI and found that RSI was more stressful, and performance quality decayed faster. Roziner/Shlesinger (2010) also found a faster decline in quality but no significant difference between both interpreting situations, except as self-reported. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether such differences are due to the task or to the setting. Cooper *et al.* (1982) also mention that stressors vary between home and work environments, such that one scenario may sooth the stress away from the other one or spill over and add to it. Onsite and RSI differences merit more study, in view of the recent massive move towards remote communication.

Stress is technically a physical response to a disruption of *homeostasis* (Billman 2020)–the dynamic, adaptive state of good physical and chemical balance in physiological processes and bodily functions (e.g., body temperature, blood pressure, blood sugar and pH levels, etc.). Homeostasis is achieved through self-regulating mechanisms that overcome a natural resistance to change, to adjust to personal and environmental demands. Emotional responses to stress include anxiety, restlessness, frustration, helplessness, fear, anger, sadness, and disgust. Questionnaires are often used for exposure to stressors over time (e.g., adult STRAIN, Slavich/Shields 2018) and momentary emotional responses (e.g., STAI Y1, Spielberger *et al.* 1983; PANAS-SF, Thompson 2007), and they have been used in CTIS (e.g., Courtney/Phelan 2019, Korpal 2021). However, correlations between self-reported measures and physiological indicators are poor (Hellhammer *et al.* 2010: 189; cf. also Moser-Mercer 2003).

Physiological indicators measure physical arousal. In CTIS they include blood test for immunoglobulin M (Moser-Mercer 2003), salivary cortisol test (Moser-Mercer *et al.* 1998; Mackintosh 2003; Moser-Mercer 2003; Roziner/Shlesinger 2010; Rojo *et al.* 2021), blood pressure (Klonowicz 1994; Mackintosh 2003; Roziner/Shlesinger 2010; Korpal 2016; Baghi/Khoshsaligheh 2019), heart rate (e.g., Klonowicz 1994; Kurz 2002, 2003; Mackintosh 2003; Roziner/Shlesinger 2010; Korpal 2016; Baghi/ Khoshsaligheh 2019; Rojo *et al.* 2021), and electrodermal activity (Matamala *et al.* 2020). Taking blood samples is very invasive and may deter participation, and cortisol takes 20 to 30 minutes to peak after momentary or acute stressor onset, and about 60 to return to normal. Thus, cortisol seems adequate to scrutinize the overall stress experienced in a whole task. Blood pressure also makes it difficult to determine punctual sources of stress (Korpal 2016: 311). Korpal (2016) suggests that blood pressure works better as a trait indicator but not for momentary, situation-induced stress (see also Hjortskov *et al.* 2004). Gordon/Berry (2021) use new indicators (blood pressure changes and reactivity) that hold promise.

Stress stimulates the heart both via the sympathetic and parasympathetic autonomic nervous systems. The sympathetic activity raises our heart rate (e.g.,

3 No data was collected as to how participants experienced the challenge, but eustress and distress might well be the reason for the difference. As for cognitive flow, it might explain instances of translation *peak performance* (cf. Jakobsen 2005).

when doing physical exercise), while parasympathetic activity lowers it (e.g., when resting). HRV reflects the dynamics of such interaction and provides a measure for stress through the activity of the autonomic nervous system. Low parasympathetic activity, characterized by a decrease in the high-frequency band and an increase in the low-frequency band, is the most frequently reported factor (Kim *et al*. 2018). There is some progress in determining statistical correlations between the average HRV and the intensity of stress indicators and best heart-beat-related indicators in short term mental stress (Fauquet-Alekhine *et al*. 2016; Hu/Gao 2022). Crucially, wearable sensors (especially, wrist-worn devices) can measure daily life stress (Kyriakou *et al*. 2019) and are used in CTIS (Weng/Zheng 2020; Weng *et al*. 2022). The unrestricted movements of participants wearing these devices can introduce artifacts that can be filtered out (Can *et al*. 2019).

2. Materials and methods

The dependent variables in our exploratory, intra-subject quasi-experimental study were (a) stress, measured with HR and HRV (see §2.4.1), and (b) performance indicators (filled pauses and other disfluencies–truncated words, reformulations, repetitions, false starts; §2.4.2). Our independent variables were (I) the interpreting setting (onsite vs. remote) and (II) exposure (first vs. second use of RSI platforms).

We first describe the procedure (§2.1) and our sample (§2.2). Then we describe our data-collection tools, Empatica E4 wristbands (§2.3.1) and audio recordings (§2.3.2). Next, we overview HR and HRV indicators (§2.4.1) and performance (§2.4.2), and data-extraction procedures and we describe the source speeches (§2.5). The statistical procedures we used are in §2.6, and we conclude the section with remarks on ethics (§2.7).

2.1 Procedure

We conducted the study in February 2020. The convenience sample of professionals convened twice for sessions held two weeks apart at university premises. In each session, they interpreted two live speeches (ES > IT) in different settings. For each interpretation, a moderator introduced the Spanish L1 speaker (always the same one).

The first session–*onsite interpreting* setting–was held at a lecture hall with booths with traditional *hard consoles* and direct view of both speaker and moderator. The second session–*remote interpreting* setting–was held at an interpreting lab; participants interpreted in booths with computers connected to the RSI platform Voiceboxer.[4] The moderator and the speaker connected to it from another booth, but interpreters could only see the speaker on screen, through the RSI platform. The order of the two settings (onsite first and remote second) was the

4 <https://voiceboxer.com/>.

same in both sessions; in a larger study with a larger sample, the order of conditions should be counterbalanced to control for fatigue effects. In this case, we knew that our sample size would not allow any conclusions, so we opted for practicality in data collection and on piloting a methodology for future larger studies.

During the sessions, this was the procedure:

1. Participants welcomed to lecture hall.
2. [first session] Participants orally briefed about the study, with the chance to ask questions. Informed consent forms signed.
3. Empatica E4 wristbands placed on participants' wrists and turned on. The researchers noted down times when the wristbands were turned on.
4. Participants proceeded to the booths, and were given some time to get used to the room and adjust the settings of the hard console.
5. The moderator introduced the speaker and the topic, then the speaker read the speech. The speech exact starting and ending times were noted down.[5]
6. Once finished, participants had some time to relax. Then they were given a source-text transcript to mark all segments that had drawn their attention for some reason (difficulty, problems, etc.).
7. Participants were walked to the remote interpreting setting. Once there, they were placed in the booths and given 15-20 minutes to relax. This timespan was used to measure the participants' HR and HRV baseline (see §2.4.1).
8. In the first session with the RSI platform, participants were introduced to platform functions and controls.
9. Step 5 was repeated.
10. Then step 6 was repeated. Relax time was used to measure the participants' recovery phase (see §2.4.1), after completion of both tasks.

After step 10, the session ended. In all, each session lasted 60–90 minutes. Data collection for both sessions was in two turns, due to the diverse availability of participants. Having the speech delivered live increased ecological validity, even though it was not possible to control for delivery speed in different turns. However, the mean and median speed duration was homogeneous in all turns (see §2.5).

2.2 Sample

Using a non-probabilistic, convenience sampling procedure (personal contacts), we recruited seven participants (five females, two males) with >5 years of professional experience but none with RSI platforms.[6] Demographic data on partic-

5 The Empatica E4 wristbands include an 'event marker' function, activated through a button that may also turn off or reset the device if pressed too long. To prevent data loss, we chose to note down the timings and ask participants not to touch the wristband. This also contributed, we believe, to make the participants 'less aware' of the wristband.

6 As of April 2022, this condition is difficult to meet in Italy, but it was not so in February 2020, right before the start of the pandemic.

ipants were collected in advance. Data of two participants from the first session was lost due to technical problems. Due to within-subject design, all their data was discarded. The remaining five participants (one male, four females) had a mean age of 39 (Mdn = 36, min = 34, max = 47), Italian as A language and Spanish and English (and one of them Portuguese) as B languages. Their mean professional experience was 12.8 in years (Mdn = 10, min = 5, max = 23) and 2760 in hours (Mdn = 3000, min = 1000, max = 4800).

2.3 Data-collection tools

2.3.1 Empatica E4

Empatica E4 wristbands are equipped with sensors that monitor physiological reactions to stimuli:

- A photoplethysmography sensor measures HR, blood volume pulse (BVP), and inter-beat interval data.
- A galvanic skin response sensor registers electrodermal activity.
- An infrared thermopile measures peripheral skin temperature.

We used BVP data to extract HR and HRV indicators (see §2.4.1).

2.3.2 Audio recordings

Interpretations and source speeches were audio-recorded in both sessions. Given the chosen indicators (see §2.4.2), data were directly extracted from the files, rather than from their transcripts.

2.4 Indicators

2.4.1 Heart rate and heart-rate variability

As explained, we decided to focus on HR and HRV as indicators of stress. HRV is not a single measurement, but can be assessed through several measurements. Castaldo *et al.*'s (2015) meta-analysis focused on short-term HRV recordings to identify the most reliable indicators of mental stress and conclude that "the pooled values of 7 HRV measures (RR, SDRR, RMSSD, pNN50, D2, HF and LF/HF) out of the 9 meta-analyzed changed significantly during mental stress" and "should be considered as possible pivot values for future studies" (2015: 376).

indicator	definition[a]	significant trend under stress[b]
mean RR	Mean duration of RR intervals (where R is a peak of the QRS complex of the ECG wave)	lower
SDRR	Standard deviation in time between RR intervals	lower
RMSSD	Root mean square of successive differences between normal heartbeats	lower
pNN50	Percentage of adjacent NN intervals that differ from each other by more than 50 ms (where NN intervals are intervals between normal R peaks)	lower
D^2	Correlation dimension	lower
HF	High frequency power	lower
LF/HF	Ratio between LF and HF band powers	higher

[a] Based on Schaffer *et a*l. (2014) and Schaffer/Ginsberg (2017).
[b] After Castaldo *et al*. (2015).
Table 1. HRV indicators of mental stress, definitions, and their behavior

Following Rojo *et al*. (2021), we analyzed HR and several measures for HRV, as Castaldo *et al*. (2015) suggested. Table 1 lists these HRV measures, what they indicate and how they tend to vary during mental stress. HRV measurements were extracted with the Kubios HRV software, following the criteria of the Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology (henceforth, Task Force 1996).[7] SDRR– not extracted by Kubios–was not included.

Following Rojo/Korpal (2020), we extracted 5-minute spans from each condition, i.e., baseline (resting, no task), onsite interpreting (task 1), RSI (task 2), and recovery (after tasks), following the rule of the three Rs (Resting-Reactivity-Recovery; Laborde *et al*. 2017). To minimize confounders due to stress induced by starting the experiment and by fatigue at the end of the task, we took the 5 central minutes of each condition (Task Force 1996). Kubios HRV was used for automatic artifact detection and correction (Lipponen/Tarvainen 2019). A mean of 10.3% (Mdn = 9.9; SD = 1.2) of the beats were corrected in each recording.[8]

7 <https://www.kubios.com/>.
8 Percentages of non-corrected beats: subject 1, session 1: 91.4%; subject 1, session 2: 90.1%; subject 2, session 1: 90.3%; subject 2, session 2: 88.4%; subject 3, session 1: 89.1%; subject 3, session 2: 88.3%; subject 4, session 1: 91%; subject 4, session 2: 90%; subject 5, session 1: 88.9%; subject 5, session 2: 90.1%.

2.4.2 Performance indicators

Performance analysis focused on filled pauses and other disfluencies, i.e., "phenomena that interrupt the flow of speech and do not add propositional content to an utterance" (Gósy 2007: 93). Here, other disfluencies were truncated words, reformulations, word repetitions, and false starts, counted as a single category *(other disfluencies)* by two raters. In interpreting, fluency (and lack thereof) has been linked to quality (Pradas 2006) and to cognitive load (Tóth, 2011; Plevoets/Defranq, 2016; Defranq/Plevoets, 2017; Bóna/Bakti 2020).

Source speeches had not been pre-recorded, so their speed could differ between sessions, but almost no variation was detected (see §2.5). The number of filled pauses and other disfluencies varies depending on the length of the speech: the longer the text, the more likely it is that the number of filled pauses and other disfluencies will increase. These two indicators are affected by the speed of the input speech. Consequently, we normalized both indicators: counts of filled pauses and of other disfluencies were divided by the source text speed (words per minute).

2.5 Source texts as stimuli

One speaker delivered all four speeches live in Spanish, and participants interpreted them into Italian. The speeches, prepared specifically for the study out of popular science websites and blogs, covered similar topics: (I) climate change and migration; (II) climate change, migration, and gender; (III) EU policies on climate change; and (IV) climatic migrations. Text order was randomized for data collection turns. However, the sequence of conditions (onsite and online) was not randomized. The mean duration of the speeches was 12.6 minutes (median 12.5), mean word count was 1514 (median 1503) and mean speed was 121 wpm (median 120). Original speech scripts were similar in word-count (1440, 1519, 1623, and 1502) but they were read live, so it was not possible to control for speed and duration. Nevertheless, the mean and the median are almost equal in both speech duration and mean speed, so these two factors vary very little, which enhances the comparability of all four conditions.[9]

2.6 Statistical analysis

Laborde *et al.* (2017: 12) recommend to log transform the collected data, given that HRV parameters frequently present a non-normal distribution. Log transformations may reduce the skewness of data, bringing them closer to normal distributions which allow for the use of parametric statistics (but see Feng *et al.* 2014 for arguments against the use of this procedure). We only had 10 datapoints to compare onsite vs. remote interpreting and just 5 to compare first vs. second

9 The four speeches can be accessed here: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7101770>.

session for onsite and remote interpreting. Hence, log transforming data would not significantly improve the statistical quality. With such a small dataset, even if log transformed, parametric procedures are not adequate. Consequently, we applied three non-parametric tests:

- Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, to compare two conditions on one indicator (i.e., onsite vs. remote or 1st session vs. 2nd session).
- Friedman's test, to detect differences between the four measurements (baseline, onsite, remote, and recovery) for a given indicator in a given session.
- Kendall's Tau B, to detect correlations between HR and HRV indicators and performance indicators.

Statistical analyses were performed with Jamovi 2.3.0 with a pre-established significance level of 0.05.[10]

2.7 Ethical issues

The informed consent form explained that the study targeted interpreters' reaction while using different working tools. It included information on the nature of collected data, interpreters' performances and Empatica E4 data on cardiac and electrodermal activity. It also informed participants that anonymized data would be always presented in aggregate ways. Participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any moment and their data would be deleted with no consequences for them. All participants signed the informed consent form. They received financial compensation for participating in the study.

3. Results

3.1 Differences in stress between onsite and remote interpreting

Descriptive statistics show very similar mean and median values for all indicators (Table 2). The largest difference is in RMSSD, which is lower (i.e., more stress) in remote than in onsite interpreting.[11] This is the only indicator with some variation between the two conditions. No indicator presented a statistically significant difference, i.e., no differences were detected between onsite and remote interpreting.

10 <https://www.jamovi.org/>.

11 The difference in D^2 also seems relevant when comparing the means, but not the medians.

indicator	type	Mean (m)	Median (Mdn)	SD	Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test *Z*	*p*	*r*
Mean HR	onsite	68.80	66.50	9.67	31.0	0.759	0.127
	remote	68.10	67.00	5.71			
Mean RR	onsite	885.80	899.50	113.10	26.0	0.919	0.055
	remote	886.50	894.50	70.91			
RMSSD	onsite	354.88	396.80	135.76	34.0	0.557	0.236
	remote	330.97	378.95	134.67			
pNN50	onsite	70.61	80.52	25.67	23.0	0.695	0.164
	remote	70.86	80.47	20.44			
D^2	onsite	0.63	0.00	1.32	2.0	0.093	0.810
	remote	1.07	0.01	1.78			
HF	onsite	45.67	48.58	13.56	23.0	0.999	0.022
	remote	46.35	46.51	14.72			
LF/HF	onsite	1.56	1.06	1.50	23.0	0.999	0.022
	remote	1.40	1.15	0.90			

Note: The tests were bilateral.
Table 2. HR and HRV indicators by interpreting mode and comparison between the two modes (N=10)

We found no difference in disfluencies and filled pauses either between conditions (Table 3), thus we did not detect any differences in stress between onsite vs. remote interpreting.

Normalized...	Onsite			Remote			Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test		
	m	Mdn	SD	M	Mdn	SD	*Z*	*p*	*r*
pauses	0.30	0.33	0.14	0.27	0.23	0.17	36.0	0.432	0.309
disfluencies	0.26	0.20	0.13	0.24	0.23	0.08	36.0	0.432	0.309

Note: Tests were bilateral.
Table 3. Normalized pauses and disfluencies in onsite and remote interpreting and comparison between the two modes (N=10)

3.2 Differences between first and second session

Descriptive statistics for HR and HRV indicators yield very little variation between sessions (Table 4) and the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test confirmed non-significant results. Hence, there seems to be no decrease in stress in the second session, whether onsite or RSI. No differences were detected between sessions in pauses and other disfluencies in both conditions (Table 5); we therefore found no decrease in stress in the second session.

indicator		session	m	Mdn	SD	Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test *Z*	*p*	*r*
Mean HR	onsite	1	69.00	64.00	11.79	7.5	0.554	0.001
		2	68.60	69.00	8.44			
	remote	1	67.40	66.00	5.32	6.0	0.699	0.200
		2	68.80	68.00	6.61			
Mean RR	onsite	1	888.20	932.00	132.15	7.0	0.594	0.067
		2	883.40	867.00	106.31			
	remote	1	894.00	913.00	70.91	9.0	0.406	0.200
		2	879.00	886.00	78.39			
RMSSD	onsite	1	342.04	405.70	176.96	7.0	0.594	0.067
		2	367.72	358.10	98.71			
	remote	1	335.40	377.50	161.25	7.0	0.594	0.067
		2	326.54	380.40	121.47			
pNN50	onsite	1	68.69	81.21	34.20	8.0	0.500	0.067
		2	72.53	73.11	17.44			
	remote	1	71.90	82.83	24.46	7.0	0.594	0.067
		2	69.81	75.31	18.41			
D^2	onsite	1	0.51	0.00	1.15	0.0	0.969	0.000
		2	0.74	0.01	1.61			
	remote	1	0.93	0.00	2.08	3.0	0.819	0.400
		2	1.21	0.27	1.66			
HF	onsite	1	47.78	55.67	19.26	10.0	0.313	0.333
		2	43.56	42.19	5.65			
	remote	1	49.88	48.05	14.32	11.0	0.219	0.466
		2	42.83	41.33	15.85			
LF/HF	onsite	1	1.79	0.80	2.21	5.0	0.781	0.333
		2	1.32	1.37	0.30			
	remote	1	1.17	1.08	0.75	2.0	0.938	0.733
		2	1.64	1.42	1.07			

Note: T tests were unilateral.
Table 4. Indicators in onsite and remote interpreting by session and comparison between the two sessions (N=5)

		session 1 (N = 5)			session 2 (N = 5)			Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test		
		m	Mdn	SD	M	Mdn	SD	*Z*	*p*	*r*
pauses	onsite	0.29	0.31	0.14	0.31	0.36	0.16	6.0	0.688	0.200
	remote	0.24	0.23	0.09	0.30	0.22	0.22	6.0	0.688	0.200
disfluencies	onsite	0.22	0.17	0.10	0.30	0.24	0.16	2.0	0.938	0.733
	remote	0.21	0.22	0.08	0.26	0.23	0.08	3.0	0.906	0.600

Note: Tests were unilateral.
Table 5. Normalized pauses and disfluencies in onsite and remote interpreting by session and comparison between the two sessions

3.3 Correlation between stress and (a) target text filled pauses, (b) other target text disfluencies, and (c) source text delivery speed

Small, statistically significant correlations were detected between filled pauses and RMSSD, pNN50, and D^2 (Table 6):

- The larger the RMSSD (less stress), the more filled pauses.
- The larger the pNN50 (less stress), the more filled pauses.
- The lower the D^2 (more stress), the more filled pauses.

These results are not conclusive. First, only three of the HR and HRV indicators yielded statistically significant correlations. Second, the three indicators with such correlations showed small strengths of association. Third, in RMSSD and pNN50, the positive association between indicators seemed counterintuitive, since more filled pauses might be expected with higher stress. Fourth, filled pauses is the only performance indicator showing some association with stress-related indicators.

Kendall's Tau B	normalized pauses	normalized disfluencies	WPM
Mean HR	-0.321	-0.043	-0.078
Mean RR	0.295	0.032	0.077
RMSSD	0.358* (p = 0.028)	0.095	0.109
pNN50	0.358* (p = 0.028)	-0.011	0.131
D^2	-0.343* (p = 0.047)	0.042	-0.275
HF	0.121	0.069	0.137
LF/HF	-0.121	-0.069	-0.137
WPM	0.077	-0.164	–
Normalized disfluencies	0.211	–	–

Table 6. Correlations between HR and HRV indicators and filled pauses, other disfluencies, and delivery speed

Consequently, we cannot answer our research question. Our results suggest that the root causes of stress and their manifestations are difficult to identify and interpret, so the relationship between stress and performance indicators deserves further study.

4. Discussion and methodological suggestions

As mentioned, this study aimed at testing our design and refining it for future studies using HR and HRV indicators. Below we present methodological recommendations based on the main limitations and constraints.

4.1 Sample size and statistical power

Studies on physiological stress measured with HR and HRV indicators are intra-subject by default, even if the design can be expanded with inter-group comparisons (see §4.2). In such studies, a single datapoint is computed for each indicator, measurement, and participant, so small sample sizes cannot be compensated with multiple datapoints. Hence, small samples will render designs underpowered even though intra-subject designs increase statistical power (Lakens 2022). This is our case, where a sample of five participants was not powerful enough to detect significant differences between tasks and sessions.

Recommending samples as large as possible is nothing new. The difficulties in finding professionals willing to contribute to such studies are not new either, especially if they need to commute to an academic institution to participate, when data collection takes place over several sessions, or when funds are not available to compensate them financially. If sample sizes have not increased after years of calls to do so, it may not be due to a lack of willingness on the part of researchers. Our recommendation still is to achieve as large a sample size as possible to ensure sufficient statistical power to detect meaningful differences between the conditions being compared.[12] Sample sizes can be determined by establishing a desired (1) level of statistical power (i.e., the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false; also called β or Type II error); (2) significance level (the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true; also called α or Type I error), and (3) minimum effect size of interest.

The scarce CTIS studies using HR and HRV indicators make it difficult to conclude what the minimum effect size of interest might be. This scarcity also makes

12 The meaningfulness (i.e., relevance) of a relation between two variables or between (at least) two groups is measured through effect sizes. Statistically significant results with small effect sizes may render the difference or correlation meaningless. This is why in recent years there have been calls for reporting effect sizes and interpreting them together with statistical significance (i.e., *p*-values) when drawing conclusions from statistical analyses (Hedges 2008; Rosnow/Rosenthal 2009; Mellinger/Hanson 2017). Pre-establishing a level of meaningfulness means that, below that pre-established level, a result will not be considered relevant even if it is statistically significant.

meta-analyses impossible, so researchers have two main options. The first one is to use the general guidelines and thresholds to interpret effect sizes (see Cohen 1988). Such thresholds are arbitrary and may not be appropriate in all contexts (e.g., when a meta-analysis has provided a minimum effect size of interest which differs from the threshold for small effect sizes).

The second option is to search the literature for studies using the same HR and HRV indicators in comparable situations of stress.[13] Meta-analyses are especially useful. Quintana (2017) carried out a meta-analysis with 297 HRV effect sizes and concluded that effect sizes of $d = 0.25$, $d = 0.5$, and $d = 0.9$ should be interpreted as small, medium, and large. Hence, depending on the aims of their study (i.e., whether exploratory or confirmatory), their limitations–i.e., financial, time-related, population-related, etc.–and the level of precision needed, researchers may decide to look for a minimum effect size of interest of 0.25, 0.5, or 0.9. Free software packages such as G*Power 3.1 (Faul *et al.* 2009) will automatically compute the minimum sample size needed to detect a given minimum effect size of interest at specific significance and power levels (which are generally set to 0.05 and 0.80). Yet such heuristics have been contested and Maier/Lakens (2021) call to adapt and justify such levels to the characteristics of each study.

4.2 Expertise and stress endurance

As expertise increases, participants are likely to be more used to endure stress and adapt quickly to new situations. Moser-Mercer (2005) and Roziner/Shlesinger (2010) studied experts and found no significant differences in physiological stress between onsite and RSI, although self-reported measurements did show more stress in RSI. Both studies found an earlier onset of fatigue in RSI, indicated by a faster deterioration of performance.

Consequently, samples with different levels of expertise would have been necessary in order to control expertise as an independent variable when comparing the participants' physiological stress (e.g., comparing interpreting trainees or recent graduates with more experienced interpreters). However, studies aiming at replicating this design will find it even harder to recruit participants with no experience on RSI. Due to the pandemic, most students and professional interpreters may now be even more used to RSI than to onsite interpreting. For research questions other than those contrasting onsite vs. RSI settings, studies on physiological stress should isolate expertise as an independent variable, so that differences (or a lack thereof) can be better addressed.

13 For instance, effect sizes reported in HR and HRV studies on sports science may not be adequate for a study on mental stress.

4.3 Structure and duration of data collection sessions

Data collection sessions for HR and HRV measures of stress should follow the guidelines of the Task Force (1996). Each task needs to be long enough to extract a 5-minute-long central span. In order to extract data of phases of the same length, researchers need to design the sessions so as to record baseline and recovery phases of at least five minutes each.

With at least three phases per session (baseline, stimulus, recovery), data collection sessions can become tiring for participants, especially when exposed to demanding stimuli. Researchers planning to include more than two stimuli (e.g., speeches) should consider adding breaks between them, so that other uncontrolled variables such as fatigue have the smallest effect possible. Randomizing the order of the stimuli will also help reducing undesired effects of confounders in long data collection sessions.

4.4 Optimal HRV measurement

Multiple factors impact HR, such as gender, body mass, age, health conditions, food and caffeine intake, and body movement (comprehensive list in Laborde *et al.* 2017: 6–7). To obtain clean data, researchers should control for as many factors as possible. Some of them can be controlled by screening participants, to build a sample with similar characteristics (e.g., selecting participants with ages within a pre-established age range), and other factors–such as not having meals and caffeine beverages in the two hours before the session–need to be presented as instructions to participants (Laborde *et al.* 2017: 7). Some factors can be used as covariates in regression analyses.

The stress levels interpreters feel at work are not constant. There may be peaks at specific segments of the speech, due to several reasons, like a sudden increase of delivery speed, terminologically dense passages which require documentation, complex grammatical and syntactical structures, etc. Stress may be higher at the beginning of the speech, when the interpreter is getting familiar with the topic and the speaker's accent and speed. Given this fluctuation, researchers need to create their stimuli such that, during the five central minutes of the task, the input will induce a (somewhat) constant state of stress.

Controlling for movement or asking participants to sit still may be counterproductive, and it drastically lowers ecological validity (see §4.5). Here we focus on the optimal collection of HRV data in the three measurement types: baseline, task, and recovery phase.

To measure the baseline, Laborde *et al.* (2017: 9) recommend that the participant be seated with both feet on the floor, ankles at an angle of 90°, hands on their thighs, and eyes closed. Other positions are possible, as long as it is the same position during exposure to the stimuli. To get used to the setting, the participants should be in this position for about five minutes. The recovery phase begins right after the end of the exposure to stimuli, and the position of the participants should again be as close as possible to the one in the baseline.

Baselines are generally measured before the study task, but before interpreting, participants may feel stress or anxiety due to task pressure. Hence, measuring the baseline before the task might not provide an accurate measurement of the participants' resting state, and differences between baseline and on-task measurements may be small. In studies on mental stress, the effects of pre-task stress on baseline measurements should be further investigated and compared to post-task baseline measurements. Post-task baselines could be a more accurate indicator of the participants' resting state. Moses *et al*. (2007) conducted a study on mental stress and observed that HRV measurements returned to baseline levels within a five-minute recovery period. Conversely, pre-task measurements of the baseline may be more adequate in studies involving a change in the participants' physical state before and during the task due to physical exertion (e.g., sports physiology). This empirical hypothesis would require further investigation to determine how to acquire accurate baseline measurements in cognitively demanding tasks not involving physical exertion.

4.5 Ecological validity

Researchers need to find a tradeoff between ecological validity and control. Here, guaranteeing a correct use of the wristbands and the adequate unfolding of the data collection procedures required that the participants came to our premises. This reduced ecological validity, especially in the RSI setting: remoteness was simulated but participants were aware that they were all in the same lab at the same time.

Another limitation is the lack of an audience: the lecture hall for the onside condition was almost empty, excluding the speaker, the moderator, a member of the research team and a technician, and no audience was connected to the remote session. This might well have influenced the participants' perception of the event and very probably their stress reaction, since the experimental setting was obvious.

As explained in §4.4, when collecting data through a PPG sensor, data can significantly deteriorate due to participants' movements introducing artifacts. Simultaneous interpreting does not require much movement, but interpreters do move in the booth to use the console, take notes, etc. Stress and concentration can also prompt movements and gestures. Participants should wear the wristband on their non-dominant hand, which is likely to move less during the task, especially if it involves actions like note taking–but this will not completely eradicate the problem of artifacts.

Finally, participants had no boothmate in any setting. While the speeches were short enough to be interpreted by just one participant, boothmate interaction is an important component of simultaneous interpreting, and one that differs very much between the onsite and RSI settings, especially when boothmates are not co-located.

4.6 Data Triangulation

As explained in §3, the mean HR and HRV indicators yielded no significant differences in stress. Furthermore, HR and HRV data were cross-referenced with performance indicators, but they should also be cross-referenced with self-reported measurements, not only to spot differences between the tasks, but also to understand how participants cope with stress. For instance, an increase in physiological stress in SI could link to increased attention or monitoring one's own performance in order to maintain quality. Self-reported data can also be useful to understand to what extent the participants' perception of stress correlates with the physiological measures. Psychometric questionnaires, such as the STAI (Spielberger *et al.* 1983; see, Rojo *et al.* 2021), or post-task interviews can be used to gather this type of data.

4.7 Analyzing, interpreting, and reporting HRV data

HR and HRV data are generally non-normally distributed and we also recommend to log transform them (Laborde *et al.* 2017: 12). Given the intra-subject design of HR and HRV studies, tests for related samples are necessary (Mellinger & Hanson 2017 review tests comparing two and more related samples). Laborde *et al.* (2017: 12) also recommend using autoregressive models to analyze frequency-domain indicators. Quintana *et al.* (2016) developed a set of guidelines for the adequate reporting of HRV research in psychiatry. We have adapted their guidelines for CTIS research.

Topic	Checklist item
Minimum effect size of interest	Provide information about the procedure followed to identify the minimum effect size of interest (e.g., in meta-analyses, previous studies, etc.). Justify the minimum effect size of interest in relation to the characteristics of the study (e.g., the aims, the design type, etc.).
Sample size determination	Discuss the constraints faced by the researchers (e.g., lack of funding, small population, lack of personal resources, etc.) that may affect the size of the sample. Report the significance level. Report the power level. Report the results of the sample size calculation. Report any adjustments to the results of the calculation.

Table 7a. Guidelines for reporting HRV research in CTIS: *Sample size*

Topic	Checklist item
Group selection criteria	List the inclusion criteria (e.g., years of experience) and justify them when necessary. Provide information about the way the inclusion criteria have been checked (e.g., through a selection questionnaire, an interview, etc.).
Demographics	Report details of the academic and/or professional characteristics of the group(s), such as year of study, years of experience, language combinations, etc. Report details of factors that may affect HR and HRV indicators (such as age, gender distribution, physical activity level, nicotine and alcohol intake, etc.).

Table 7b. Guidelines for reporting HRV research in CTIS: *Selection of participants*

Topic	Checklist item
Research questions / hypotheses	List the research questions or hypotheses.
Type of design	Present the type of design (experimental, quasi-experimental, observational, etc.; inter- or intra-subject). Discuss the adequateness of the design to answer the research questions or hypotheses.
Structure of the sessions	Describe the data-collection sessions and the measures. Describe the setting where the study took place.
Texts used as stimuli	Describe thoroughly the texts used as stimuli (length, text profiling indicators, manipulations, etc.). If the exposure to the stimuli has been randomized, describe the procedure.
Self-reported measures (if any)	If the HR and HRV indicators are complemented with self-reported measures, present and describe them. If using an existing psychometric test, justify the selection. In the case of creating a new test, report its psychometric properties.
HR and HRV collection tools	Describe the tools used to collect HR and HRV data. If using electrodes, describe the electrode configuration.
HR and HRV collection details	Report the length of the recordings. Provide information about the way the baseline was measured (participants' position, duration, previous acclimatization, etc.).
Selection of HR and HRV indicators	Describe the procedure followed to select HR and HRV indicators (e.g., reviewing previous studies, meta-analyses, etc.). Provide definitions of the indicators and guidelines for their interpretation. Justify the adequacy of the selected indicators to the type of study (e.g., adequate HRV indicators for mental stress).
Ethical issues	Present the procedures to mitigate any potential ethical issue.

Table 7c. Guidelines for reporting HRV research in CTIS: *Data collection*

Topic	Checklist item
HRV software	Mention the software and version used to extract HR and HRV indicators from the data.
Artifact correction	Mention the artifact cleaning methods employed. Report the percentage of corrected beats.
Statistical analysis	Describe the statistical procedures used. Report data transformations. Report and interpret effect sizes in relation to the minimum effect size of interest selected for the sample size determination.

Table 7d. Guidelines for reporting HRV research in CTIS: *Data analysis and cleaning*

5. Concluding remarks

This was our first attempt to collect and use heart rate (HR) and heart rate variability (HRV) as indicators of stress when simultaneously interpreting in different conditions (onsite and remote). The results in this observational, exploratory study showed no difference in stress in our two conditions and did not reach statistical significance. Nevertheless, conducting this study allowed us to refine our methodological design. In spite of the exploratory nature of our study and the drawbacks of a series of methodological limitations and constraints, we believe that this topic merits further investigation. We decided to share what we have learned as a set of methodological recommendations that we hope will be helpful for CTIS scholars wishing to introduce HR and HRV measures in their designs. We have found a way to the interpreter's heart, and now the time has come to explore it.

References

Baghi H. / Khoshsaligheh M. (2019) "Stress in written and sight translation in training setting", *Hikma* 18/2, 237–255.

Bayer-Hohenwarter G. (2009) "Methodological reflections on the experimental design of time-pressure studies", *Across Languages and Cultures* 10/2, 193–206.

Bienertova-Vasku J. / Lenart P. / Scheringer M. (2020) "Eustress and distress: neither good nor bad, but rather the same?", *BioEssays* 42, e1900238.

Billman G. E. (2020) "Homeostasis: the underappreciated and far too often ignored central organizing principle of physiology", *Frontiers of Physiology* 11, 1-12.

Bóna J. / Bakti M. (2020) "The effect of cognitive load on temporal and disfluency patterns of speech. Evidence from consecutive interpreting and sight translation", *Target* 32/3, 482-506.

Can Y. S. / Chalabianloo N. / Ekiz D. / Ersoy C. (2019) “Continuous stress detection using wearable sensors in real life: algorithmic programming contest case study”, *Sensors* 19/8, 1849.
Castaldo R. / Melillo P. / Bracale U. / Caserta M. / Triassi M. / Pecchia L. (2015) “Acute mental stress assessment via short term HRV analysis in healthy adults: a systematic review with meta-analysis”, *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control* 18, 370–377.
Cohen J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum.
Cooper C. L. / Davies R. / Tung R. L. (1982) “Interpreting stress: sources of job stress among conference interpreters”, *Multilingua* 1/2, 97–107.
Courtney J. / Phelan M. (2019) “Translators’ experiences of occupational stress and job satisfaction”, *Translation & Interpreting* 11/1, 100–113.
Defranq B. / Plevoets K. (2017) “Over-uh-load, filled pauses in compounds as a signal of cognitive load”, in M. Russo / C. Bendazzoli / B. Defrancq (eds) *Making Way in Corpus-based Interpreting Studies*, Cham, Springer, 43-64.
De Rooze B. (2003) *La traducción, contra reloj. Consecuencias de la presión por falta de tiempo en el proceso de traducción*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Granada.
Ebner K. / Singewald N. (2017) “Individual differences in stress susceptibility and stress inhibitory mechanisms”, *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences* 14, 54–64.
Faul F. / Erdfelder E. / Buchner A. / Lang A.-G. (2009) “Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: tests for correlation and regression analyses”, *Behavior Research Methods* 41, 1149-1160.
Fauquet-Alekhine P. / Rouillac L. / Berton J. / Granry J.-C. (2016) “Heart rate vs stress indicator for short term mental stress”, *British Journal of Medicine and Medical Research* 17/7, 1–11.
Feng C. / Wang H. / Lu N. / Chen T. / He H. / Lu Y. / Tu X. M. (2014) “Log-transformation and its implications for data analysis”, *Shanghai Archives of Psychiatry* 26/2, 105–109.
Gile D. (2009) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*. Revised Edition. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.
Gordon A. M. / Berry W. (2021) “A large-scale study of stress, emotions, and blood pressure in daily life using a digital platform”, *PNAS* 118/31, e2105573118.
Gósy M. (2007) “Disfluencies and self-monitoring”, *Govor* 24, no. 2: 91–110.
Hedges L. V. (2008) “What are effect sizes and why do we need them?”, *Child Development Perspectives* 2/3, 167–71.
Hellhammer D. H. / Stone A. A. / Hellhammer J. / Broderick J. E. (2010) “Measuring stress”, in F. Koob / M. Le Moal / R. F. Thompson (eds) *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Neuroscience*, 186–191, New York, Academic Press.
Hjortskov N. / Rissén D. / Blangsted A. K. / Fallentin N. / Lundberg U. / Søgaard K. (2004) “The effect of mental stress on heart rate variability and blood pressure during computer work”, *European Journal of Applied Physiology* 92/1–2, 84–89.
Hu D. / Gao L. (2022) “Psychological stress level detection based on heartbeat mode”, *Applied Sciences* 12, 1409.

Jakobsen A. L. (2005) "Instances of peak performance in translation", *Lebende Sprachen* 50/3, 111–116.
Jensen A. (1999) "Time pressure in translation", in G. Hansen (ed.) *Probing the Process in Translation. Methods and Results,* Copenhagen, Samfundslitteratur, 103–119.
Kim H.G. / Cheon E.J. / Bai D.S. / Lee Y. H. / Koo B.H. (2018) "Stress and heart rate variability: a meta-analysis and review of the literature", *Psychiatry investigation* 15/3, 235–245.
Klonowicz T. (1994) "Putting one's heart into simultaneous interpretation", in S. Lambert / B. Moser-Mercer (eds), *Bridging the Gap: Empirical Research in Simultaneous Interpretation,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 213–224.
Korpal P. (2016) "Interpreting as a stressful activity: physiological measures of stress in simultaneous interpreting", *Poznan Studies in Contemporary Linguistics* 52/2, 297–316.
Korpal P. (2021) "Stress experienced by Polish sworn translators and interpreters", *Perspectives* 29/4, 554-571.
Kurz I. (2003) "Physiological stress during simultaneous interpreting: a comparison of experts and novices", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 12, 51–67.
Kurz I. (2002) "Physiological stress responses during media and conference interpreting", in G. Garzone / M. Viezzi (eds) *Interpreting in the 21st Century: Challenges and* Opportunities, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 195–202.
Kyriakou K. / Resch B. / Sagl G. / Petutschnig A. / Werner C. / Niederseer D. / Liedlgruber M. / Wilhelm F. H. / Osborne T. / Pykett J. (2019) "Detecting moments of stress from measurements of wearable physiological sensors", *Sensors* 19/17, 1–26.
Laborde S. / Mosley E. / Thayer, J. F. (2017) "Heart rate variability and cardiac vagal tone in psychophysiological research: recommendations for experiment planning, data analysis, and data reporting", *Frontiers in Psychology* 8.
Lakens D. (2022) "Sample size justification", *Collabra: Psychology* 8/1: 33267.
Lipponen J.A. / Tarvainen M.P. (2019) "A robust algorithm for heart rate variability time series artefact correction using novel beat classification", *Journal of Medical Engineering & Technology*, 43/3, 173-181.
Mackintosh J. (2003) "The AIIC workload study", *FORUM* 1/2, 189–214.
Maier M. / Lakens D. (2021) "Justify your alpha: a primer on two practical approaches." Preprint. *PsyArXiv*, <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/ts4r6>.
Matamala A. / Soler Vilageliu O. / Iturregui Gallardo G. / Jankowska A. / Méndez Ulrich J. L. / Serrano Ratera A. (2020) "Electrodermal activity as a measure of emotions in media accessibility research. Methodological considerations", *JoSTrans* 33, 129-151.
Mellinger, C. D. / Hanson T. H. (2017) *Quantitative Research Methods in Translation and Interpreting Studies*, New York, Routledge.
Moneta G. B. (2018) "Cognitive flow", In J. Vonk / T. Shackelford (eds) *Encyclopedia of Animal Cognition and Behavior*, Cham, Springer.

Moser-Mercer B. / Künzli A. / Korac M. (1998) “Prolonged turns in interpreting: effects on quality, physiological and psychological stress (pilot study)”, *Interpreting* 3/1, 47–64.

Moser-Mercer B. (2003) “Remote interpreting: Assessment of human factors and performance parameters”, <https://aiic.org/document/516/AIICWebzine__Summer2003__3__MOSER-MERCER__Remote__interpreting__Assessment__of__human__factors__and__performance__parameters__Original.pdf&sa=U&ved=2ahUKEwjkzuOLlqj3AhW8g__0HHZDSAXQQFnoECAMQAQ&usg=AOvVaw0Qfq-K1dE34SVGFyyJ6kre>.

Moser-Mercer B. (2005) “Remote interpreting: the crucial role of presence”, *Bulletin suisse de linguistique appliquée* 81, 73–97.

Moses Z. B. / Luecken L. J. / Eason J. C. (2007) “Measuring Task-related Changes in Heart Rate Variability”, *29th Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society* 2007, 644-647.

Plevoets K. / Defranq B. (2016) “The effect of informational load on disfluencies in interpreting. A corpus-based regression analysis”, *Translation and Interpreting Studies* 11/2, 202-224.

Pradas Macías M. (2006) “Probing quality criteria in simultaneous interpreting: the role of silent pauses in fluency”, *Interpreting* 8/1, 25-43.

Quintana D. S. (2017) “Statistical considerations for reporting and planning heart rate variability case-control studies: reporting heart rate variability studies”, *Psychophysiology* 54/3, 344–349.

Quintana D. S. / Alvares G. A. / Heathers J. A. J. (2016) “Guidelines for reporting articles on psychiatry and heart rate variability (GRAPH): recommendations to advance research communication”, *Translational Psychiatry* 6/5, e803–e803.

Rojo López A. M. / Foulquié Rubio A. I. / Espín López L. / Martínez Sánchez F. (2021) “Analysis of speech rhythm and heart rate as indicators of stress on student interpreters”, *Perspectives* 29/4, 591–607.

Rojo López A. M. / Korpal P. (2020) “Through your skin to your heart and brain: a critical evaluation of physiological methods in cognitive translation and interpreting studies”, *Linguistica Antverpiensia, New Series – Themes in Translation Studies* 19.

Rojo López A. M. / Ramos Caro M. / Espín López L. (2021) “The influence of time pressure on translation trainees’ performance: testing the relationship between self-esteem, salivary cortisol and subjective stress response”, *PloS One* 16/9, e0257727.

Rosnow R. L. / Rosenthal R. (2009) “Effect sizes: why, when, and how to use them”, *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology* 217/1, 6–14.

Roziner I. / Shlesinger M. (2010) “Much ado about something remote: stress and performance in remote interpreting”, *Interpreting* 12/2, 214–247.

Sapolsky R. M. (2015) “Stress and the brain: individual variability and the inverted-U”, *Nature Neuroscience* 18/10, 1344–1346.

Shaffer F. / McCraty R. / Zerr C.L. (2014) “A healthy heart is not a metronome: An integrative review of the heart’s anatomy and heart rate variabil-

ity", *Frontiers in Psychology* 5, 1040, <https://doi.org/10.3389%2Ffpsyg.2014.01040>.
Shaffer F. / Ginsberg J.P. (2017) "An overview of heart rate variability metrics and norms", *Frontiers in Public Health* 5, 258, < https://doi.org/10.3389%2Ffpubh.2017.00258>.
Sharmin S. / Špakov O. / Räihä K.-J. / Jakobsen A. L. (2008) "Effects of time pressure and text complexity on translators' fixations", *ETRA '08: Proceedings of the 2008 symposium on Eye tracking research & applications,* Savannah, GA, ACM, 123–126.
Slavich G. M. / Shields G. S. (2018) "Assessing lifetime stress exposure using the stress and adversity inventory for adults (Adult STRAIN): an overview and initial validation", *Psychosomatic Medicine* 80/1, 17–27.
Spielberger C. D. / Gorsuch R. / Lushene R. E. / Vagg P. R. / Jacobs G. A. (1983) *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y1 – Y2)*, Sunnyvale, CA, Consulting Psychologists Press.
Stranks J. (2005) *Stress at Work: Management and Prevention,* Oxford, Elsevier.
Task Force of The European Society of Cardiology and The North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology (1996) "Heart Rate Variability", *Eur Heart J* 17/28.
Thompson E. R. (2007) "Development and validation of an internationally reliable short-form of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS)", *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 38/2, 227–242.
Tóth A. (2011) "Speech disfluencies in simultaneous interpreting: a mirror on cognitive processes", *SKASE Journal of Translation and Interpretation* 5/2, 23-31.
VandenBos G. R. (ed.) (2015) *APA Dictionary of Psychology*, 2nd ed. Washington DC, American Psychological Association.
Weng Y. / Zheng B. / Dong Y. (2022) "Time pressure in translation: psychological and physiological measures", *Target,* published online, <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.20148.wen>.
Weng Y. / Zheng B. (2020) "A multi-methodological approach to studying time-pressure in written translation: manipulation and measurement", *Linguistica Antverpiensia, New Series: Themes in Translation Studies*, 19.
Yerkes R. M. / Dodson J. D. (1908) "The relation of strength of stimulus to rapidity of habit-formation", *Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology* 18/5, 459–482.

statistic	measurement	session	Mean HR	Mean RR	RMSSD	pNN50	D^2	HF	LF/HF
mean	baseline	1	63.00	959.20	333.86	72.35	1.19	37.87	1.86
		2	73.80	835.40	276.68	56.65	1.43	39.95	1.61
	onsite	1	69.00	888.20	342.04	68.69	0.51	47.78	1.79
		2	68.60	883.40	367.72	72.53	0.74	43.56	1.32
	recovery	1	64.00	944.80	390.02	79.43	0.84	44.98	1.42
		2	68.20	901.80	338.40	64.44	0.45	42.01	1.43
	remote	1	67.40	894.00	335.40	71.90	0.93	49.88	1.17
		2	68.80	879.00	326.54	69.81	1.21	42.83	1.64
median	baseline	1	62.00	973.00	331.30	70.61	0.19	39.20	1.55
		2	67.00	892.00	309.30	60.51	0.79	39.50	1.53
	onsite	1	64.00	932.00	405.70	81.21	0.00	55.67	0.80
		2	69.00	867.00	358.10	73.11	0.01	42.19	1.37
	recovery	1	65.00	917.00	427.40	86.81	0.00	52.12	0.92
		2	65.00	923.00	370.90	74.90	0.01	39.51	1.52
	remote	1	66.00	913.00	377.50	82.83	0.00	48.05	1.08
		2	68.00	886.00	380.40	75.31	0.27	41.33	1.42
SD	baseline	1	5.43	79.27	92.29	17.18	1.55	10.45	1.05
		2	14.75	133.32	145.63	26.04	1.30	8.77	0.63
	onsite	1	11.79	132.15	176.96	34.20	1.15	19.26	2.21
		2	8.44	106.31	98.71	17.44	1.60	5.65	0.30
	recovery	1	7.07	103.72	110.82	18.37	1.88	13.34	0.83
		2	12.19	139.19	125.14	27.22	0.77	7.15	0.40
	remote	1	5.32	70.90	161.25	24.46	2.08	14.32	0.75
		2	6.61	78.39	121.47	18.41	1.66	15.85	1.07

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 89-105
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34393 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Application expérimentale de techniques théâtrales en cours d'interprétation consécutive

Agustín Darias Marrero* and
Clara León Delgado
Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria

Abstract

This paper focuses on stress management in consecutive interpreting students. In particular, it investigates the effectiveness of a theatre workshop in improving consecutive interpreting students' skills and reducing their stress levels. The study is based on previous research on stress, stress management, and the idea that some basic theatrical techniques can reduce the stress of student interpreters, as such techniques may improve, among other things, public speaking skills. A didactic experiment was carried out by conducting a theatre workshop with students enrolled in a consecutive interpreting university module. Trainee interpreters' performances before and after their participation in this workshop were video-recorded and analysed exhaustively according to a series of previously defined research categories. Results show that the students performed better in consecutive interpreting after the workshop, both in terms of stress management and non-verbal communication. Therefore, it can be concluded that theatrical techniques are an effective and creative didactic experience in interpreter training, and that even a crash course can trigger noticeable skills improvements in interpreter trainees.

Keywords

Interpreter training, theatrical techniques, consecutive interpreting, stress, non-verbal communication.

* Membre associé du Laboratoire ISIT Paris.

Introduction

L'interprétation, on le sait, est une profession qui implique un haut degré de stress pour ceux qui l'exercent et cela ne fait aujourd'hui aucun doute (Jiménez Ivars/Pinazo Catalayud 2001 ; Kurz 2002, 2003 ; Riccardi/Marinuzzi/Zecchin 1998). Le stress en interprétation dépend tant d'éléments inhérents au processus interprétatif que d'éléments externes pouvant être reliés à de nombreux facteurs situationnels. Concernant le stress dans le processus de l'interprétation, Kurz (2002 : 197-198) affirme que le stress est influencé par des traits de personnalité de l'interprète, tels que le degré de confiance en soi ou le jugement porté sur une situation. L'auteure qualifie ce stress de subjectif et souligne que ce qui peut être stressant pour une personne peut ne pas l'être pour une autre (*Ibid.* : 198). Alors, la réponse de l'interprète dans une situation concrète dépendra de la façon dont il perçoit la situation : comme un défi ou comme une menace (Riccardi 2015 : 405). Dans le même ordre d'idées, Darias Marrero (2020 : 120) ajoute que, lorsque le professionnel perçoit que les conditions d'interprétation peuvent dépasser sa capacité à faire face au défi, il est même susceptible d'avoir des réactions physiologiques, psychologiques et comportementales négatives.

Parmi les facteurs externes auxquels les interprètes doivent faire face, Riccardi/Marinuzzi/Zecchin (1998 : 97) font allusion aux inconvénients provoqués par les conditions techniques du son ou des cabines, entre autres. Les orateurs jouent également un rôle essentiel car ils peuvent entraver ou favoriser le travail de l'interprète, en raison de leur accent, de la vitesse de leur débit ou de l'utilisation d'une terminologie spécifique. Enfin, les organisateurs de la situation professionnelle peuvent eux aussi contribuer à soulager ou à accentuer le stress des interprètes.

Il est clair que, pour toute forme d'interprétation, il est d'une importance capitale que l'interprète soit capable de jongler avec toutes les activités cognitives nécessaires au bon déroulement de sa fonction, mais dans ce travail nous allons nous concentrer en particulier sur les facteurs de stress propres à l'interprétation consécutive (IC). À ce processus cognitif complexe vient s'ajouter encore une autre prestation qui consiste à fixer dans des notes les idées du discours qui doivent être énoncées dans une autre langue. Selon Pérez Campos/Varela Salinas (2016 : 172), la prise de notes en IC représente un effort important pour l'interprète et entre inévitablement en concurrence avec la capacité d'écoute et d'analyse du discours d'origine. Le fait de réaliser simultanément plusieurs actions qui demandent une grande concentration, tel que le décrit Gile (1985) dans son modèle d'efforts, augmente le stress de l'interprète et peut jouer contre lui.

De plus, il faut ajouter que l'une des caractéristiques principales de l'IC, du moins des prestations en présence, est la nécessité d'être exposé à l'auditoire lorsqu'on produit le discours traduit. Par conséquent, cette activité dépend dans une large mesure des compétences disponibles pour parler en public (Jiménez Ivars/Pinazo Catalayud 2001 : 106).

Compte tenu de la personnalité de chacun, cette exposition devant un public peut constituer un facteur de stress et, dans ce sens, la communication verbale et non verbale peut révéler des indicateurs précieux du stress des interprètes. Poyatos (1997 : 259-260) affirme que les interprètes sont confrontés au grand défi de transmettre avec des mots tout ce que l'orateur dit avec le langage, comment il le dit avec son paralangage et comment il le fait bouger avec sa kinésique, c'est-à-dire, sa mimique et ses gestes. C'est pourquoi, Poyatos (1997 : 279) souligne l'importance, pour l'interprète, d'être formé à la maîtrise de la communication non verbale (dorénavant, CNV), afin de devenir un meilleur vecteur de communication sociale et affective.

Cependant, dans les cursus de formation en interprétation, en général on accorde peu de place à la CNV, qui est souvent considérée comme un complément accessoire de la communication verbale « probably because of limited time and resources in standard curricula, or lack of suitable training frameworks[1] » (Bendazzoli 2009 : 164). À quelques exceptions près, que nous essaierons de résumer ci-après, la CNV a été d'habitude marginale dans le processus formatif des interprètes : les enseignants ont toujours fait des remarques aux apprenants sur leur posture, leur prononciation, leur intonation, voire leur habillement ; mais, à notre connaissance, ces remarques n'ont pas fait l'objet d'une didactique systématique centrée sur les compétences de base de la CNV.

Par contre, de nos jours, « il se trouve précisément que la communication non verbale est à la mode. Taper cette simple locution dans un moteur de recherche fait 'remonter' des millions d'occurrences, avec beaucoup de liens marchands » (Lardellier 2017 : 12). Nous n'irons pas jusqu'à affirmer que la CNV possède un pourcentage déterminé d'importance dans la communication humaine, comme cela a été le cas moyennant la règle de Mehrabian fréquemment employée hors contexte[2], mais elle y joue sans doute un rôle primordial, en particulier pour ce qui nous concerne, à savoir en IC.

À partir de ces considérations succinctes sur le stress et la pertinence de la CNV en IC, nous nous sommes donné l'objectif d'observer les manifestations du stress chez des étudiants en IC. Nous avons ainsi mené une expérience didactique dans laquelle différents aspects de la CNV et leur impact sur les performances des apprenants en IC ont été analysés.

Cette démarche expérimentale a été motivée par le fait que notre formation théâtrale nous a permis de réaliser à quel point le théâtre et le rôle d'acteur sont étroitement liés en termes de posture, de voix, de regard, de confiance, etc., aux compétences relatives à la CNV mobilisées pendant l'exercice de l'IC. De plus, de notre point de vue, la formation théâtrale peut influer de manière très positive sur la façon dont les apprentis-interprètes se présentent devant un public et leur faire en prendre conscience. Elle permet aussi de développer chez eux de nombreuses compétences essentielles à l'interprétation.

1 Probablement en raison du manque de temps et de ressources dans les programmes d'études standard, ou de l'absence de cadres de formation appropriés (Bendazzoli 2009 : 164) (Notre traduction).

2 Sur son site <https://www.psych.ucla.edu/faculty-page/mehrab/>, Mehrabian affirme : « Total Liking = 7% Verbal Liking + 38% Vocal Liking + 55% Facial Liking. Please note that this and other equations regarding relative importance of verbal and nonverbal messages were derived from experiments dealing with communications of feelings and attitudes (i.e., like–dislike). Unless a communicator is talking about their feelings or attitudes, these equations are not applicable ». Document disponible sur : <http://www.kaaj.com/psych/smorder.html> [consulté le 13-03-22].

1. Bref aperçu sur la formation théâtrale en interprétation

Renau Michavila (2010 : 84) considère que certains exercices de prise de parole en public et de techniques théâtrales seraient un grand pas en avant dans l'apprentissage de l'interprétation et que, sans eux, ce processus se ralentit. En fonction de leur potentiel, les techniques théâtrales peuvent aider à améliorer les habiletés de CNV et de prise de parole en public en interprétation, notamment en IC. C'est pourquoi il est impératif de mentionner des études qui ont cherché à fusionner le théâtre et l'interprétation, afin d'améliorer les compétences des apprenants.

En même temps qu'il offre une révision des études en la matière, Bendazzoli (2009) théorise et argumente comment des techniques théâtrales telles que l'improvisation encouragent le développement de la créativité des étudiants comme méthode pour trouver des solutions rapides et efficaces, et pour les appliquer dans leur approche de la compréhension et de la production linguistiques, ce qui constitue une partie du quotidien de l'interprète :

> Creativity is intended here as the ability to be highly flexible, i.e. to react rapidly, make decisions on the basis of limited time and inputs, and to have access to multiple alternatives in terms of linguistic resources and interpreting strategies[3] (Bendazzoli 2009 : 163-164).

En outre, il met l'accent sur l'utilisation de la CNV, par le biais de divers exercices théâtraux, dans la formation en interprétation : « thanks to theatrical training, trainee interpreters can thus have the chance to strengthen nonverbal communication, public speaking skills, creativity and, hopefully, become better communicators[4] » (Bendazzoli 2009 : 164).

Il faut également mentionner les travaux pionniers menés par Fernández García et ses collaborateurs, recueillis en partie dans Fernández García/Zucchiatti/Biscu (2009) et qui étaient déjà en 2008 le fruit de quinze longues années d'expérience :

> Nuestra experiencia de teatro universitario nació hace quince años en el ámbito de la Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori (Universidad de Bolonia, sede de Forlì), una Facultad dedicada a la formación de mediadores lingüísticos y culturales, traductores e intérpretes[5] (Fernández García/Bendazzoli/Biscu 2008 : 39).

3 La créativité est entendue ici comme la capacité à faire preuve d'une grande souplesse, c'est-à-dire à réagir rapidement, à prendre des décisions sur la base d'un temps et de données limités, et à avoir accès à de multiples alternatives en termes de ressources linguistiques et de stratégies d'interprétation (Bendazzoli 2009 : 163-164) (Notre traduction).

4 Grâce à la formation théâtrale, les apprentis-interprètes peuvent ainsi avoir la chance de renforcer la communication non verbale, la prise de parole en public, la créativité et, espérons-le, de devenir de meilleurs communicateurs (Bendazzoli 2009 : 164) (Notre traduction).

5 Notre expérience en matière de théâtre universitaire a commencé il y a quinze ans au sein de la Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori (Université de Bologne, siège de Forlì), une faculté consacrée à la formation de médiateurs linguistiques et culturels, de traducteurs et d'interprètes (Fernández García/Bendazzoli/Biscu 2008 : 39) (Notre traduction).

En effet, après avoir animé des cours de théâtre universitaires pendant des années, les auteurs concluent que les techniques théâtrales permettent de former des professionnels capables de communiquer dans la société interculturelle du XXIe siècle : « Los estudiantes/actores potenciaron las competencias lingüístico-comunicativas y adquirieron conocimientos interculturales, a través de una metodología de trabajo dinámica y creativa[6] » (Fernández García/Bendazzoli/Biscu 2008 : 46). Ou encore que « el teatro aplicado a la didáctica de las lenguas extranjeras y de la traducción-interpretación engloba esferas emocionales que impulsan la motivación en todos sus componentes[7] » (Fernández García/Biscu 2009 : s/n). Dans le cas de l'interprétation et plus spécifiquement de l'IC, les objectifs atteints sont, en résumé, une meilleure exposition au public et une augmentation de la capacité de concentration, due également à une meilleure capacité de se mettre à la place de l'orateur. En outre, Fernández García *et al.* (2012) ont examiné l'impact positif de ces cours de théâtre sur les étudiants qui se servent des compétences acquises même après avoir obtenu leur diplôme universitaire. Il faut ajouter le travail de Fernández García/Grimaldi (2020) sur l'emploi des techniques vocales pour améliorer l'expression orale en interprétation.

Suivant le même axe de travail, Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo (2022) ont réalisé un atelier de théâtre avec des étudiants en traduction et en interprétation, dans lequel ils ont travaillé en particulier sur les techniques de relaxation et de respiration, dans le but d'apprendre aux étudiants à se calmer dans les moments précédant leur prestation. Ils ont aussi mis en pratique diverses activités pour corriger la posture corporelle et gérer le contact visuel avec les auditeurs, afin d'améliorer la performance des étudiants devant un public. Cet atelier tel qu'il est décrit par les auteurs mentionnés constitue la base de notre expérience didactique et nous y reviendrons.

En résumé, plusieurs auteurs ont confirmé l'efficacité des techniques théâtrales appliquées à la formation en interprétation, étant donné qu'elles contribuent à la gestion du stress et à l'amélioration de la prise de parole en public en matière de communication verbale et de CNV, entre autres aspects, les qualités vocales (projection de la voix, intonation, prononciation) et kinésiques (posture corporelle et le gestuel), et le contact visuel avec l'auditoire.

2. Expérience didactique : application de techniques théâtrales en cours d'IC

2.1. Objectifs

À partir des travaux théoriques et pratiques mentionnés ci-dessus, le but de cette expérience réalisée en cours d'IC est de tester si l'application de certaines tech-

6 Les étudiants/acteurs ont développé les compétences linguistico-communicatives et acquis des connaissances interculturelles moyennant une méthodologie de travail dynamique et créative (Fernández García/Bendazzoli/Biscu 2008 : 46) (Notre traduction).

7 Le théâtre appliqué à la didactique des langues étrangères et de la traduction-interprétation atteint des sphères émotionnelles qui encouragent la motivation dans tous ses aspects (Fernández García/Biscu 2009 : s/n) (Notre traduction).

niques théâtrales peut contribuer à réduire le stress et donc à améliorer la prise de parole en public, lors de la phase de lecture des notes et de production d'un discours interprété en IC.

2.2. Public cible

L'expérience didactique que nous allons décrire a été menée à bien avec des étudiants en 4ème et 5ème année, respectivement, du diplôme en Traduction et en Interprétation anglais-français et du double diplôme[8] en Traduction et en Interprétation anglais-français et anglais-allemand de l'Université de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC), concrètement dans les cours d'interprétation consécutive du français à l'espagnol.

Il faut souligner que l'âge des sujets se situe généralement entre 21 et 22 ans, et que les étudiants qui ont participé à l'expérience ont tous reçu la même formation en IC, à savoir, deux modules d'IC en anglais d'une durée de 60 heures chacun, et un d'IC en français, également de 60 heures. Les étudiants du double diplôme, quant à eux, suivent un autre module d'IC de la même durée pendant la même année universitaire, en l'occurrence en allemand. Comme dernière spécification sur les sujets de l'expérimentation, il convient de noter qu'il s'agit surtout de femmes, puisque le nombre d'étudiantes est nettement supérieur au nombre d'étudiants dans le groupe[9].

Étant donné que les sujets de notre expérience sont des apprenants, nous estimons nécessaire de souligner les difficultés supplémentaires, en plus de celles déjà mentionnées précédemment, auxquelles sont confrontés les étudiants, comme leur inexpérience et leur degré de maîtrise des techniques de l'interprétation en général et de l'IC en particulier, naturellement inférieur à celui des interprètes professionnels.

Par conséquent, bien que le stress soit inhérent à l'acte d'interpréter (Kurz 2002, 2003), les étudiants en interprétation sont censés être plus enclins au stress que les interprètes professionnels, auxquels l'expérience a plus ou moins fourni l'aplomb nécessaire pour pouvoir le contrôler. Comme l'indiquent Jiménez Ivars/Pinazo Catalayud (2001 : 105), le niveau de stress ressenti par les apprenants lorsqu'ils interprètent devant un public est l'un des principaux obstacles dans les premières étapes de l'apprentissage. Certains élèves présentent même des symptômes physiques lorsqu'ils éprouvent du stress, comme par exemple

8 En Espagne, suite à l'adaptation des études universitaires à l'Espace Européen de l'Enseignement Supérieur, les études en traduction et en interprétation ont été organisées en 4 ans de formation de *Grado*, en termes généraux, suivis d'une année de Master. D'après l'organisation de la Faculté de Traduction et d'Interprétation (FTI), les étudiants qui suivent cette filière orientée à l'obtention d'un double diplôme mettent un an de plus que le reste des étudiants, mais ils disposent du même nombre d'heures de formation dans la matière qui concerne notre expérimentation.

9 Si nous utilisons dans cet article le genre grammatical masculin pour parler de personnes, ce n'est que par souci de concision, mais il renvoie à des personnes de tous les genres possibles.

des tremblements, des sueurs, des vertiges, des larmes, des problèmes respiratoires, etc. (*Ibid.*).

Par rapport à la maîtrise des techniques d'IC en période d'apprentissage et d'après notre propre expérience, la prise de notes aussi s'avère être un facteur qui fait augmenter la pression psychologique, du fait de « la concurrence entre écoute et prise de notes dans la phase compréhension de la consécutive » (Gile 1991 : 432). Même si la prise de notes ne devrait jamais remplacer l'écoute et la mémorisation, car ce « n'est qu'une technique qui ne saurait s'y substituer » (*Ibid.* : 431), les étudiants ont tendance à écrire toutes les informations, « obnubilés par la crainte de ne pas retenir tous les éléments du discours original » (*Ibid.* : 432), précisément parce qu'ils perçoivent la situation à partir de la peur de ne pas s'en souvenir plus tard. Par conséquent, ils ont l'impression que l'exercice de l'IC va dépasser leurs possibilités, ce qui, en réalité, conduit au stress négatif et à la déconcentration, et la plupart de leurs ressources cognitives est ainsi destinée à la prise de notes au lieu d'être concentrée sur l'écoute active et attentive, l'analyse et la mémorisation des informations, qui seraient essentielles pour la restitution du discours par la suite.

2.3. Ressources

Pour cette expérience, plusieurs ressources ont été utilisées : deux questionnaires, un discours du président français et un atelier de théâtre.

Tout d'abord, nous avons élaboré deux questionnaires en ligne avec l'outil Google Forms pour interroger les étudiants sur leur expérience en interprétation. Afin d'obtenir les réponses les plus objectives possible, la plupart des questions étaient à choix multiples. Les aspects subjectifs ont été traités dans des questions ouvertes permettant aux étudiants d'exposer leurs expériences personnelles.

Le discours utilisé comme discours de départ pour l'exercice d'IC était celui du président français, Emmanuel Macron, télédiffusé le 16 mars 2020 à l'occasion de la déclaration de l'état d'urgence à cause de la pandémie[10]. Il s'agit d'un monologue politique institutionnel qui, à travers l'identité discursive du leader politique, prétend faire entendre une voix singulière comme incarnation personnalisée de l'esprit du pays (Bacot/Gaboriaux 2016 : 10). C'est un discours qui a été préalablement rédigé pour être récité (Darias Marrero 2006 : 85). L'orateur l'a exposé d'un ton posé mais emphatique, soulignant certains fragments du discours : « le président français […] est assis, filmé en plan rapproché poitrine qui se concentre davantage sur le visage, ce qui permet au téléspectateur de se rendre compte des expressions du visage et des émotions du sujet filmé » (Darias Marrero 2021 : 146). Il s'agit d'un discours réel, donc, bien plus complexe que ceux travaillés précédemment en cours. Cependant, les étudiants étaient parfaitement informés sur le sujet en raison des circonstances du moment et, même s'ils ne connaissaient pas la terminologie spécifique, ils n'auraient pas dû avoir trop de difficultés pour trouver les mots en espagnol.

10 L'adresse aux Français du 16 mars 2020 du président est disponible en vidéo sur : https://www.elysee.fr/emmanuel-macron/2020/03/16/adresse-aux-francais-covid19.

Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus haut, l'atelier qui comportait des activités visant à la formation théâtrale de base, ainsi que ses fondements théoriques sont décrits dans Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo (2022) : « The workshop sessions combined theory with practice in order to substantiate all the proposed exercises and make students more aware of the links between the workshop activities and their interpreting skills/training[11] » (Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo 2022 : 7). Les activités et leurs objectifs formatifs y sont aussi détaillés (*Ibid.* : 7-11). En l'occurrence, cet atelier a été réalisé en deux sessions : la première a été consacrée à une introduction à la formation et à une présentation théorique de la structure fondamentale de la communication (systèmes verbal et non-verbal). Le volet pratique s'est focalisé sur les techniques et les activités de relaxation mentale et physique (exploration de la respiration et de l'appareil phonatoire) et sur la voix. La seconde session était orientée vers la kinésique, la posture corporelle correcte et le contact visuel avec les interlocuteurs. Des exercices pratiques de théâtre et de prise de parole en public favorisant la mobilisation des compétences acquises et récapitulant et appliquant les contenus de la formation reçue ont aussi été réalisés.

2.4. Méthodologie expérimentale

Afin de vérifier l'hypothèse selon laquelle le recours à certaines techniques théâtrales de base contribue à diminuer le stress des apprentis-interprètes en IC, un processus méthodologique structuré en plusieurs étapes a été mis en place. Tout d'abord, les étudiants ont répondu à un premier questionnaire pour connaître ce qu'ils ressentent pendant la réalisation d'une IC ; ensuite, ils ont fait l'IC d'un fragment du discours de départ déjà présenté et leur performance a été filmée dans le but d'établir quelles sont leurs manifestations physiques du stress ; troisièmement, ils ont participé à l'atelier de théâtre ; quatrièmement, les apprentis ont à nouveau été filmés pendant qu'ils interprétaient pour observer s'il y a eu des progrès dans leur performance, jusqu'à ce que, finalement, un deuxième questionnaire soit rempli permettant de recueillir les perceptions rétrospectives des étudiants après avoir suivi la formation théâtrale.

Cette démarche pratique qui démarrait avec le premier questionnaire et la première session expérimentale consistait à faire faire à 3 ou 4 étudiants une courte IC d'un fragment de discours de 3 à 5 minutes, soit la durée moyenne estimée des discours prononcés en classe. Puis, pendant leur prestation, ils ont été filmés avec une caméra, à l'aide d'un trépied et, bien sûr, avec leur consentement. Ces premiers questionnaires et enregistrements ont été réalisés avant la tenue de l'atelier de théâtre, dans le but de recenser leurs sensations et d'examiner leurs réactions et la façon dont le stress se manifestait chez eux. Les deuxièmes formulaires et enregistrements ont été obtenus après l'atelier, l'objectif général étant de pouvoir comparer par la suite les réponses concernant l'auto-perception

11 Les sessions de l'atelier ont combiné la théorie et la pratique afin d'étayer tous les exercices proposés et de rendre les étudiants plus conscients des liens entre les activités de l'atelier et leurs compétences/formation en interprétation (Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo 2022 : 7) (Notre traduction).

des étudiants entre les deux questionnaires et de compter sur des supports vidéo qui montraient objectivement les manifestations de stress avant et après la formation en techniques théâtrales, afin d'observer s'ils les appliquaient et si leur performance s'était en quelque sorte améliorée, en fonction d'une série de catégories d'analyse qu'il est nécessaire de définir.

2.5. Catégories d'analyse des enregistrements vidéo

Pour analyser comparativement les prestations des étudiants en IC, avant et après leur participation à l'atelier de théâtre, des paramètres ont été définis afin de considérer, d'abord, leurs manifestations de stress et, après, leur progrès potentiel. Entre autres possibilités, nous avons retenu comme indicateurs paralinguistiques : les mouvements des extrémités inférieures et supérieures, le regard, les baisses de volume et les tremblements de la voix, les pauses et la vitesse du débit.

En premier lieu, pour ce qui est de la posture du corps, l'atelier théâtral propose des activités sur le *grounding*, pour réussir une station debout avec les pieds bien ancrés au sol et le corps en équilibre. Ces activités ciblent aussi la prise de conscience de l'importance d'une bonne gestuelle en harmonie avec le message, notamment pour éviter des gestes répétitifs avec les bras et les jambes qui, au contraire, parasitent le discours. Vu la fréquence élevée d'occurrences recueillies dans les vidéos, nous avons surtout observé comment, par nervosité, les étudiants bougent d'une jambe sur l'autre ou d'avant en arrière, avec des mouvements oscillatoires et inconscients en déplaçant le poids de leur corps d'une jambe sur l'autre. Ils arrivent des fois même à croiser les jambes.

Deuxièmement, nous avons considéré les gestes des bras et des mains, c'est-à-dire ceux des extrémités supérieures dont ils se servent pour expliquer et appuyer ce qu'ils veulent dire d'une manière plus visuelle. Les gestes qui vont dans le sens du discours reflètent une gestuelle maîtrisée ; par contre, les gestes incontrôlés ou naturels chez l'individu, donc inconscients et souvent répétitifs et amplifiés par le mal à l'aise de la situation d'être exposé à l'auditoire, reflètent un souhait de se rassurer, de se sécuriser. En tout cas, les mouvements et gestes incontrôlés des extrémités autant inférieures que supérieures montrent physiquement des hésitations et des doutes qui contribuent à réduire la crédibilité de l'interprète.

Ensuite, nous nous sommes concentrés sur le regard, porteur de sens et d'intérêt, en décomptant les regards bas et fixés sur le bloc-notes pendant plus de 4 secondes. C'est le temps estimé qui coupe le contact visuel avec l'auditoire quand les apprenants ne se sentent pas en sécurité pour détourner le regard de leur cahier et affronter le regard du public. À l'opposé du regard balayant la salle, qui permet d'établir le contact avec son public, le regard fuyant des étudiants enregistrés devient un signe de repli sur soi, de manifestation excessive de concentration pour remplir sa tâche, ou encore d'incertitude. Certains d'entre eux ont tendance à regarder l'enseignant pour se sentir rassurés ou pour l'interroger pour savoir si ce qu'ils disent est juste ou faux.

Quatrièmement, nous avons considéré les diminutions du volume de la voix lorsque l'étudiant baisse sensiblement son volume en le rendant presque inaudible. C'est le cas quand il n'est pas convaincu du contenu d'une partie du discours ou quand il pense avoir fait des erreurs ou des omissions. C'est comme si, face à ce manque d'assurance, les étudiants avaient tendance à penser que, s'ils ne sont pas bien entendus, l'auditoire ne sera pas en mesure de percevoir leurs fautes, quand, au contraire, cela attire davantage l'attention du public, car il n'y a rien de pire que de devoir tendre l'oreille pour déchiffrer ce que dit l'orateur, en l'occurrence l'interprète.

Il en est de même pour les tremblements et les hésitations de la voix, résultat aussi de la nervosité et de l'insécurité. Ceux-ci sont souvent associés à une voix étranglée lors des prises de parole en public et, en particulier, à des moments du discours où les apprentis ne se sentent pas sûrs de ce qu'ils disent.

En ce qui concerne les pauses, selon Duez (1984 : 13-14), il en existe deux types : les pauses silencieuses et les pauses non silencieuses. Les premières font référence aux pauses pendant lesquelles la voix de l'orateur n'est pas entendue, et les secondes, à celles remplies d'onomatopées témoignant le doute. Pradas Macías (2004 : 119-120) appelle ces dernières *hésitations*, car elles comprennent également des répétitions, des faux départs, etc.

Au cours de cette expérience, nous avons analysé les deux et nous avons établi une période de temps (plus de 3 secondes) pour considérer les pauses silencieuses ou vides comme excessives. Ce type de pauses peut générer plus de stress lors de la production du discours, car les étudiants peuvent ressentir une pression supplémentaire parce que le public attend qu'ils continuent.

Enfin, nous avons considéré la vitesse du débit lorsque les apprenants augmentent le rythme, soit parce qu'ils se sentent en confiance et maintiennent un rythme accéléré afin de ne pas prolonger excessivement le discours, soit parce qu'ils ne sont pas sûrs d'eux et veulent finir le discours le plus rapidement possible, pour ainsi mettre fin à la pression et au stress.

3. Résultats[12]

3.1. Résultats du questionnaire 1 (Q1)

Le premier questionnaire a été répondu par 52 étudiants. À la question *Comment vous sentez-vous lorsque vous interprétez ?*, les options les plus sélectionnées étaient *nerveux* (90,4%), *pas sûr* (78,8%) et *mal à l'aise* (48,1%). Ensuite, à la question *Quelle est votre plus grande difficulté pendant l'interprétation ?*, pour laquelle il y avait 8 options[13], les étudiants ont répondu *la prise de notes* (69,2%), *la gestion du stress* (57,7%), *retenir l'information* (50%) et *parler en public* (48,1%).

Dans la question suivante, nous avons demandé aux étudiants s'ils éprouvaient du stress lors de l'interprétation, ce à quoi 51 ont répondu oui (98,1%) et un seul a répondu non (1,9%). Nous leur avons demandé d'évaluer leur niveau de stress en IC sur une échelle allant de 1 (pas du tout) à 5 (beaucoup). Aucun étu-

12 Par manque de place, nous n'inclurons que les pourcentages des réponses aux questions à choix multiples et pas les graphiques.

13 À savoir, l'écoute active, la prise de notes, comprendre l'information, retenir l'information, récupérer l'information, formuler le discours, parler en public et gérer le stress.

diant n'a évalué son niveau de stress à *pas du tout* et un seul a évalué son niveau de stress à 2 ; 38,5% ont évalué leur niveau à 3 ; 30,8% à 4 et 28,8% à 5. La plupart ressent du stress allant du moyen vers le haut de l'échelle, ce qui coïncide avec les études qui assurent que l'interprétation est une activité stressante.

À la question *Êtes-vous conscient de ce stress et de ses manifestations ?*, encore 98,1% des étudiants ont répondu oui et seulement 1,9% ont répondu non. La question d'après portait sur les manifestations du stress ressenti. Sur les 6 réponses possibles, 78,8% disent que leur stress se manifeste *dans la voix* ; 59,6% *dans la perte d'information* et 55,8% *dans la concentration*. Il est intéressant de souligner que près de la moitié a choisi les options *mouvements des bras* et *mouvements des jambes* (respectivement 44,2 et 50%).

3.2. Vidéo des IC avant l'atelier (V1)

Par souci d'objectivité, nous avons recensé et analysé en détail toutes les manifestations de stress que nous avons mentionnées et définies plus haut comme catégories d'analyse, sur la base de l'enregistrement vidéo de chaque étudiant (*E*), auquel nous avons attribué un numéro de 1 à 7. Dans les tableaux suivants, le *C* indique le nombre de fois où les étudiants ont complètement croisé les jambes et le *P*, les regards interrogatifs adressés au professeur.

	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7	Total
Mouvements des jambes	17 + 2 C	13	4	25 + 2 C	6	8	32 + 2 C	105 + 6 C
Mouvements des bras	5	23	10	10	4	6	29	87
Regards sur le cahier	13	0	7	28 + 2 P	4	30	5	87 + 2 P
Pauses vides	6	0	9	8	7	15	10	55
Hésitations	0	2	1	6	1	11	9	30
Réductions du volume	2	1	4	3	2	8	3	23
Tremblements de la voix	2	3	3	3	3	4	5	23
Augmentations de la vitesse	2	3	0	2	0	0	3	10

Tableau 1. Résultats de l'analyse de la V1

Vu les données recueillies dans le tableau précédent, nous pouvons faire deux remarques initiales. Tout d'abord, il semble évident que les étudiants manquent d'assurance car, comme nous avons déjà signalé, ils n'ont pas les compétences suffisantes, par exemple, en matière de compréhension du discours d'origine ou de résolution des difficultés, que des interprètes professionnels sont censés avoir. Selon Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo (2021 : 2), même si un interprète est très précis avec ses mots, s'il ne fournit pas une interprétation fluide en ce qui concerne la CNV, il ne transmettra pas le sentiment de crédibilité nécessaire alors qu'un interprète se doit d'être convaincant.

Ensuite, bien que les étudiants aient à peu près le même profil académique, par exemple, en termes d'heures de cours de langues étrangères ou d'interprétation, chacun a son propre parcours non seulement formatif, mais aussi personnel. En fonction du caractère ou de la capacité à supporter l'exposition au public, chacun d'eux montre un degré différent de confiance en soi et de conscience de son corps. Cela confirme donc l'opinion de Kurz (2003 : 51), selon laquelle le stress est subjectif et que ce qui est stressant pour une personne peut ne pas l'être pour une autre.

3.3. Vidéo des IC après l'atelier (V2)

Les enregistrements de la session d'IC postérieure à l'atelier ont fait l'objet de la même procédure d'analyse, dont nous présentons les résultats dans le tableau qui suit.

	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7	Total
Mouvements des jambes	0	3	8	5	8	4	3	31
Mouvements des bras	2	1	1	2	2	4	5	17
Regards sur le cahier	3	0 + 1 P	0	3	3	2	0	11 + 1 P
Pauses vides	1	2	1	2	4	1	1	12
Hésitations	2	1	5	2	2	1	5	18
Réductions du volume	0	1	1	0	1	3	1	7
Tremblements de la voix	1	1	1	3	0	2	2	10
Augmentations de la vitesse	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	4

Tableau 2. Résultats de l'analyse de la V2

Si la manifestation la plus courante du stress était les mouvements inconscients des jambes, elle a aussi été l'une des plus fréquemment corrigées (V1 : 105 + 6 C ; V2 : 31). Certaines personnes ont commencé le discours en bougeant les jambes, s'en sont rendu compte, ont rectifié et maintenu une posture correcte. Nous tenons également à souligner que de nombreux étudiants ont fait une profonde inspiration avant de commencer leur discours pour se calmer, ce qui montre leur prise de conscience du rôle de la respiration dans la relaxation.

En ce qui concerne le regard, il y a eu une tendance générale à avoir plus de contact visuel avec le public (V1 : 87 regards sur le cahier + 2 P ; V2 : 11 + 1 P), qu'ils balayaient du regard en appliquant la technique apprise lors de l'atelier théâtral : « to follow a specific sequence when looking at the audience: from left to centre to right, and then back to centre and left and so on[14] » (Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo 2022 : 11). Les gestes des mains ont également été réduits (V1 : 87 ; V2 : 17). En général, les sujets n'ont pratiquement pas bougé les bras en tenant leur cahier et les ont tout simplement bougés pour tourner les pages.

Par rapport à la voix, la plupart des apprenants n'ont ni diminué le volume (V1 : 23 ; V2 : 7), ni augmenté la vitesse de leur débit (V1 : 10 ; V2 : 4) dans les parties du discours qui les faisaient hésiter. En outre, ils ont fait des pauses plus consciemment contrôlées, qui leur ont donné le temps de réfléchir (pauses vides V1 : 55 ; V2 : 12), qui n'étaient pas trop longues et qui ne reflétaient pas non plus d'hésitations. Les étudiants ont réduit le nombre de ces dernières (V1 : 30 ; V2 : 18), car ils ont pris conscience de l'importance de se montrer sûrs et de la crédibilité dans la prise de parole en public.

3.4. Résultats du questionnaire 2 (Q2)

Dans ce nouveau questionnaire, certaines questions communes avec le premier ont été posées, l'objectif étant de savoir si les étudiants avaient remarqué une amélioration en comparant leurs réponses avec celles du Q1. Ce Q2 a été répondu par 31 personnes, soit 21 de moins que pour le Q1. Néanmoins, l'échantillon dont nous disposons suffit pour que nous puissions établir des résultats. Dans ce qui suit, les réponses aux questions les plus pertinentes sont détaillées et présentées sous forme de pourcentages.

Tout d'abord, à la question *Comment vous sentez-vous lors de l'interprétation maintenant ?*, 80,6% ont répondu *nerveux*, 54,8% *pas sûr* et 38,7% *mal à l'aise*. Bien que les pourcentages aient diminué par rapport au Q1, les étudiants continuent à se sentir nerveux et peu sûrs d'eux. Toutefois, comme nous l'avons mentionné plus haut, le stress étant intrinsèque à l'interprétation, même les interprètes professionnels ressentent une certaine tension avant d'intervenir lors des conférences, des congrès, etc. Par conséquent, il semble tout à fait normal que les apprentis-interprètes continuent à éprouver ces sensations.

14 Suivre une séquence spécifique en regardant le public : de gauche à droite en passant par le centre, puis de nouveau au centre et à gauche et ainsi de suite (Bendazzoli/Pérez-Luzardo 2022 : 11) (Notre traduction).

La question suivante leur demandait si les exercices qu'ils avaient faits dans l'atelier leur avaient été utiles, ce à quoi 100% ont répondu affirmativement. Tous ont évalué positivement l'atelier et répondu à la question suivante, laquelle leur demandait comment il les avait aidés, qu'ils avaient réussi à se détendre et appris à mieux gérer le stress. Nous les avons ensuite questionnés sur les aspects qu'ils estimaient avoir améliorés. La *gestion du stress* est celui où ils croient avoir fait le plus de progrès (67,7%), suivi de la *prise de parole en public* (54,8%) et de la *production du discours* (51,6%). Ces éléments de réponse sont tout à fait en ligne avec les objectifs didactiques de la formation théâtrale dispensée, ce qui permet de constater, à notre avis, que l'application des techniques théâtrales induit un effet très positif sur les apprenants en IC.

Nous avons ensuite demandé s'ils étaient désormais plus conscients du stress et de la façon dont il se manifeste, ce à quoi, là encore, 100% d'entre eux ont répondu oui. De plus, il leur a été demandé s'ils avaient le sentiment que leur niveau de stress avait diminué. Sur les 31 étudiants, 23 (74,2%) ont répondu oui et 8 (25,8%) ont répondu non. Bien qu'environ les trois quarts des étudiants aient constaté une baisse de leur niveau de stress, un quart n'a pas perçu d'amélioration. Ensuite, nous leur avons demandé d'évaluer dans quelle mesure leur niveau de stress était descendu sur une échelle de 1 (pas du tout) à 5 (beaucoup). Les réponses montrent que 2 personnes (6,5%) considèrent que leur stress n'a pas du tout diminué, tandis que 10 (32,3%) disent qu'il a un peu baissé. Près de la moitié des étudiants (45,2%) considèrent leur stress considérablement réduit (3 sur 5) et 5 (16,0%) disent qu'il a beaucoup diminué.

Les autres questions portaient sur les manifestations du stress. Tout d'abord, nous avons demandé aux apprenants s'ils avaient le sentiment de les avoir davantage maîtrisées, ce à quoi 30 étudiants (96,8%) ont répondu oui et un seul (3,2%) non. Nous avons également voulu savoir sur quel aspect ils pensaient avoir plus de contrôle, ce à quoi 67,7% ont répondu qu'ils s'étaient améliorés *dans la voix*, l'élément le plus problématique dans le Q1, suivi par *les mouvements des bras* et *les mouvements des jambes* (61,3% chacun). Ces résultats montrent que les activités ciblant précisément ces aspects ont porté leur fruit et que les étudiants ont appris à mieux contrôler leur voix et leur posture corporelle.

Enfin, nous leur avons demandé s'ils avaient effectué des exercices proposés à l'atelier en dehors de la classe et dans quel but, et 64,5% des étudiants ont répondu oui, pour améliorer leur technique de prise de notes, se détendre et mieux gérer le stress.

4. Conclusions

L'objectif principal de cette étude et de cette expérience était de vérifier si, grâce aux techniques théâtrales, les apprentis-interprètes amélioreraient leur prestation d'IC, non pas au niveau linguistique, mais au niveau du paralangage et de la kinesthésique.

L'objectif de la formation théâtrale dispensée n'était pas d'éliminer la peur de parler en public, mais d'apprendre à se présenter avec une gestuelle correcte et à acquérir, et donc à transmettre, plus d'assurance lors de l'IC, c'est-à-dire à gérer le stress inhérent à cette situation communicative. De notre point de vue, il est naturel, toujours en fonction de la personnalité de chacun, de ressentir une certaine pression ou de l'insécurité lorsqu'on doit prendre la parole en public et, à son tour, la prise de parole en public n'est pas le seul facteur de stress, car, comme nous l'avons vu, la crainte de perdre des informations du discours d'origine ou la prise de notes, entre autres, entrent également en ligne de compte, du moins chez les apprentis-interprètes. Cependant, la différence didactique fondamentale réside dans le fait de leur fournir des outils pour mieux gérer ce stress et montrer ainsi plus de confiance en soi, en travaillant, par le biais des techniques théâtrales, les aspects traités dans cette analyse.

Analyse dont les résultats sont clairs : l'application de techniques basiques de théâtre est efficace pour réduire le stress des étudiants en IC. Nous l'avons constaté grâce à l'observation exhaustive des catégories d'analyse dans les enregistrements vidéo où, compte tenu des résultats exposés plus haut, on peut voir que les élèves maîtrisaient beaucoup mieux leur posture et leur projection vocale. De même, les opinions des étudiants recueillies dans les deux questionnaires, qui concernaient les conséquences physiques et mentales dues au stress, montrent bien que cet atelier de théâtre a des effets concrets très bénéfiques sur leur prestation en IC. Ainsi, plus de la moitié du groupe a affirmé que son niveau de stress avait diminué de manière significative.

Du point de vue didactique, il semble évident que les étudiants ont considérablement amélioré leur IC. Vu leurs réponses, il est clair également que, d'une part, certains individus ont fait plus de progrès que d'autres et que, d'autre part, la qualité de l'exposition au public dépend aussi de facteurs divers et variés, comme nous l'avons mentionné précédemment, mais il faut remarquer qu'ils ont tous participé avec beaucoup de motivation pour appliquer les techniques proposées, même si au début ce n'était pas le cas. Le groupe dans son ensemble a mieux pris conscience de la bonne gestuelle et a appris de nouvelles façons de se détendre, de maîtriser le stress et la CNV. En conclusion, il a été possible d'obtenir de meilleures performances en IC, ce qui constitue le but ultime de la démarche pédagogique illustrée.

Nous tenons également à souligner la pertinence des sensations psychologiques des étudiants telles qu'elles ont été exprimées dans la deuxième enquête. Grâce aux exercices effectués, ils ont davantage confiance en eux, indépendamment du contenu du discours. Il est très positif qu'ils montrent nettement moins de signes physiques de stress, tels que les mouvements inconscients des jambes et des bras, mais il est gratifiant qu'ils craignent moins de se produire face au public, parce qu'ils sont maintenant conscients des divers outils qui peuvent les aider à affronter le stress de l'IC. Leurs compétences en gestion du stress et en CNV pendant la réalisation de l'IC ont donc augmenté, confirmant ainsi notre hypothèse initiale selon laquelle les techniques théâtrales résultent, d'après notre expérience didactique, bénéfiques dans la formation des interprètes.

Pour toutes ces raisons, il serait souhaitable et même conseillé de réaliser ce type d'exercices en classe lors de l'enseignement des techniques d'interprétation, car il est évident que ce qui est dit est aussi important que la manière dont c'est dit. À notre avis, à la suite des auteurs cités, le recours à des activités liées à la CNV et à la gestion du stress par une approche théâtrale améliorerait considérablement la formation des interprètes et réduirait les craintes des étudiants. Enfin, l'introduction d'éléments de base du théâtre dans l'enseignement de l'interprétation contribuerait à la préparation d'interprètes mieux formés, plus aptes à gérer le stress et à résoudre les problèmes liés à la prise de parole en public à un stade précoce, ce qui en ferait de meilleurs communicateurs professionnels.

Bibliographie

Bacot P. / Gaboriaux C. (2016) "Discourir pour présider", *Mots. Les langages du politique* 112, 9-18, <http://journals.openedition.org/mots/22415>.

Bendazzoli C. (2009) "Theatre and creativity in interpreter training", in M.I. Fernández García / M.L. Zucchiatti / M.G. Biscu (eds) *L'esperienza teatrale nella formazione dei mediatori linguistici e culturali*, Bologna, Bononia University Press, 153-164, <https://bit.ly/3dJcXLH>.

Bendazzoli C. / Pérez-Luzardo J. (2022) "Theatrical training in interpreter education: a study of trainees' perception", *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 16/1, 1-18.

Darias Marrero A. (2006) *Interpretación: tipos de situación comunicativa y didáctica*, thèse de doctorat non publiée, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, <https://bit.ly/30e8Drl>.

Darias Marrero A. (2020) "El estrés en situaciones de interpretación: un estudio comparativo entre interpretación de conferencias e interpretación para los Servicios Públicos", *Rocznik przekladoznawczy* 15, 117-138, <https://bit.ly/3tIhwLK>.

Darias Marrero A. (2021) "Discours politique sur la pandémie du COVID-19 : une étude de cas des allocutions télédiffusées de Sánchez et Macron en mars 2020", *Anales de Filología Francesa* 29, 139-161.

Duez D. (1984) "Silent and non-silent pauses in three speech styles", *Language and Speech* 25/1, 11-28, <https://bit.ly/3tPjx92>.

Fernández García M.I. / Bendazzoli C. / Biscu M.G. (2008) "Voces en busca de persona(je)s: ecos desde el laberinto de la soledad", in M.S. Horne / E. Fediukn / I.C. Flores / J.M. Larrue (eds) *Identidad y sus lenguajes en el teatro universitario; paradigmas y paradojas. VII Congreso internacional de teatro universitario de la Asociación Internacional de Teatro Universitario (AITU/IUTA)*, Puebla, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, 38-48.

Fernández García M.I. / Zucchiatti M.L. / Biscu M.G. (eds) (2009) *L'esperienza teatrale nella formazione dei mediatori linguistici e culturali*, Bologna, Bononia University Press.

Fernández García M.I. / Biscu M.G. (2009) "El aula de teatro universitario: crisol de experiencias formativas y destrezas profesionalizadoras", *Univest 09. Congrés Univest 09*, Universitat de Girona, s/n.

Fernández García M.I. / Ariza M. / Bendazzoli C. / Biscu M.G. / Grimaldi Y. (2012) "The effective action of theatre in the educational mapping of linguis-

tic and intercultural mediators", *Scenario* 6/2, 75-86, <https://bit.ly/2QiGNha>.
Fernández García M.I. / Grimaldi Y. (2020) "L'audiodramma: un oceano-eco multisensoriale per la formazione dei mediatori linguistici interculturali", in C. Nofri (ed.) *La figura del mediatore linguistico e culturale nell'era digitale*, Fermo, Franco Cesati Editore, 75-89.
Gile D. (1985) "Le modèle d'efforts et l'équilibre d'interprétation en interprétation simultanée", *Meta* 30/1, 44-48, <https://bit.ly/3y6fyHX>.
Gile D. (1991) "Prise de notes et attention en début d'apprentissage de l'interprétation consécutive – une expérience-démonstration de sensibilisation", *Meta* 36/2-3, 431-439.
Jiménez Ivars A. / Pinazo Catalayud D. (2001) ""I failed because I got very nervous". Anxiety and performance in interpreter trainees: an empirical study", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 11, 105-118, <https://bit.ly/3dQaRtK>.
Kurz I. (2002) "Physiological stress responses during media and conference interpreting", in G. Garzone / M. Viezzi (eds) *Interpreting in the 21st Century: Challenges and Opportunities*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 195-202.
Kurz I. (2003) "Physiological stress during simultaneous interpreting. A comparison of experts and novices", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 12, 51-67, <https://bit.ly/2QLlogo>.
Lardellier P. (2017) *Enquête sur le business de la communication non verbale. Une analyse critique des pseudosciences du « langage corporel »*, Caen, Éditions Management & Société (EMS).
Pérez Campos P. / Varela Salinas M. J. (2016) "La necesidad de una técnica de toma de notas en interpretación consecutiva: una experiencia", *Hermes – Journal of Language and Communication in Business* 55, 171-192, <https://bit.ly/3dPwEBy>.
Poyatos F. (1997) "The reality of multichannel verbal-nonverbal communication in simultaneous and consecutive interpretation", in F. Poyatos (ed.) *Nonverbal Communication and Translation*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 249-282.
Pradas Macías E.M. (2004) *La fluidez y sus pausas: enfoque desde la interpretación de conferencias*, Granada, Comares.
Renau Michavila M. (2010) "La Técnica Alexander, una nueva voz en la didáctica de interpretación", *Puentes* 9, 81-88, <https://bit.ly/32TOCN9>.
Riccardi A. / Marinuzzi G. / Zecchin S. (1998) "Interpretation and stress", *The Interpreter's Newsletter* 8, 93-106, <https://bit.ly/3fdoAqR>.
Riccardi A. (2015) "Stress", in F. Pöchhacker (ed.) *Encyclopedia of Interpreting Studies*, London, Routledge, 405-407.

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 107-127
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34394 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Discoursing 'dis course: applying discourse analysis in an undergraduate signed language interpreting course

Mark Halley
PhD, NIC, CoreCHI™ University of North Florida

David G. Phillips
MA, NIC Independent Researcher

Abstract

In this paper, we explore a strategy for teaching undergraduate American Sign Language/ English interpreting students about discourse types and genre boundaries. To do so, we describe a project-based learning approach employed with a cohort of second-year students, detail the assessment method, and analyze students' work. Specifically, the project required students to read a scholarly paper in the field of Interpreting Studies and create an American Sign Language video-recorded reformulation of the paper in a different discourse genre (e.g., a television news broadcast or a product infomercial). The findings indicate that, despite exhibiting a concerning lack of American Sign Language proficiency, students demonstrated remarkable creativity and critical thinking abilities. Students created video-recorded reformulations that incorporated salient points from their assigned articles while also applying principles of discourse analysis learned throughout the semester. Taken together, the findings suggest that applied discourse analysis projects and inter-genre reformulation activities can be used as a part of valuable pre-translation and translation training.

Keywords

Discourse analysis, genre, pedagogy, assessment, signed languages, translation.

Introduction

As any good interpreter or translator will attest, context is key. The ability to analyze language and communication in a wide variety of discourse contexts therefore is a foundational skill not only in the interpreting and translation process, but also in the education of interpreters. Educators who train students for general interpreting and translation work must prepare them for the broad and diverse discourse settings in which they will work. In this paper, we explore a novel approach to teaching discourse analysis to undergraduate American Sign Language/English interpreting students. In so doing, we describe the theoretical backdrop of discourse analysis in interpreter education, provide an overview of the project that students completed, and explore the results of our qualitative analysis of student submissions.

1. Theoretical overview

In this section, we explore discourse analysis and interpreting, discuss discourse analysis in interpreter education, and provide a brief overview of discourse in signed languages. This review of the literature undergirds our overarching research questions: What aspects of learning are evident in students' interlingual reformulations across discourse boundaries, and how do interlingual reformulations contribute to discourse analysis skills?

1.1 Discourse analysis and interpreting

The analysis of discourse is at the very heart of communication. However, the term *discourse*, which is "used in such a variety of fields as to defy a standard definition" bears the burden of being both nebulous and particularly prevalent (Pöchhacker 2016: 54). Despite this, a broader approach may suffice: defined by the structural linguist Stubbs (1983: 1) as "language above the sentence or above the clause", discourse is the lifeblood of interpretation and translation activity. Regardless of modality, language combination, setting, or specialty area, interpreters engage with discourse on a daily basis. Although many definitions of discourse analysis have been proposed, we suggest the relatively simple one offered by Winston/Roy (2015: 95): "Simply put, discourse analysis is the study of language in use".

As Nida/Tabor (1982: 102) note, a translator's focus "should be on the paragraph, and to some extent the total discourse". Despite the comparatively more ephemeral and immediate nature of interpreting, discourse analysis is integral to the work of interpreters. Because interpreters are central to participating in communication with primary interlocutors, an understanding of discourse and discourse analysis is central to effective interpreting (Garzone 2000).

Interpreters work with and within discourse across myriad genres[1] and communication mediums. For this reason, interpreting is – by its very nature – a form of applied discourse analysis. Using discourse analysis to study interpreting, Roy (2000) analyzed an interpreted encounter between a professor and her student. The case study of the discourse in just one interpreted conversation led to a thorough analysis of interpreting as a discourse process, including, for example, an exploration of the various options available to interpreters when managing overlapping talk.[2] However, discourse is not only relevant in dialogue interpreting; it is part and parcel of all interpreting work.

A key facet of discourse and discourse analysis is linguistic register, a "configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, mode and tenor" (Halliday/Hasan 1985: 38-39). First proposed by Joos in his *The Five Clocks* (1967), some linguists classify register or styles into five categories: frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate. However, analyses of register now extend beyond Joos' notion of five static categories. For instance, Giménez Moreno (2006: 93) notes that the five styles "have not been revised, further developed and made applicable to specific contexts inside the whole spectrum of daily communication". Instead, Giménez Moreno (*Ibid.*) argues that classifying registers is more nuanced and challenging than it may appear at first glance and suggests a typology of four registers (family, amicable, social, and professional) that accounts for factors including: personal or public life, participants/roles, and communicative setting. Further, register analysis is relevant to research in signed languages and signed language interpreting. For example, Stone (2011: 152) employed register analysis to investigate British Sign Language source language texts in an attempt "to ascertain whether the interpreters are able to match register, discourse type, a variety of stylistic scales, and text function corresponding to the sL [source language] text".

Because language use is central to how people are perceived and perceive one another, interpreters must consistently and accurately analyze register in interpreted encounters. A competent interpreter's language production will vary, for example, between an interpreted medical appointment and a conversation between close friends on an interpreted phone call. Although it has been suggested that interpreters generally prioritize understanding over preservation of register in the process of interlingual transfer (Hatim/Mason 1990), register cannot be overlooked as a key dynamic in the intersection of language use and communication. Indeed, as Hale (1997: 52-53) noted in the context of court interpreting, issues with register across source and target language can have "very negative implications" for participants, pointing to the need for interpreters to "be made aware of the significance of linguistic choices, not only in terms of accuracy of

1 In this paper, we adopt the definition of genre offered by Fairclough (2003: 65): "the specifically discoursal aspect of ways of acting and interacting in the course of social events." For an in-depth review of genre and interpreting, see Kellett Bidoli (2012).

2 The four options for interpreters that Roy (2000) identified were: 1) stopping a speaker or speakers, 2) ignoring overlapping talk until the end of a turn and then interpreting it, 3) disregarding overlapping talk, and 4) ignoring overlapping talk momentarily and then offering a turn to one of the speakers.

content but also in terms of importance of communicative style in forming impressions and – ultimately – deciding the fate of a witness in court". As a feature of language across all discourse genres and communicative encounters, register variation is not unique to court interpreting; rather, an understanding of discourse analysis and register is critical for interpreters working in a wide variety of settings. To illustrate this, in the next section, we explore the value of discourse analysis more broadly in interpreter education.

1.2 Discourse analysis in interpreter education

Teaching discourse analysis to interpreters and interpreting students is not a novel idea. In fact, discourse analysis has a rich history in interpreter education and has been applied in a variety of ways. For example, Napier (2004: 49) describes an approach to teaching discourse analysis to postgraduate students encompassing register, discourse, genre, and text types in spoken English and Australian Sign Language (Auslan), with activities and discussion centered around identifying relevant discourse features, with the aim of students "identifying features of, and developing skills in, Auslan". Winston and Monikowski describe the use of discourse mapping in interpreter education, with the goal of identifying specific discourse features within a text and creating a "meaningful visual representation" (2000: 17). By identifying structures, mapping them visually, and eventually translating them, students become more familiar with textual cohesion within and across languages. These approaches – and the value of teaching discourse analysis and discourse features – need not be language-specific to Auslan/English interpreters and interpreting students. Of the sixteen bachelor's degree American Sign Language/English interpreter education programs accredited by the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE),[3] three offer coursework specifically on discourse analysis, with several other programs offering parallel coursework (e.g., comparative linguistics).

Discourse analysis has also been explored in the context of translator training under the auspices of *textual* analysis. For example, in a course for translators explored in the Danish context, advanced translation students engage in "detailed analyses of texts before translating, which is a luxury rarely possible in ordinary translation classes because it is too time-consuming" (Trosborg 2000: 185). Trosborg (*Ibid*.) contends that a thorough approach to the analysis of the source text (ST) and discourse "gives the translator a thorough overview and the possibility of maintaining or adapting the ST in a conscious way to meet the demands of the target text (TT) skopos".

3 A list of programs accredited by CCIE is available at <http://www.ccie-accreditation.org/accredited-programs.html>.

1.3 Discourse in signed languages

We have already hinted that the analysis of discourse does not apply solely to spoken and written languages. As natural human languages, signed languages likely number 150 or more across the world.[4] In the decades since the pioneering work of William Stokoe (1960/2005), signed language linguistics researchers have explored the mechanics and nature of language, and many linguists have taken up interest in discourse and discourse analysis in signed languages.

Signed language discourse has been examined at the level of turn-taking (Baker 1977; McCleary/de Arantes Leite 2013), discourse markers and constructed action (Roy 1989), depiction (Metzger 1995; Thumann 2011; Dudis 2011; Halley 2020), sentence and utterance boundaries (Fenlon *et al.* 2007; Nicodemus 2009), eye blinks (Wilbur 1994; Herrmann 2010), politeness (Hoza 2007; Roush 2007; Hoza 2011), body leans (Van der Kooij *et al.* 2006), and prosody (Winston 2000; Brentari/Crossley 2002; Dachkovsky/Sandler 2009; Pfau/Quer 2009), to name a few. For a thorough review of the principles of discourse analysis and their application to the study of signed languages, see Metzger/Bahan (2001), Roy (2011), and Winston/Roy (2015).

Whether studying a signed language, signed language linguistics more generally, or interpreting and/or translation, students across a wide variety of backgrounds – including the students discussed in this paper – study the principles of discourse and discourse analysis in signed languages. In the present paper, we report on work produced by a cohort of undergraduate American Sign Language/English interpreting students in a discourse analysis course.

2. Method

Because there was no interaction with participants, this project was deemed exempt by the Institutional Review Board at the University of North Florida. In this study, we used a qualitative design to explore student learning. To do so, we analyzed student submissions for a discourse analysis project.

2.1 Background

The students whose submissions we analyzed were in their second year of a four-year undergraduate American Sign Language/English interpreting program accredited by the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE). Students were enrolled in Discourse Analysis, a sophomore-level course with the following course description:

> This course introduces discourse analysis to deepen student awareness of and appreciation for various discourse norms and strategies used in English and Amer-

4 There is no official list of signed languages. However, the *Ethnologue* (Eberhard *et al.* 2022), widely considered to be the most authoritative report of world languages, lists 137 signed languages.

ican Sign Language (ASL). Students will study general discourse types, including conversations, presentations, and narratives specific to ASL and English. Students will study speech act theory and pragmatics in order to identify features of cohesion, coherence, politeness, and powerful/powerless language in oral, written, and signed texts. Students will learn how to identify the function of intent, discourse markers, rhythm, prosody, and space. Discourse structures and genres, gender differences, and framing will also be addressed. The course emphasizes relevance to meaning-based cross cultural communication.

The following main topics were addressed in the course, aided with the course textbook *Discourse Analysis* (Johnstone 2017) and additional readings, which primarily reflected a cognitive grammar approach: semiotics, construal, language and culture, grounding, speech acts, dynamicity and path, cohesion, discourse mapping, power and privilege, language and gender, contextualization, narrative structure, discourse and medium, the interpreting process, and interpreted interactions. The course was taught by one of the co-authors. The instructor's credentials include national certification as an American Sign Language/English interpreter and undergraduate and graduate degrees and coursework in interpreting and linguistics. Their graduate-level training included three courses in cognitive linguistics that emphasized discourse analysis techniques.

Prior to enrolling in the course, students were required to pass three semesters of American Sign Language coursework (ASL I, ASL II, and ASL III).[5] In addition, students were enrolled in a translation course (English-to-ASL Sight Translation) as a co-requisite to Discourse Analysis. Objectives of the translation course included, among others, "perform[ing] pre-translation tasks" and "apply[ing] translation models to textual analysis, message reformulation, and meaning transfer". In the translation course, students began with intralingual (English–English and ASL–ASL) exercises before moving to interlingual work.

The Discourse Analysis course built directly on fundamental linguistic concepts of American Sign Language and English taught in the preceding semester. With these concepts as a foundation, students were guided through analysis of larger texts of a variety of types. Special attention was paid to recognition of the context, medium, interlocutors, and positionality of each discourse interaction. In-class lectures and practice were supplemented with assignments that encouraged a practical approach to analyzing real-world discourse. Students were prompted to be attentive to discourse patterns in their daily lives and reported weekly on personal examples of course topics that they experienced during the week between class meetings.

The data we analyzed were comprised of student submissions for the final project in the course. The project required students to create an interlingual re-

5 We wish to note that this course was taught in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic. As a result, many of the students had never taken a face-to-face American Sign Language course or spent significant time in authentic interaction with deaf people. We suspect these limitations negatively affected student language acquisition and fluency. For an overview of shifts in signed language interpreter education during the pandemic, see Halley *et al*. (2022).

formulation of an academic paper from the field of Interpreting Studies. Students were divided into four groups, and each group was assigned a different paper to reformulate. All papers were written in English, and students were instructed to create their reformulations in American Sign Language. Prior to reformulation, students provided a summary in written English as well as a visual representation of the content (discourse mapping). Students learned principles of discourse mapping according to Winston and Monikowski (2000). The purpose of these exercises and in-class discussions of the papers was to ensure and reinforce comprehension prior to interlingual activities. After exploration of the academic papers in their source language, students were instructed to reformulate their assigned papers into a different discourse genre and were provided with multiple examples of genres (e.g., dramatic representation, TikTok video, podcast). Students were also required to outline the genre they chose and demonstrate the discourse features and patterns that marked their reformulation as belonging to that genre. For the assignment guide that was provided to students, see Appendix A – Assignment Guide. All videorecorded reformulations were submitted on GoReact, an online recording and assessment software frequently used in signed language interpreter education.[6]

Finally, we note that because this course is situated within an undergraduate American Sign Language/English interpreting program accredited by CCIE, the curriculum is designed to adhere to rigorous evidence-based standards of excellence in interpreter education. Accordingly, this iteration of project-based learning aligns with standards set forth by CCIE (2019), including that students engage in "Reading, understanding, and critically evaluating research on interpreting". Specifically, reformulating research on interpreting challenged students to engage with critical evaluation of the papers in novel and creative ways. Essentially, the project was a form of summative evaluation that required students to demonstrate a) comprehension of literature in Interpreting Studies, b) application of discourse features across various genres, c) synthesis of discourse features in American Sign Language production, and d) rudimentary interlingual translation and reformulation skills. Our analysis therefore focuses on these dynamics of their submissions.

2.2 Analysis

We employed a qualitative analytical approach to identify thematic patterns (Creswell/Creswell, 2018) in the students' reformulations. To ensure inter-rater reliability, we each independently reviewed, coded, and analyzed student submissions. This process led to the generation of several themes that encapsulated the learning outcomes apparent in the submissions.

6 GoReact allows for live video, text, and audio peer and instructor feedback on student submissions. For more, see <https://get.goreact.com/>.

3. Findings

In this section, we describe the results of our qualitative analysis of student submissions. First, we report a holistic overview of the submissions in Table 1, which details the assigned academic papers and various genres students chose for their reformulations.

Table 1
Student reformulation genres for each assigned paper

Assigned scholarly paper	Reformulation genre
Shaw *et al*. (2004)	Breaking news television broadcast Children's science television program/Malaprop Drag show Podcast interview Product infomercial Television fundraising commercial
Metzger (2000)	Breaking news television broadcast Breaking news television broadcast Children's story Children's television program (In the style of M*ister Rogers' Neighborhood*) Mockumentary Public Service Announcement (PSA)
Winston/Monikowski (2000)	Cooking show Informational webinar Military recruiting video Product infomercial Product infomercial
Napier (2006)	Nightly news television broadcast Product infomercial Soap opera *Star Trek* parody TikTok video (classroom skit) TikTok video (Put a Finger Down Challenge)[7]

We wish to draw readers' attention to two relevant observations apparent from Table 1. First, note the diversity of genres apparent in the students' self-selected reformulation mediums. Scholarly papers were assigned to students, but they were given latitude in selecting genres for their reformulations. Second, we also wish to note that, despite the diversity of genre selection, there was some overlap, even within assigned papers. For example, two students reformulated Metzger's (2000) paper on the pedagogical theory and practice of interactive role-plays into breaking news television broadcasts.

7 The Put a Finger Down Challenge is a TikTok trend in which users create a 'duet' split-screen response video to a prompt from another user. For more, see <https://knowyourmeme.com/memes/put-a-finger-down>.

3.1 Features consistent with discourse genre

As mentioned above, students produced reformulations classified according to a wide variety of discourse genres. Of note is that some of the discourse genres do not exist in mainstream American Sign Language formats. For example, while there are numerous well-known deaf content creators on platforms like TikTok,[8] there are – to our knowledge – no mainstream American Sign Language military recruiting videos. However, students demonstrated remarkable creativity in their American Sign Language reformulations of their assigned articles, even when few or no examples of natural discourse in their chosen genre were available.

Further, students were not explicitly taught discourse features of all genres. While the course covered content on a variety of discourse types, numerous students produced reformulations in genres not explored in the curriculum (e.g., drag shows, military recruiting materials). Despite this, students demonstrated critical thinking and creative approaches to analyzing typical discourse features across these genres, as well as producing them in their reformulations. For example, the reformulation of a drag show included exaggerated linguistic affect. These features are consistent with not only drag shows performed in English,[9] but also in American Sign Language drag shows, such as the viral sensation *Deafies in Drag*. See Figure 1, below, for an example of exaggerated affect in the context of a drag show in American Sign Language.

Figure 1: Image captured from a *Deafies in Drag* YouTube video (2019) entitled "Worst Interpreter: Personal". In the image, a deaf person in drag signs 'TWO' in the phrase "TWO MONTHS?!" with highly exaggerated facial expressions (e.g., wide mouth aperture, raised eyebrows). Video available at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5XSuH2qYwrM>.

8 Examples of deaf TikTokers include Patrick McMullen and Big Ben (@patrickandbigben), Phelan Conheady (@signinngwolf), and Scarlet Waters (@scarlet__may.1).

9 For interesting analyses of the language used by drag queens, see Barrett (1998) and Mann (2011).

Finally, we note the non-linguistic features that contributed to students' discourse analysis and reformulations within their chosen genre. For instance, one student reformulated Metzger's (2000) paper into a children's television program in the style of *Mister Rogers' Neighborhood*. The program, a popular and award-winning series that aired from 1968 to 2001, was hosted by Fred Rogers, an American author and Presbyterian minister. In the show, Rogers was known and beloved for – among other things – his kind nature and omnipresent cardigan sweater. In their project, the student who created a video in the style of Fred Rogers' show donned a red cardigan. The student also incorporated visual aids and props, consistent with discourse produced in the original children's program. While this example may appear trivial at first glance, it is demonstrative of students engaging in critical thinking about the cross-cutting nature of discourse and genre. In addition to non-linguistic features, the student submitted a list of discourse features they intended to include in their reformulation: 1) speaker signs/talks in a slow calming way, 2) refers to audience as 'Neighbor,' 3) first person language, 4), ask questions, wait for answer, and 5), framed as a conversation where the audience is the second participant. Each of these features appeared in their American Sign Language reformulation and aligned with typical discourse features in an episode of *Mister Rogers' Neighborhood*.

3.2 Discourse analysis vs. discourse production

Student misunderstanding of content in their assigned papers was paralleled with misalignment of theoretical knowledge of linguistics and discourse analysis with actual language proficiency. Specifically, the data point to numerous instances in which students' theoretical grasp of discourse analysis dwarfed their ability to produce discourse in their reformulations. Although assessing language proficiency is outside the scope of this paper, we note a general pattern of student misperceptions of their ability to produce discourse. These instances go beyond mispronunciation and indications of vocabularies in need of development (e.g., a student who confused the word CORRECT with SISTER and the word ONE-ON-ONE with INTERVIEW, or another student who mistook the word RUIN for JOKE).[10] To illustrate, we focus on two patterns of discourse anomalies apparent across student submissions: register lapses and unnatural prosody.

To begin, we note that shifts in register in the reformulations were expected. The register and type of language used in a drag show, for instance, would not generally align with the formality in a scholarly publication. However, students frequently demonstrated two register errors and inconsisten-

10 These errors were articulation errors (e.g., movements or hand configurations) that led to the apparent inadvertent production of incorrect words. For instance, the word RUIN has a forward movement, while the word JOKE repeats the forward movement twice. Such mispronunciations were common and highlight the need for students to both demonstrate a strong language foundation and engage in continuous language enhancement during interpreter training.

cies within their reformulations. The first persistent error was related to the location of the hands, and the second was related to the number of hands used when producing a word. For instance, while one would generally expect to see formal language use in a television update from a meteorologist, one student demonstrated an atypical register shift due to the location of their hands while discussing the weather in their news broadcast reformulation. The American Sign Language word WILL is generally produced beginning at or above the signer's nose and consists of a straight outward movement. However, some American Sign Language words are marked for their level of formality according to their starting location; generally speaking, the higher a sign's starting location, the more formal the register (Liddell/Johnson 1989). Instead of producing WILL at or above the nose, the student produced it just below their cheek. Producing the word in this way implies a highly informal use inconsistent with discourse that viewers would expect to see in a televised weather broadcast. Another instance of an unexpected register shift occurred in a student's reformulated infomercial. Although they generally used formal language throughout their reformulation in a way that aligns with expected discourse in infomercials, they produced the sign KNOW on the lower cheek, rather than at the temple; producing KNOW in this way suggests a downward shift in formality.[11]

One way in which register is marked in American Sign Language that may cause students to exhibit atypical shifts in register is in the number of hands used in the production of a word (see Zimmer 1990). For instance, the word READY is generally produced with two hands in formal or semi-formal contexts, but it can be produced with one hand to denote a highly casual tone. In a student's television fundraising commercial reformulation, they produced the word with just one hand. Examples of apparent register lapses – whether due to intentional shifts or unintentional articulation errors – suggest that despite learning about register in their coursework, students lack the ability to accurately and consistently produce register-appropriate discourse.[12]

In addition to their final video reformulations, the assignment guide noted that students were required to submit "a description of some of the features of [their] genre and how [they] will incorporate them in [the] final project". These written plans allowed us to compare students' perceptions and intentions with their actual production in the reformulations. In many cases, students' reformu-

11 We note that because ethical review of this study did not allow for interviews with the students or any interaction after the completion of the semester, we were unable to ascertain specific reasons for these production errors. It is therefore not entirely clear whether these were indeed register shifts (intentional or not), or rather production errors that inadvertently shifted the style and level of formality. Further, it is unclear whether students had developed the requisite level of metalinguistic awareness to know the difference.

12 We note that atypical register shifts in student work did not appear to impact the coherence of their reformulations. Unexpected register use is still intelligible, if somewhat jarring.

lations did not align with the very discourse features they had studied throughout the semester, learned to analyze, and outlined in their draft assignments.[13]

For instance, a student who reformulated their assigned paper into a nightly news broadcast noted the need to portray a "positive tone" in the reformulation. In this way, the student demonstrated an awareness for conventional discourse from reporters working on "feel good" stories. However, throughout their video reformulation, the student frequently produced affect that appeared strained (e.g., gritted teeth). Regardless of the cause, the student's strained production in the reformulation did not align with the self-described "positive tone" they intended to portray. The visible incongruency between expected discourse norms and the student's production appears to be rooted in a lack of proficiency. As the student attempted to reformulate the content and produce discourse in real time, they visibly struggled to recall vocabulary and produce language for the broadcast. For example, at one point during the broadcast, the student described a series of ideas using a *list buoy* (Liddell 2003). In American Sign Language, a list buoy may be produced by a signer to refer to a list of entities. Signers may modify their handshape according to the number of entities shared in the list. Once an entity is associated with a particular finger in the list buoy, a signer may refer to it again by indexing the same finger. An example is provided in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Image of a signer producing a depicting list buoy. The signer uses the FOUR hand configuration and is indexing the middle finger, indicating that they are referring to the second of four entities in the list.

13 The reformulation assignment was devised for this course and presented to students for the first time. We now note the potential value in revising the guidelines to elicit further analytical thinking from students. For instance, students could be required to specifically outline discourse features they intend to incorporate in their reformulations, as well as make connections to literature supporting their rationale.

In the above example of the news broadcast reformulation, the student alternated between the THREE and FOUR hand configurations. The student, noticing the apparent misnumbering issue at hand,[14] averted their gaze and briefly produced a sour face, with pursed lips and reduced eye aperture.[15] This lapse in positive tone and affect was repeated multiple times throughout the reformulated broadcast. For instance, seconds after the challenges of producing the list buoy, the student said, INTERPRETING PROCESS. However, immediately following the word 'INTERPRETING,' they paused momentarily, inconsistent with typical clausal boundaries (Fenlon et al. 2007; Nicodemus 2009). As they then produced the word PROCESS, they lowered their eyebrows and reduced their eye aperture, suggesting an intense or contemplative thought that did not align with the context of their news broadcast.

Students also exhibited atypical prosodic features when marking utterance boundaries. For example, fluent American Sign Language users employ eyeblinks for syntactic purposes and to mark utterance boundaries (Baker 1976; Wilbur 1994; Herrmann 2010). However, students regularly exhibited eyeblinks in ways that were not productive on a discourse level. For instance, in a reformulated television news broadcast, one student assuming the role of a news anchor said, NOW INTERVIEW STUDENT BOTH SCHOOL. [English translation: *We will now interview students from both schools.*] A fluent American Sign Language user would typically blink once at the end of this phrase, to mark the utterance as complete. However, the student blinked four times while producing just five words. To those viewing the reformulation and those like it, it would appear as though the student were pausing briefly after every two or three words, causing distraction and making the discourse difficult to follow without increased cognitive effort.

3.3 Interlingual inter-genre reformulation as pre-translation

As we noted earlier, students were enrolled in this course at the same time as a translation course (English-to-ASL Sight Translation). Students' reformulations of academic papers for this project exhibited many features of translation they were learning about in their translation course, offering opportunities for reinforcement of foundational processes in translation.

One way the courses aligned was in the considerable time and energy in the translation course devoted to cohesion and structure across source and target

14 This is just one example of a student's reformulation not displaying expected linguistic features that contribute to coherent and cohesive discourse. For instance, in their reformulation of Winston/Monikowski's (2000) paper into a military recruiting paper, a student introduced a list buoy with three entities to be discussed. After referencing and describing the first entity, the student then referred to the second entity by saying NEXT-TOPIC, rather than referring to the already-established list buoy. Breaking this discourse norm leads to ambiguity about the entities being discussed.

15 We suspect this lapse in affect and prosody may be explained by excess cognitive effort exhausted in lexical retrieval. For more, see Gile's (1995) Gravitational Model of language availability.

texts. Although students completing this project were not required to create an 'equivalent' reformulation of their assigned academic article,[16] they used a variety of discourse features and strategies to present their reformulations in coherent and cohesive ways. One such strategy was the indexing of real and blended space in managing conceptual referents (see Liddell 2003). A student reformulated one paper as a cooking show, referencing the 'ingredients' (i.e., requisite steps) for discourse mapping. To establish these referents, the student created paper mock-ups of the ingredients that were incorporated into their signing by physically picking them up, indexing them, and buoying them while describing their function. Students who reformulated into conversational genres used consistent spatial placing in referring to the other person (e.g., a podcast interviewee), even when that conversational 'other' was themselves in a separate scene. Each character was positioned so that they were facing one another, and directional verbs were indexed toward the location of the verb's object, which mirrors typical uses of constructed action (Roy 1989).

By engaging in interlingual inter-genre reformulation activities, students bolstered the pre-translation tasks and skills they were developing in adjacent coursework, such as English-to-ASL Sight Translation and Linguistics for Interpreters. Instead of being assessed on their ability to produce *equivalent* translations, students were assessed on their ability to think critically about complex ideas and express them in novel ways.

4. Discussion

We now provide some brief commentary on the findings, exploring their interpretation and application to the classroom. We focus our discussion on two key areas: a) student ability to critically analyze and synthesize scholarly content, and b) the duality of disfluency and discourse analysis during interpreter and translator training.

4.1 Student (mis)understanding of scholarly papers

Although it has likely been misattributed, many quote Albert Einstein as having said, "If you can't explain it simply, you don't understand it well enough". Whether the famed German-American physicist ever uttered these words, they resonate with the students' work in this project. The task of distilling the complex ideas expressed in scholarly papers to non-academic genres like children's television programs and drag shows necessitates a level of simplification and summarization or – to apply work from Bloom's (1956) pioneering pedagogical work – *synthesis*.

16 While the original function of each assigned article was to inform readers, reformulating into a different genre implies a different function in the new genre. For example, a reformulation in the form of a TikTok video would likely function to both inform – by conveying the gist of the original article – and entertain viewers, rather than provide a functionally equivalent translation.

However, we note that – generally speaking – students' reformulations captured the essence of their assigned scholarly papers. While details and nuance inherent in academic writing were omitted or otherwise altered in the inter-genre reformulations, students generally succeeded in expressing the primary themes explored in the papers. In other words, students did not misrepresent the heart of the scholarly papers they reformulated.

With this said, despite considerable clarification from the instructor and reinforcement of the material, there were numerous instances in which students failed to fully grasp the content expressed in the scholarly articles. For example, one student's reformulation of the Metzger (2000) chapter was a video just under two minutes long that conveyed the process of learning interpreting through role-play as "practicing acting with friends" and soliciting their feedback. This reformulation suggested an oversimplification of Metzger's (2000) central proposition: that role-plays are a pedagogically sound technique for teaching students the complexities of managing human discourse.[17] Difficulties in digesting complex ideas expressed in scholarly papers is not surprising, particularly when considering that the students were only two years into their degree of study and had taken just one course acclimating them with the foundations of interpreting (Introduction to Interpreting, a first-year course). Significantly, this finding highlights the value of interpreters continuing to develop expertise in their native language across a wide variety of discourse types, including in academic writing. Further, students engaged in a variety of reformulation exercises of varying difficulties throughout the semester. However, interpreter and translator trainers developing similar activities for students might consider using texts that are more straightforward and written for general audiences, rather than academic papers intended for educated readers.

4.2 (Dis)fluency during interpreter and translator training

In this paper, we have suggested that by instilling in students a deep understanding of discourse and a strong foundation in discourse analysis techniques, students are well-placed to continue their training and skill development post-graduation.[18] However, we wish to note a challenge faced by many interpreter and translator educators that complicates the work of teaching advanced critical thinking processes like discourse analysis: student disfluency. Because institutions of higher learning place demands upon educators and students alike for

17 This represents just one example of oversimplification on the part of a student, and we suggest that further investigation is necessary to determine how best to incorporate scholarly reading into undergraduate interpreter training.

18 Further, we suggest that skill development outside the classroom is predicated upon students developing strong critical thinking skills, including self-regulatory processes and the ability to self-assess. However, we note that fostering these abilities is challenging for interpreter educators because "accurate self-evaluation is linked with high experience", something that is difficult to attain in time-constrained training programs (Hild 2014: 141).

timely graduation and relatively short degree-completion timelines – typically four years for an undergraduate program of study in the United States – and students frequently begin their studies as monolinguals, bilingual fluency upon graduation is atypical.[19] Instead, interpreter educators are placed in the unenviable position[20] of being both language teacher and interpreting coach. Faced with the equivalent of teaching cardiothoracic surgery to students still mastering basic anatomy and physiology, interpreter educators all too frequently fail to adequately prepare students for meaningful work.

Although language proficiency is a prerequisite for a high-quality interpreting product, we hope that developing mastery in discourse analysis and the interpreting process will prepare students to one day provide excellent interpreting services. However, despite the remarkable initiative demonstrated by students in their reformulations, we would be remiss if we did not express our grave concerns about a nearly ubiquitous lack of proficiency. While reviewing the data, there were numerous instances in which we – proficient L2 speakers of American Sign Language – were unable to decipher students' unintelligible expressions. This underscores the need for students across interpreter education programs to demonstrate not only theoretical and practical knowledge, but also a level of proficiency sufficient for future work as interpreters. While we are heartened by student creativity and effort apparent in the data, we remain alarmed by language disfluency and the repercussions it may have for interpreting service users.

Finally, we suggest that, taken together, these data point to a fundamental question that warrants further investigation: have interpreting students developed linguistic proficiency and metalinguistic awareness to a level necessary for meaningful discourse analysis and translation or interpreting tasks? Due to the ethical constraints in this study, we were unable to collect data from students after the semester about their metalinguistic awareness. However, Fitzmaurice (2020: 12) demonstrated that "educational interpreters experience a Dunning-Kruger Effect[21] in that the interpreters who score lower on the EIPA [Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment] overestimate their anticipated score on the test, whereas interpreters who scored higher on the EIPA underestimated their

19 A recent report released by a Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT) task force on language fluency concluded that "foundational (basic and intermediate) language learning cannot, and should not be a primary focus of interpreting education" (CIT, 2022, p. 3). Instead, bilingual fluency should be a requirement of students prior to program admission. The recommendations align with Gile's (1995: 212) observation that "It does not seem reasonable to admit into professional schools students whose command of their working languages is not good enough to allow them to become interpreters at the end of their program".

20 It should go without saying that the position of deaf people receiving subpar interpreting services is far more unenviable.

21 The Dunning-Kruger Effect refers to the psychological phenomenon in which individuals with the lowest level of skill in a given task are most likely to overestimate their abilities. For more, see Kruger/Dunning (1999). However, there have been challenges to the construct. For example, Magnus and Peresetsky (2022: 11) argue that the effect is not psychological and "does not reflect human nature", but is rather a "statistical artefact".

scores". Students in the present study were not asked to provide a self-evaluation of their proficiency, discourse production, or ability to reformulate across genre; however, we question whether the students had the metalinguistic awareness to recognize their own deficits. This is an area of interest for both future research and potential inclusion in teaching approaches.

5. Conclusions

The ability to think critically about discourse and produce coherent and cohesive language is a hallmark of a well-versed interpreter. In this paper, we analyzed undergraduate interpreting student work to explore their application of discourse analysis. Taken together, the findings suggest that, despite demonstrating disfluency in American Sign Language, students exhibit remarkable creativity and critical thinking about discourse and discourse analysis.

Snell-Hornby (1988: 69), argues that "for the translator the text must also be seen in terms of its *communicative* function, as a unit embedded in a given *situation*, and as part of a broader sociocultural background" (emphasis in original). It is our contention that this maxim holds true in both interpreting and interpreter education, and that a critical approach to discourse analysis can guide students toward a deeper understanding of the sociocultural and contextual backgrounds in which they work. By teaching students to be better discourse analysts, they can – we hope – be better interpreters.

Transcription conventions

In this paper, we have followed standard conventions for transcribing signed language data. American Sign Language data have been glossed in capitalized text (e.g., RESEARCH) with their closest written English equivalent.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge the students for their creativity and steadfast effort in submitting creative, high-quality reformulations.

References

Baker C. (1976) "Eye-openers in ASL." Proceedings of the sixth California Linguistic Association Conference, 1-13.

Baker C. (1977) "Regulators and turn-taking in American Sign Language discourse", in L. Friedman (ed) *On the Other Hand: New Perspectives on American Sign Language*, New York, Academic Press, 215-236.

Barrett R. (1998) "Markedness and styleswitching in performances by African American drag queens" in C. Myers-Scotton (ed) *Codes and Consequences: Choosing Linguistic Varieties*, New York, Oxford University Press.
Bloom J. (ed) (1956) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals*, London, Longmans
Brentari D. / Crossley L. (2002) "Prosody on the hands and face", *Sign Language and Linguistics* 5/2, 105-130.
CCIE (Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education) (2019) "Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education Accreditation Standards 2019", <http://www.ccie-accreditation.org/uploads/1/3/5/7/135730968/final-ccie-2019-standards-.pdf>.
CIT Task Force (Conference of Interpreter Trainers Task Force on Language Fluency Requirements in ASL and English for Entry and Exit for Interpreting Programs) (2022) "Task Force Final Report" <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1fRzMeEtfpmmYIBhS-__P7FpUBD0rctFIh/view>.
Creswell J.W. / Creswell J.D. (2018) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*, third edition, Thousand Oaks, CA, SAGE.
Dachkovsky S. / Sandler W. (2009) "Visual intonation in the prosody of a sign language" *Language and Speech* 52/2-3, 287-314.
Dudis P. (2011) "The body in scene depiction", in C. Roy (ed) *Discourse in Signed Languages*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 3-45.
Eberhard D. M. / Simons G. F. / Fennig C. D. (eds) (2022) *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. Twenty-fifth edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue.com/subgroups/sign-language>.
Fairclough N. (2003) *Analyzing Discourse: Textual Analysis for Social Research*, London/New York, Routledge.
Fenlon J. / Denmark T. / Campbell R. / Woll B. (2007) "Seeing sentence boundaries", *Sign Language and Linguistics* 10/2, 177-200.
Fitzmaurice S. (2020) "Educational interpreters and the Dunning-Kruger Effect", *Journal of Interpretation* 28/2, Article 1.
Garzone G. (2000) "Textual analysis and interpreting research", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 10, 69-88.
Gile D. (1995) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.
Giménez Moreno R. (2006) "A new approach to register variation: the missing link", *Iberica 12*, 89-109.
Hale S. (1997) "The treatment of register variation in court interpreting", *The Translator* 3/1, 39-54.
Halley M. / Wessling D. / Sargent S. (2022) "Virtual and viral: Shifts in signed language interpreter education during the COVID-19 pandemic", *Journal of Interpretation* 30/1, Article 5.
Halley M. (2020) "Rendering depiction: a case study of an American Sign Language/English interpreter", *Journal of Interpretation* 28/2, Article 3.
Halliday M. / Hasan R. (1985) *Language, Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-Semiotic Perspective*, Geelong, Deakin University Press.
Hatim B. / Mason I. (1990) *Discourse and the Translator*, United Kingdom, Taylor & Francis.

Herrmann A. (2010) "The interaction of eye blinks and other prosodic cues in German Sign Language", *Sign Language and Linguistics* 13/1, 3-39.
Hild A. (2014) "The role of self-regulatory processes in the development of interpreting expertise", *Translation and Interpreting Studies* 9/1, 128-149.
Hoza J. (2007) *It's Not What You Sign: Politeness in American Sign Language*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press.
Hoza J. (2011) "The discourse and politeness functions of HEY and WELL in American Sign Language" in C. Roy (ed) *Discourse in Signed Languages*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 69-95.
Johnstone B. (2017) *Discourse Analysis*, Third Edition, Hoboken, NJ, Wiley.
Joos M. (1967) *The Five Clocks*, Harcourt, Brace & World.
Kellett Bidoli C. (ed) (2012) *Interpreting across Genres: Multiple Research Perspectives*, Trieste, Edizioni Università di Trieste.
Kruger J. / Dunning D. (1999) "Unskilled and unaware of it: how difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 77/6, 1121-1134.
Liddell S. (2003) *Grammar, Gesture, and Meaning in American Sign Language*, Cambridge University Press.
Liddell S. / Johnson R. (1989) "American Sign Language: the phonological base", *Sign Language Studies* 64/1, 195-278.
Magnus J. R. / Peresetsky A. A. (2022) "A statistical explanation of the Dunning-Kruger Effect", Frontiers in Psychology 13, 1-15.
Mann S. (2011) "Drag queens' use of language and the performance of blurred gendered and racial identities", *Journal of Homosexuality* 58/6-7, 793-811.
McCleary L. / de Arantes Leite T. (2013) "Turn-taking in Brazilian Sign Language", *Journal of Interactional Research in Communication Disorders* 4/1, 123-154.
Metzger M. (1995) "Constructed dialogue and constructed action in American Sign Language" in C. Lucas (ed) *Sociolinguistics in Deaf Communities*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 255-271.
Metzger M. (2000) "Interactive role-plays as a teaching strategy" in C. Roy (ed) *Innovative Practices for Teaching Sign Language Interpreters*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 83-108.
Metzger M. / Bahan B. (2001) "Discourse analysis", in C. Lucas (ed) *The Sociolinguistics of Sign Languages*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 112-144.
Napier J. (2004) "Exploring signed language discourse with interpreting students: promoting an effective pedagogical approach", in E. Maroney (ed) *Proceedings of the 15th National Convention – Conference of Interpreter Trainers*, Monmouth, OR, Western Oregon University Press, 43-54.
Napier J. (2006) "Effectively teaching discourse to sign language interpreting students", *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19/3, 251-265.
Nicodemus B. (2009) *Prosodic Markers and Utterance Boundaries in American Sign Language Interpretation*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press.
Nida E. / Tabor C. (1982) *The Theory and Practice of Translation*, Leiden, E. J. Brill.
Pfau R. / Quer J. (2009) *Nonmanuals: Their Grammatical and Prosodic Rules*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Pöchhacker F. (2016) *Introducing Interpreting Studies*, London, Routledge.
Roush D. (2007) "Indirectness strategies in American Sign Language requests and refusals: deconstructing deaf-as-direct stereotype", in M. Metzger / E. Fleetwood (eds) *Translation, Sociolinguistic, and Consumer Issues in Interpreting*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 103-156.
Roy C. (1989). "Features of discourse in an American Sign Language lecture", in C. Lucas (ed) *The Sociolinguistics of the Deaf Community*, San Diego, CA, Academic Press, Inc., 231-251.
Roy C. (2000) *Interpreting as a Discourse Process*, New York, Oxford University Press.
Roy C. (ed) (2011) *Discourse in Signed Languages*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press.
Shaw S. / Grbic N. / Franklin K. (2004) "Applying language skills to interpretation: student perspectives from signed and spoken language programs", *Interpreting: International Journal of Research and Practice in Interpreting*, 6/1, 69-100.
Snell-Hornby M. (1988) *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*, Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, John Benjamins.
Stokoe W. (1960/2005) "Sign language structure: an outline of the visual communication systems of the American deaf", *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education* 10/1, 3-37.
Stone C. (2011) "Register, discourse and genre in British Sign Language", in C. Roy (ed) *Discourse in Signed Languages*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 69-95.
Stubbs M. (1983) *Discourse Analysis: The Sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural Language*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press.
Thumann M. (2011) "Identifying depiction: construction action and constructed dialogue in ASL presentations", in C. Roy (ed) *Discourse in Signed Languages*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 46-66.
Trosborg A. (2000) "Discourse analysis as part of translator training", *Current Issues in Language & Society* 7/3, 185-228.
Van der Kooij E. / Crasborn O. / Emmerik W. (2006) "Explaining prosodic body leans in Sign Language of the Netherlands: pragmatics required", *Journal of Pragmatics* 38/10, 1598-1614.
Wilbur R. (1994) "Eyeblinks and ASL phrase structure", *Sign Language Studies* 84/1, 221-240
Winston E. (2000) "It just doesn't look like ASL", *CIT at 21: Celebrating Excellence*, Silver Spring, RID Publications, 103-115.
Winston E. / Monikowski C. (2000) "Discourse mapping: developing textual coherence skills in interpreters", in C. Roy (ed) *Innovative Practices for Teaching Sign Language Interpreters*, Washington, DC, Gallaudet University Press, 15-66.
Winston E. / Roy C. (2015) "Discourse analysis and sign languages", in A. Schembri / C. Lucas (eds) *Sociolinguistics and Deaf Communities*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 95-119.
Zimmer J. (1990) "From ASL to English in two versions: an analysis of register in two versions" 41/1, 19-34.

For your final project, you will create a reformulated presentation of the article you mapped for Analysis 2. The reformulation must be in ASL and in a different genre than the source (i.e. not academic writing). The only requirement is that you include the main points of the article and any important details. This will not be a re-telling of the entire article, but rather more a type of summary.

The final project will be submitted in GoReact and should not be longer than 5 minutes. You will briefly present on your project in ASL during our final two class periods.

For this assignment, you should select what genre you would like to use for your project. It can be any genre you'd like – a dramatic representation, a TikTok meme, a podcast, whatever you'd like! Select your genre and submit that with a drafted outline/script that you will use to record your project. You can also submit a draft recording for feedback. Along with your draft, include a description of some of the features of your genre and how you will incorporate them in your final project.

For your in-class presentation, you should identify the article, genre used, features of that genre that were incorporated, and how the structure of the video matches the selected genre.

The Interpreters' Newsletter 2022 (27), 129-146
DOI: 10.13137/2421-714X/34395 ISSN 1591-4127 (print) ISSN 2421-714X (online)
https://www.openstarts.units.it/dspace/handle/10077/2119

Interpreter preparation in the interpreting classroom environment. A study on the usefulness of terminological glossaries

Beneharo Álvarez-Pérez and
Jessica Pérez-Luzardo Díaz
Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria

Abstract

This paper explores the perception held by 135 students from two Spanish universities in their third, fourth and fifth years of study, on the conceptualisation, preparation and use of terminology glossaries. Respondents answered a series of questions about their experiences in preparing and using glossaries in their translation and interpreting courses. The methodology consisted of a questionnaire divided into four blocks of open- and closed-ended questions, aimed at identifying the use of glossaries in the interpreting classroom, to define their content and structure, as well as the importance students attach to this tool. The data obtained revealed that while glossaries are regularly addressed in translation, interpreting, documentation and terminology courses, students fail to perceive the full potential of this tool as a way of collecting the information necessary to understand the context in which the interpretation is to take place.

Keywords

Glossary, interpreting, interpreter training, preparation for interpretation assignments, terminology.

Introduction

The simultaneous interpreting process involves a series of sequential sub-processes that begin at the very moment the assignment is materialised (Jiang 2013). Among these processes, there is no doubt, the interpreter's own preparation stands out as essential to guarantee the success of the final rendering and must be taken into serious consideration not only within the interpreters' own training, but also in the professional performance (Díaz Galaz 2011). In a professional setting, "the client is expected to provide the interpreter with all the information available in advance about the conference assignment" (Pérez-Pérez 2018: 138). But it is a well-known fact that the interpreter may well receive all the relevant documents, including the transcripts, the schedule and even the slides intended for use *during* the presentations, and often they may receive very little information at all.

Students should be taught about the range of possibilities they might encounter and be prepared for the fact that the organisers rarely realise that providing the interpreters with as much information as possible might mean the difference between a good and an excellent interpretation. Studies show that when organisers provide interpreters with information in advance, not only is the quality of the delivery of the target message perceived to be higher, but also the success of the event is greater (Díaz-Galaz *et al.* 2015).

In the interpreting classroom, it is necessary to try to enhance the limits of human capacity for processing and develop the students' abilities to deal with linguistic material (Padilla Benítez 1998), while highlighting the vital importance that terminology has for conference interpreters, since it is directly related to cohesion and the correct conveyance of meaning (García de Quesada 2007). Mastery of previously acquired terminology and its correct use throughout the event in which the interpreter is to participate are undoubtedly key determinants of the quality of their performance. In this sense, Fantinuoli (2017) emphasises the importance of advance preparation, especially in highly specialised settings. To do this, such terminology must be collated in the most effective way possible, thus allowing the interpreter to internalise it in a logical manner and retrieve it quickly when necessary. Poor terminology management by the interpreter is directly linked to key content-related parameters of interpreting quality, such as a lack of logical cohesion, incorrect or incomplete transmission of the original speech or inappropriate terminology, not to mention more formal parameters such as monotonous intonation (García de Quesada 2007).

Thus, glossaries may – and perhaps, should – be considered to be an essential and integral part of the whole interpretation process. It is probably safe to say that all interpreters have created some kind of glossary at some stage in their careers (Jiang 2015). However, students perceive the ad-hoc acquisition of terminological information as a time-consuming task, to which they tend to devote less time, although trainers should stress that accuracy in terminology usage is a key element to guarantee quality (Gile 2009). This perception held by students is probably linked to the fact that interpreter preparation before a conference is often analysed in passing or even taken for granted rather than addressed in detail, as students in conference interpretation programmes could find it hard to fathom the particularities of the preparation process performed by professionals throughout the entire conference (Luccarelli 2006). This lack of interest is transmitted to the concept of glossaries, which is studied in even less detail (Jiang 2013). Additionally, the traditional glossary is no longer attractive to students that are used to smartphones, tablets and apps. The new generations of interpreters – digital natives and digital immigrants – are certainly more tech-savvy than their older colleagues and seem to be ready to embrace technology. In fact, laptops, tablets, and other kinds of technological tools have become a staple in the interpreting booth (Prandi 2020; Corpas Pastor 2021). Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that they may prefer to use more advanced tools or software solutions to meet their current needs in terms of technology and knowledge management, such as computer-assisted interpreting tools (Fantinuoli 2017), automatic speech recognition (Gaber *et al.* 2020; Corpas Pastor 2021; Defrancq/Fantinuoli 2021) and artificial intelligence solutions (see Fantinuoli 2018).

In this context, our study has three main aims. One is to determine how glossaries are used in the interpreting classroom. Another is to get an idea of the content and structure of the glossaries that students produce for their classwork. Finally, the third objective is to find out the degree of importance that students attach to glossary preparation. In other words, this paper aims to offer an insight into how translation and interpreting students are introduced to the preparation of terminology glossaries, as well as to determine the importance attributed to this tool throughout their training period, and to gauge the relevance that students give to glossary preparation during their training and in their professional careers. To do this, a self-developed questionnaire was used, which was answered by third, fourth and fifth-year students of Translation and Interpreting Studies from Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC) and Universidad Internacional de Valencia (VIU), both from Spain, in order to determine the way in which glossaries are introduced to students during their training and the perception students have of this tool.

1. The importance of context and knowledge: advance preparation as an essential tool for quality

The very essence of interpreting requires the interpreter to have a high degree not only of general knowledge, but also of the specific context in which the assignment is to take place. This is described by Hale in Crezee *et al.* (2015), who also pay particular attention to the importance of terminology in achieving this goal.

> Interpreters do not work in isolation. They work in specific settings with their own cultures, organisational practices, institutional goals, participant roles, and context-specific discourses. In order for interpreters to be able to interpret accurately, they must first understand the context in which they are working, the content they are to interpret, the discourse strategies used by the different participants and the discipline-specific terminology (p. xxv).

Following the tenets of Alexieva, who, as early as 1985, regarded the conference as a "macro-text" in which different relations between the various individual "micro-texts" that made up the event converged, Pöchhacker (1992) applied the notion of "hypertext" from the origins of the network of networks to the analysis of the discourses ("texts") that interrelate in a conference environment.

This interrelation is based on the precepts of functionalism, which argues that the communicative purpose (*skopos*) of the conference is defined in reference to the contractual specificities of the hypertext, defined as a "communicative act" (Pöchhacker 2015: 186). Thus, the knowledge of this network of texts or micro-texts that both Alexieva and Pöchhacker recognised as forming the units of any conference, as well as the interpreter's familiarity with the terminology specific to each of these elements, is presented as a core aspect when approaching the preparation of any conference as a communicative act (see Bendazzoli 2010, Chapters 1-2).

It is therefore worth highlighting the types of knowledge that are essential for the interpreter's work, which Díaz Galaz (2012) addresses from the following perspective:

> [...] models describing the simultaneous interpreting process from a cognitive perspective attach great importance to prior linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge. Most authors agree that this relevance is due to the fact that prior knowledge makes it possible to "extract" the deep meaning of the source discourse and to facilitate inferential, predictive and anticipatory operations that would speed up the interpreting process (Díaz Galaz 2012: 112).

In the same vein, Pérez-Luzardo Díaz (2005) points out that every interpreter should not only possess solid lexical and semantic knowledge, but also cultural knowledge, knowledge of the world, encyclopaedic and background knowledge, as well as a firm interest in current affairs, in order to be able to contextualise the message and relate it to previously held knowledge. This premise emanates from a rather basic prerequisite which is the deep knowledge of the interpreting trainee's working languages. In this respect, Blasco Mayor (2007) also highlights the importance of having a good command of the working languages to have a better performance in interpreting courses. Interestingly, the author also links language proficiency to motivation as a key driver in the execution of complementary activities that could enhance the students' linguistic performance (*Ibid.*).

This general knowledge, which interpreters are presumed to have *per se* as a natural consequence of their experience, training and contact with the world, must be underpinned by preparation prior to any interpreting assignment. Moser-Mercer (1992) defines this preparatory process as continuous and constantly evolving, usually beginning some time before the interpreting assignment and lasting until the very moments before the assignment begins. This is partly in line with the interpreting model suggested later by Kalina (2002), which in turn drew on earlier precepts expressed by Gile (1985, 1986), whereby every interpreting act can be divided into four stages (pre-process, in-process, peri-process, and post-process), and wherein preparation is always present.

This emphasis on advance preparation must therefore be a constant in the interpreting classroom. Students must grasp the fact that it is only by acquiring a thorough understanding of the environment in which a given event is taking place, and of its terminological and conceptual particularities, that it will be possible to produce a good quality interpretation. Bearing in mind that prior preparation might be regarded as a complex process which entails a series of interwoven sub-phases, glossaries acquire special relevance as a compilation element in the phase of terminological and documentary research.

2. Didactics of interpreting and its relation to glossary preparation

Interpreter training cannot turn its back on teaching methodologies that go beyond the structured setting of the classroom in today's increasingly virtualised teaching scenario. In spite of the fact that it seems plausible to believe that little has changed when it comes to teaching at the university level (Nouri 2016), a series of innovative trends has been increasingly opening space in university systems over the last decades. Such is the case of the flipped-classroom methodology. Although few studies have been carried out in this area in the field of translation and interpreting, Huynh/Nguyen (2019: 1100) identify this trend and attempt to analyse its application in the context of the interpreting classroom, on the basis that the "flipped classroom is viewed as a unique pedagogical approach, in which the roles of classroom activities and homework are reversed".

Huynh/Nguyen (*Ibid.*) base their study on Kong's (2014) categorisation of this teaching modality, and the three stages he sets out that structure the process of reversing the traditional classroom: pre-class preparation, in-class activities and post-class consolidation. It is this last stage that is of most interest to our study, since it is the moment when the authors introduce the development of glossaries in the organisational scheme of their flipped classroom. Although Huynh and Nguyen do not specify the intention behind creating glossaries after an individual interpretation, they do argue that this terminological tool should be present in the organisational scheme, and that it is useful for compiling part of the practical work carried out by students in the flipped classroom setting.

In other words, it highlights the importance of prior preparation as an element of the interpreters' behaviour during both their training and their professional practice (Díaz Galaz 2011); as well as the importance of glossaries as a relevant, if not indispensable, component in the professional practice of interpreting (Jiang 2013).

Conscientious conference preparation is a skill that can be learnt, but often remains untaught (Luccarelli 2006). University programmes in interpreting usually offer trainees an initial theoretical basis which may be deemed necessary to understand the essential basics of interpretation, as well as a brief introduction not only to preparation, but also to glossary creation. But perhaps, it may seem insufficient. In this sense, Luccarelli (*Ibid.*) states that students in conference interpreting courses are not usually given the opportunity to become familiar with preparation methodologies while practising, and it is only as professional interpreters that they really master the preparation technique. This is because trainees have scant knowledge about conference settings and little access to dummy booths, which is undoubtedly the most realistic practice setting for students. Therefore, it would be safe to assume that given this context, for trainees, preparation simply means practice, the acquisition of new vocabulary and the expansion of general knowledge (Luccarelli 2006). In addition, internship opportunities are limited (Li 2015), which makes it even more difficult to become familiar with real-life interpreting settings. To tackle this, one example of good practice deserving of mention is the proposal put forward by Crezee *et al.* (2015), designed for a specific interpreting context but that could be extrapolated to general interpreting practice. Their training proposal for interpreters who wish to enter the healthcare field focuses on the acquisition of theoretical knowledge of terminology and potential work scenarios; a theoretical-practical introduction to the professional code of conduct; and finally, a look at real-life interpretation contexts using media such as videos.

> Watching video clips will serve to give student interpreters the feeling of being 'right there' in the hospital room. This simulated presence in the healthcare setting may help give student interpreters the feeling that they are being induced into the community of practice of practicing healthcare interpreters [...]. Once they are practicing interpreters, they will repeat this experience in real life, and this will consolidate their knowledge of healthcare settings, allowing them to develop as healthcare interpreters (Crezee *et al.* 2015: 8).

This practical approach to teaching interpreting is underpinned by the importance that the authors give to glossaries in their handbook, as a tool for the complete and successful performance of the interpreter.

This is further explored in a practical simulated model analysed by Conde/Couch (2019) based on exposing trainees to "mini conferences" or "mock conferences" in order to experience the essentials of real interpreting situations. The outcome of their research shed light on how useful students often find effective terminological preparation when facing a new interpreting task.

> [...] students started to reflect on practical aspects of professional practice, such as which tools to bring into the booth and how to use them, as highlighted by respondent 9: "I think I need to prepare the glossary well in advance. I need to tune the channels and I need to give the message in simple language" (Conde/Couch 2019: 11).

These activities may be regarded as a way of helping students understand the real relevance of the individual skills they are taught within the interpreting classroom – preparation, collaboration, etc., because, as stated by Conde/Couch (2019: 3), "students no longer behave as students, but as practitioners".

3. Glossaries in the interpreting classroom

Interpreter trainers often point out the importance of preparing for a conference (Chang *et al.* 2018). Díaz Galaz (2011) states that many authors agree that any preparation should start before the conference, with the study of conference materials (e.g. programmes, written speeches or presentations) and documentation related to the topic, the compilation of notes on both known and unfamiliar concepts, the exchange of terminology with specialists and other interpreters, and finally, the compilation of a glossary containing information that is relevant to the interpreter.

Gile (2009) argues that interpreters tend to take on a more generalist profile. This is especially so when they work as freelancers (Chang *et al.* 2018), as they have to deal with a wide variety of topics. However, Gile (1985, 1986) also argues that terminological units are defined by the sociolinguistic aspects of specialised communication. In this vein, García de Quesada (2007) states that such units are also influenced by the conditions of production of each speech. For all these reasons, it seems logical that the preparation process of any interpreter before tackling an assignment must be thorough and methodical, since the success of this process may determine the quality of their subsequent performance.

The above statements serve as a starting point for the analysis of glossaries not only from a professional but also from an academic and didactic perspective, which is the main focus of this paper. Despite their importance, Interpreting Studies have often reduced the relevance of glossaries to a mere list of words containing mainly terms related to the subject of the conference in question (Jiang 2013), which is a very reductionist approach to the importance of this tool. This is confirmed by Díaz-Galaz *et al.* (2015), who define glossaries as the final product of the interpreter's preparation, in which specialised terms and their equivalents in the target language are collated. García de Quesada / Montero Martínez (2003) defend a cognitive paradigm of documentation and terminological acquisition, in which the mere compilation of equivalents prior to interpreting is not enough.

Preparation must be a central element in the training of conference interpreters, and subsequently, glossaries must play a central role as the tangible outcome of that preparation. That is because it represents the final product, containing not only the terminological research on the subject, as suggested by Díaz-Galaz *et al.* (*Ibid*.), but also the conference theme preparation in the form of parallel content extracted from various sources (literature, speeches, videos, etc.). The interpreter trainer, in turn, must be aware of this fact, and must be able to convey and demonstrate the importance and usefulness of this terminological tool to their students.

Along these same lines, Caburlotto/Cecco (2015) state in their conclusions that including glossary preparation in the syllabus of different interpreting courses should neither be regarded as a waste of time nor a task that should be autonomously performed by the trainee. Instead, the authors suggest that glossary preparation be taught, discussed, and shared in order to have a fruitful outcome – not doing so may undermine the real relevance this tool has within academic and professional practice.

4. Methodology

4.1 Design of the study

The three aims of our study are: to determine the way glossaries are used in the interpreting classroom; to elucidate the structure and content of this terminological tool; and finally to identify the degree of importance that trainees attach to glossary preparation. Bearing this in mind, a questionnaire was designed, consisting mainly of closed-ended multiple-choice and, to a lesser extent, open-ended questions, focusing on the use of glossaries in the interpreting classroom environment.

The aim was to determine firstly the students' definition of the term "glossary", identifying, at the same time, the origin of this conceptualisation and the direct and indirect presence of this terminology compilation tool in interpreting, documentation, terminology and translation courses. Likewise, it was necessary to determine the practical usefulness that students see in this tool. For this section, multiple-choice questions were used.

Subsequently, two multiple-choice questions were asked to determine how frequently the students prepared glossaries, firstly in their work in translation courses, which are generally taught earlier on in the curricula, and then in interpreting courses.

Finally, students were asked about the structure of their glossaries in practice. The questions did not only refer to the format of the tool, but also to the elements the students deemed necessary to include. Similarly, the questionnaire sought to elicit a personal assessment from each of the respondents of the need for specific training in glossary preparation and the way in which such training should be provided.

The final control questions posed at the end of the questionnaire, as suggested by Dörnyei/Taguchi (2010), aim not only to provide a general profile of the participating students, but also to determine the average level attained by the respondents in their most recent courses in their first foreign language (English in all cases), which is referred to as B language in the corresponding curricula. However, it is important to note that this definition is not the same as AIIC's classification of foreign language ability. For the purposes of this study, a "B language" will refer to the students' first foreign language, while a "C language" will refer to their second foreign language (French, German, or both). The "A language" is Spanish in all cases.

4.2 Description of the sample

The total sample is N=135 students: 25 are students of Translation and Interpreting at VIU and the rest are from the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting at ULPGC. All the students that participated in the study were enrolled in the corresponding BA programmes at their universities, where no specialisation is offered in either specifically Translation or Interpreting Studies[1]. At VIU, students begin Interpreting Studies with a first course in the first semester of the third year that is eminently theoretical, followed by two courses in consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting in the third and fourth year respectively. At this university, students are not offered the chance to practise interpreting

1 It is worth noting that, unlike the common practice in other EU universities, where BA programmes last three years followed by a two-year MA programme aimed at specialisation either in interpreting or translation, in Spain BA programmes last four years, often followed by a one-year MA programme.

with their C language, nor are there any optional subjects related to interpreting. ULPGC, on the other hand, offers two compulsory courses in consecutive interpreting B/A during both semesters of the third year, plus two compulsory semester-long courses in simultaneous interpreting in the fourth year, together with another compulsory consecutive C/A interpreting course. In addition, the programme offers an optional course in consecutive and liaison interpreting C/A and a course in simultaneous interpreting C/A. In all cases, students mainly interpret from their B or C languages to their A language, although vice versa exercises are often planned in all courses, especially in those focused on the practice of bilateral interpretation.

In addition to the BA programmes in translation and interpreting with one B language (English) and one C language (with German or French as the only options), ULPGC also offers the possibility of taking a dual BA programme that allows students to specialise in one B language (English) and two C languages (German and French), as well as a second dual programme in translation and interpreting combined with Tourism Studies. Both options last five years, with consecutive interpreting courses being taught in the fourth year and simultaneous interpreting courses in the fifth year. In both cases, students are familiar with documentation and terminology management, as courses on both topics are taught before students start their interpreting courses. Likewise, students are taught introductory translation courses before interpreting, and several specialised translation courses occur simultaneously while interpreting courses are in progress.

A total of 105 of the survey participants are women (78%). Although there is a notable disparity in the number of students from VIU compared to students from ULPGC, for the purposes of our study, all subjects will be treated as a single sample, as the origin of the respondents is not relevant to this work, given that the corresponding curricula and programmes have been compared and no significant differences have been identified in terms of content or teaching methodologies. The survey was conducted in the final stretch of the academic year 2020/2021 in order to ensure that students would have had the opportunity at that time to have worked on glossary preparation, not only in subjects related to translation and documentation, but also to interpreting.

All respondents had taken at least one course in interpreting, as well as in translation, terminology and documentation, as outlined in the curricula of both universities.

After requesting permission both from the Dean's Office of the Translation and Interpreting Programme at ULPGC, and from the Director of the Degree in Translation and Interpreting at VIU, third, fourth and fifth-year students were asked to complete the questionnaire, which was accessible via a link provided both by e-mail and through the Virtual Campus in the case of ULPGC. Third-year students participated the most, representing 58% of the sample.

5. Results and discussion

In order to facilitate the explanation of the percentages obtained, the figures will be analysed according to the thematic blocks into which the questionnaire was divided, and will be rounded up to the next whole number. As far as the first block on the conceptualisation of the term "glossary" is concerned, which is expressed in Table 1, 55% of respondents (74 subjects) agreed that the most accurate description was that of a "compilation of terms in the form of a list in two languages with their definition, examples and other elements". This is in contrast with the other three options, which achieved considerably lower percentages (9%, 16% and 24% respectively).

Conceptualisation of the term "glossary"	n	%
Compilation of terms in the form of a list in two languages	12	9
Compilation of terms in the form of a list in two languages with definition	22	16
Compilation of terms in the form of a list in two languages with their definition and examples.	32	24
Compilation of terms in the form of a list in two languages with their definition, examples and other elements.	74	55

Table 1. Conceptualisation of the term "glossary".

Interestingly, almost an equal percentage of all 135 students surveyed, attributed their understanding of glossaries to the explanations provided by their trainers – 43% (58 subjects) from translation course teachers and 42% (56 subjects) from interpreting course teachers, as shown in Table 2 below. However, it is worth noting that 37% of respondents stated that their understanding of glossaries was the result of independent work based on materials provided by the teachers and then put into practice in the classroom. This point is of particular interest as it shows that the introduction of the flipped classroom modality in the field of translation, and especially interpreting, is a reality that is gaining ground, as Huynh/Nguyen (2019) have observed.

Origin of the conceptualisation of the term "glossary"	n	%
Concept prior to the translation and interpreting studies.	16	12
Explanation provided by translation trainers or through exercises.	58	43
Explanation provided by interpreting trainers or through exercises.	56	42
Concept tackled autonomously using materials provided by the teacher and then put into practice in the classroom.	50	37

Table 2. Origin of the conceptualisation of the term "glossary".

With regard to the usefulness of glossaries, which is summarised in Table 3, it is significant that a similar number of subjects concluded that this tool brings together the entire documentation phase prior to an assignment in both translation (62%, 83 respondents) and interpreting (66%, 89 respondents) classes. This corresponds directly to the definition offered by Díaz-Galaz *et al.* (2015), who described glossaries as the final product of the interpreter's preparation.

Usefulness of glossaries

	Translation classroom		Interpreting classroom	
	n	%	n	%
Compilation of terms for a specific assignment.	43	32	59	44
Compilation of terms as a personal dictionary.	87	64	50	37
The glossary is regarded as an optional tool.	5	4	13	10
The glossary is regarded as a tool that covers the entire documentation phase prior to an assignment.	83	62	89	66
The glossary is regarded as useless in this field.	1	1	0	0

Table 3. Usefulness of glossaries.

In the same block, students were asked if they had received training (directly or indirectly) and/or practical sessions in their translation, documentation, interpreting, or terminology courses, on glossary creation and its further application in course assignments. Although the responses received were largely as predicted, it is worth looking at them in detail. A similar number of respondents claimed to have received such training in all courses: 80% (108 subjects) in translation; 76% (103 subjects) in interpreting; and 74% (100 subjects) in terminology. However, it is striking that half of the respondents (50%, 67 subjects) claim not to have received any training or practice in glossary preparation in the documentation class. This figure may be justified by the fact that documentation is taught in both universities in the first year, and is presented, as described in the course description at ULPGC, as a "basic cross-cutting course, which ensures the competencies that enable the mastery of search mechanisms and the development of terminological repertoires which are essential in the work of translation and interpreting". It can therefore be inferred from the responses obtained that the pedagogical approach focuses more on the mastery of these search mechanisms to find the appropriate terminology than on the development of tools such as glossaries.

The second block dealt with frequency in the use of glossaries in translation and interpreting classes. The questions included in this segment offered multiple-choice responses, as it was our understanding that the circumstances that occur in the classroom throughout the year can lead to different responses, given the increasing level of expertise that students gain throughout the course. A good number of respondents agreed that for both translation (50%, 68 subjects) and interpreting (42%, 56 subjects), glossaries are only created in the event that the topic involves a certain level of challenge in terminological or thematic aspects, as shown in Table 4. The other possible responses made reference to the demands of the teacher, the scarcity of time available, or the perception that glossaries are not a useful tool. These figures are particularly revealing as they show that students see glossary preparation as a task that does not have to be carried out consistently and systematically for each and every assignment. In fact, as illustrated in Table 4, a considerable proportion of those surveyed in the area of translation (33%, 44 subjects) and interpreting (29%, 39 subjects) stated that they only produce glossaries if required to by the teacher, as they have little time available. These percentages suggest that, despite the fact that the number of students who claim to make glossaries for each assignment, whether required to by the teacher or not, is relatively high – 29% (39 subjects) in translation and 34% (46 subjects) in interpreting, perhaps many do not use this terminology tool on a regular basis, because the course demands at the time when interpreting and translation subjects are taught (from years three to five) are greater than in the first two years, and students cannot afford the time required to produce them. This difference in the percentage of students who always prepare glossaries in translation and interpreting classrooms, although minor, may reveal a greater prevalence of glossary use in interpreting courses than in translation courses, as well as a greater emphasis on the use of this tool by interpreting trainers.

Glossaries in the translation and interpreting classroom

	Translation classroom		Interpreting classroom	
	n	%	n	%
I always make glossaries, whether it is a requirement or not.	39	29	46	34
I only make glossaries if I consider the topic to be complex.	68	50	56	42
I only make glossaries if requested by the trainer; the time we have is scarce.	44	33	39	29
I only make glossaries if requested by the trainer; I do not find glossaries useful.	5	4	5	4

Table 4. Glossaries in the translation and interpreting classroom.

The third and final section focuses on the formal structure of the glossary used in the translation and interpreting classroom environment. The results are displayed in Table 5. Firstly, it is necessary to point out the low percentage of students that use specific applications – such as Interplex, InterpretBank, Interpreter's Help, Intragloss, and Terminus (Prandi 2020) – to create their own glossaries: only 6% (8 subjects) in interpreting and 10% (13 subjects) in translation, compared to the widespread use of Word (65%, 88 subjects in translation and 63%, 85 subjects in interpreting) and Excel (55%, 74 subjects, and 47%, 63 subjects, respectively). These figures suggest that specific applications for glossary creation occupy a limited space in the field of translator and interpreter training. Teachers may consider encouraging their students in this regard by using specific applications during their in-class preparation tasks.

Tools or formats used for glossary preparation

	Translation glossaries		Interpreting glossaries	
	n	%	n	%
Word	88	65	85	63
Excel	74	55	63	47
PDF	12	9	9	7
Paper cards	19	14	25	19
Notepad	9	7	14	10
Glossary management apps	13	10	8	6

Table 5. Tools or formats used for glossary preparation.

This third block also contains two open-ended questions that allow for a wider range of responses and to discover the extent to which glossary preparation is examined in each subject. The range of responses obtained from the students was divided into nine general categories. These categories were then analysed as nine unique response options, the statistical analysis of which yielded the results presented here. The possible responses for the question regarding the content of each respondent's glossary included such essential elements as: the term in language A; the corresponding term in language B (as stated by 100% of respondents); the definition of the term (79%, 106 subjects); and the use of the term (49%, 66 subjects). Respondents were then asked to indicate the elements they considered to be useful in glossaries for interpreting practice. It is striking that the variables "context" and "examples", which are essential for understanding not only the term in question but also the content of the event or practice itself, were of interest to only 29% of respondents (39 subjects). This suggests that most respondents do not perceive the terminological search for an assignment as part of an interwoven whole in which the context is of vital importance to achieve a high degree of immersion in the subject matter in question. Instead, such terminology research is isolated and disjointed, detached from the particularities of the assignment and the specificities of the subject being addressed, which may result, *a posteriori*, in poor or incomplete preparation.

The marks obtained by students in previous English courses might serve as a reliable indicator of how students would cope with new challenges in translation and interpreting courses, such as glossary preparation. In their most recent English course, 59% (79 subjects) of respondents obtained a B grade and 30% (40 subjects) an A or A+[2]. When asked about glossary use, 29% (23 subjects out of a total of

2 The Spanish grading system at university level is based on a numeric scale ranging from 10 (maximum score) to 0. Such scores are distributed in the following manner:

79) of students who achieved a B confirmed that they always used them, regardless of whether or not they were required to by the teacher. In contrast, 40% of students who had obtained an A or A+ (16 subjects out of 40) selected this same answer.

It is worth highlighting the degree of students' commitment to the preparation of glossaries for every assignment, regardless of the teacher's demands, in different age ranges, as shown in Table 6.

Age Group	Total of subjects in this age group		Total of subjects of each age group who always prepare glossaries, whether it is required or not	
	n	%	n	%
20-21	77	57	25	32
22-23	28	21	10	36
24-25	4	3	0	0
>25	26	19	11	42

Table 6. Comparison between the age of the subjects and the number of students who always make glossaries, regardless of whether it is required by the teacher or not.

The data contained in the previous table reveal a clear upward trend through the rising age groups, with a difference of almost ten percentage points between the youngest and oldest groups. Thus, it can be concluded that the older the student, the greater the degree of maturity, and the clearer understanding they have of the need to systematically develop glossaries in their interpreting practice. This degree of maturity is once again reflected when respondents were asked to rate the need for specific glossary training in interpreting subjects, from zero to five (five being "absolutely necessary"), as shown in Table 7.

Age Group	Total of subjects in this age group		Number of subjects of each age group rating 5 with regard to the need for glossary training	
	n	%	n	%
20-21	77	57	42	55
22-23	28	21	19	68
24-25	4	3	1	25
>25	26	19	18	69

Table 7. Comparison between the age of the subjects and the number of students who rate the need for glossary training with a maximum score.

A+ (10-9, granted at the teacher's discretion), A (10-9, if A+ is not granted), B (8,9-7), C (6.9-5), D (4.9-0, which means the student did not pass the course or test in question).

As can be seen in Table 7, the older subjects again show a higher response to the need for specific training, with a difference of almost 15 percentage points compared to the younger group. This shows that, as well as being the group that produces the most glossaries in their interpreting practice, students over 25 are at the same time the most interested in acquiring the skills required to master a technique they consider necessary for their future professional careers as interpreters.

6. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to examine three different questions: how glossaries are used in the interpreting classroom; how the glossaries produced by students are structured; and finally, what importance students attach to glossaries as a preparation tool. Despite being limited to the setting of two universities where the teaching of interpreting follows similar patterns, the data obtained allow us to create a fairly accurate image of the attention awarded to glossaries in interpreter training.

The results show that, for the most part, students use glossaries as an additional tool which only acquires relevance on those occasions when the topic being dealt with poses a challenge in terms of terminology. It can be inferred, therefore, that the students have not assimilated the necessity and convenience of developing a system of documentation and continuous preparation during their training, which will be useful later on when they enter the labour market, where preparation is without a doubt essential for achieving the highest quality interpretation.

Students see glossaries as a mere collection of terminology with definitions that do not directly connect with the context that surrounds any communicative act that will be interpreted. Encyclopaedic knowledge and knowledge of the world in general are certainly necessary in the daily work of any interpreter, but this must be firmly backed up by specific knowledge that places the interpreter within the context where the communicative act is taking place. Not being familiar with this context places the interpreter at a clear disadvantage and may even compromise the outcome of the event. On the other hand, solid, comprehensive, and thorough preparation can ensure that the interpreter is aligned with the speaker and thus produces a more natural and precise interpretation. The glossary, as a unifying element of thematic (context) and linguistic content, is the most important tool for achieving this quality outcome, and this is the message that should be transmitted to students by their trainers.

Although the analysis of the curricula of the programmes studied show that glossaries are repeatedly addressed in different courses in the fields of translation, documentation, terminology and interpreting, during students' training, it is not clear to what extent trainers highlight the relevance and ultimate usefulness of this terminological tool, especially in the field of interpreting. Perhaps the advent of alternative methodologies such as blended learning, which promotes a more autonomous way of learning, will favour the understanding of the usefulness of glossaries as an ally for interpreters, insofar as trainers may recreate more real-life activities that would require autonomous prior preparation on the part of the student, as noted by Huynh/Nguyen (2019). This is something that can certainly be further explored in the future.

References

Alexieva B. (1985) "Semantic analysis of the text in simultaneous interpreting", in H. Bühler (ed.) *Translators and their Position in Society: Proceedings of the Xth World Congress of FIT*, Wilhelm Braumüller, 195-19.

Bendazzoli C. (2010) *Testi e contesti dell'interpretazione di conferenza. Uno studio etnografico*, Bologna, Asterisco.

Blasco Mayor M. J. (2007) *La comprensión oral en el desarrollo de la pericia de la interpretación de conferencias*, Granada, Comares.

Chang C. / Wu M. M. / Kuo T. G. (2018) "Conference interpreting and knowledge acquisition: how professional interpreters tackle unfamiliar topics", *Interpreting* 20/2, 204-231, <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.00010.cha>.

Caburlotto C. / Cecco S. (2015) "Didattica della traduzione e ricerca terminologica: il glossario come valido strumento" (in English, "Didactics of translation and terminological research: the glossary as a valid instrument"), *Rivista internazionale di tecnica della traduzione* 16, 35-56, <https://doi.org/10.13137/1722-5906/11203>.

Conde J. M. / Chouc F. (2019) "Multilingual mock conferences: a valuable tool in the training of conference interpreters", *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 24, 1-17, <https://doi.org/10.13137/2421-714X/29521>.

Corpas Pastor G. (2021) "Technology solutions for interpreters: the VIP system", *Hermeneus. Revista de Traducción e Interpretación*, 23, <https://doi.org/10.24197/her.23.2021.91-123>.

Crezee I. / Mikkelson H. / Monzon-Storey L. (2015) *Introduction to Healthcare for Spanish-speaking Interpreters and Translators*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, <https://doi.org/10.1075/z.193>.

Defrancq B. / Fantinuoli C. (2021) "Automatic speech recognition in the booth. Assessment of system performance, interpreters' performances and interactions in the context of numbers", *Target* 33/1, <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.19166.def>.

Díaz Galaz S. (2011) "The effect of previous preparation in simultaneous interpreting: preliminary results", *Across Languages and Cultures* 12/2, 173-191, <https://doi.org/10.1556/Acr.12.2011.2.3>.

Díaz Galaz S. (2012) *La influencia del conocimiento previo en la interpretación simultánea de discursos especializados: un estudio empírico* (in English, "The influence of advance knowledge in the simultaneous interpretation of specialised speeches"), published doctoral dissertation, Universidad de Granada, <http://hdl.handle.net/10481/23752>.

Díaz-Galaz S. / Padilla P. / Bajo M. T. (2015) "The role of advance preparation in simultaneous interpreting: a comparison of professional interpreters and interpreting students", *Interpreting* 17/1, 1-25, <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.17.1.01dia>.

Dörnyei Z. / Taguchi T. (2003/2010) *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing*, New York, Routledge.

Fantinuoli C. (2017) "Computer-assisted preparation in conference interpreting", *Translation & Interpreting* 9/2, 24-37, <http://www.trans-int.org/index.php/transint/article/view/565>.

Fantinuoli C. (2018) *Interpreting and Technology* (Translation and Multilingual Natural Language Processing 11). Berlin, Language Science Press.

Gaber M. / Corpas Pastor G. / Omer A. (2020) "Speech-to-text technology as a documentation tool for interpreters: a new approach to compiling an ad hoc corpus and extracting terminology from video-recorded speeches", *Trans: Revista de Traductología* 24, 263-281.

García de Quesada M. (2007) "La incidencia del parámetro terminología" (in English, "The incidence of the terminology parameter"), in Á. Collados Aís / E. M. Pradas Macías / E. Stévaux / O. García Becerra (eds) *La evaluación de la calidad en interpretación simultánea: parámetros de incidencia*, Granada, Comares, 123-140.

García de Quesada M. / Montero Martínez S. (2003) "Documentación y adquisición terminográficas basadas en el conocimiento: El caso de la interpretación" (in English, "Documentation and terminographic acquisition based on knowledge: the case of interpreting"), *Hermeneus* 5, 107-130, <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=809503>.

Gile D. (1985) "Les termes techniques en interprétation simultanée", *Meta* 30/3, 199-210, <https://doi.org/10.7202/002891ar>.

Gile D. (1986) "Le travail terminologique en interprétation de conférence", *Multilingua* 5/1, 31-36, <https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.1986.5.1.31>.

Gile D. (2009) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training* (rev. ed.), Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins.

Huynh T.L. / Nguyen U. T. (2019) "Students' perceptions and design considerations of flipped interpreting classroom", *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 9/9, 1100-1110.

Jiang H. (2013) "The interpreter's glossary in simultaneous interpreting: a survey", *Interpreting* 15/1, 74-93, <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.15.1.04jia>.

Jiang H. (2015) "A survey of glossary practice of conference interpreters", <https://aiic.org/document/950/AIICWebzine__2015__Issue66__5__JIANG__A__survey__of__glossary__practice__of__conference__interpreters__EN.pdf>.

Kalina S. (2002) "Quality in interpreting and its prerequisites – a framework for a comprehensive view", in G. Garzone / M. Viezzi (eds) *Interpreting in the 21st Century: Challenges and Opportunities*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 121-130.

Kong S. C. (2014) "Developing information literacy and critical thinking skills through domain knowledge learning in digital classrooms: an experience of practicing flipped classroom strategy", *Computers & Education* 78, 160-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2014.05.009>.

Li X. (2015) "Mock conference as a situated learning activity in interpreter training: a case study of its design and effect as perceived by trainee interpreters", *Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 9/3, 323–341.

Luccarelli L. (2006) "Conference preparation: What it is and how it could be taught", *Conference Interpretation and Translation* 8/1, 3-26, <https://www.kci.go.kr/kciportal/ci/sereArticleSearch/ciSereArtiView.kci?sereArticleSearchBean.artiId=ART001016349>.

Moser-Mercer B. (1992) "Terminology documentation in conference interpretation", *Terminology Et Traduction* 2/3, 285-303.

Nouri J. (2016) "The flipped classroom: for active, effective and increased learning – especially for low achievers", *Revista de Universidad y Sociedad del Conocimiento* 13/1, 1-10, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-016-0032-z>.

Padilla Benítez P. (1998) "Hacia un modelo de memoria y atención en interpretación simultánea" (in English, "Towards a memory and attention model in simultaneous interpreting"), *Quaderns: Revista de Traducció* 2, 107-117, <https://raco.cat/index.php/QuadernsTraduccio/article/view/25167>.

Pérez-Luzardo Díaz J. (2005) *Didáctica de la interpretación simultánea* (in English, "Didactics of simultaneous interpreting"), published doctoral dissertation, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria. AccedaCRIS, <https://accedacris.ulpgc.es/bitstream/10553/1993/1/257.pdf>.

Pérez-Pérez Pablo S. (2018) "The use of a corpus management tool for the preparation of interpreting assignments: a case study", *Translation and Interpreting: The International Journal of Translation and Interpreting Research* 10/1, 137-151, <http://dx.doi.org/10.12807/ti.110201.2018.a08>.

Pöchhacker F. (1992) "The role of theory in simultaneous interpreting", in C. Dollerup / A. Loddegaard (eds) *Teaching Translation and Interpreting: Training, Talent and Experience. Papers from the First Language International Conference*, Elsinore, Denmark, 31 May–2 June 1991, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 211-220.

Pöchhacker F. (2015) *Routledge Encyclopedia of Interpreting Studies*, London, Routledge.

Prandi B. (2020) "The use of CAI tools in interpreting training: where are we now going and where do we go from here?", *Technology in Interpreter Education and Practice*, Special Issue of *inTRAlinea*, <https://www.intralinea.org/specials/article/2512>.

Contributors

Magdalena Bartłomiejczyk holds a PhD (2004) and a post-doctoral degree (2017) in linguistics. She is a professor at the University of Silesia in Katowice, where she teaches conference interpreting and is responsible for diploma seminars in Translation Studies. Currently, she is staying as a visiting researcher at the University of Vienna. Her scholarly interests include interpreting studies, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and the newest developments in the Polish language. She has recently mainly been focusing on various aspects of simultaneous interpreting in the European Parliament. Since 2002, she has authored over 40 publications, including articles in highly reputable journals such as Interpreting, the Interpreter and Translator Trainer, Perspectives, Target as well as a book on interpreting face-threatening statements in parliamentary discourse.
e-mail address: magdalena.bartlomiejczyk@us.edu.pl
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6645-1849

Bachir Mahyub Rayaa is Lecturer in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Granada, where he obtained his PhD in Interpreting Studies in 2015. From 2007 to 2013 he worked as a lecturer and researcher at the Toledo School of Translators, University of Castilla-La Mancha, Spain. His work is focused on Translation and Interpreting from/to Arabic, as well as Arabic Language and Culture Studies, and is committed to collaboration in research and interpreters training. He is currently a member of the ECIS-Quality Evaluation in Simultaneous Interpreting research group and has participated in several national and international

research projects, international conferences and symposia. He is also a freelance interpreter for Arabic, Spanish, English and Italian.
e-mail address: bachirmr@ugr.es
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5400-5374

Anne Martin has a B.A. (Hons) Languages (Translation and Interpreting) from Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh, U.K., and a PhD in Translation and Interpreting from the University of Granada, Spain. She is an interpreter trainer and senior lecturer at the University of Granada, where she was Coordinator of the Master's Programme in Conference Interpreting from 2013-2017. She is a member of the GRETI Research Group (Interpreting and the Challenges of Globalisation: Training and Professional Practice) funded by the Andalusian Regional Government. Her research focuses on interpreting and ideology. She is a practising conference interpreter and member of AICE (Spanish Professional Association of Conference Interpreters).
e-mail address: anne@ugr.es
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8670-8664

Federica Ceccoli is a Research Fellow at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia and an Adjunct Professor at the University of Bologna. Her academic research focuses on Public Service Interpreting, Non-Professional Interpreting, and Child Language Brokering. She is also a freelance interpreter and translator.
e-mail address: federica.ceccoli3@unibo.it

Ira Torresi is Associate Professor of English at the Department of Interpreting and Translation of the University of Bologna (Forlì campus), where she teaches dialogue and conference interpreting, and is the current coordinator of the Master's programme in Interpreting. She is one of the founding members of In MedIO PUER(I), the first Italian research group to focus on Child Language Brokering (CLB), and has published extensively in the field: https://www.unibo.it/sitoweb/ira.torresi/publications.
e-mail address: ira.torresi@unibo.it

Nicoletta Spinolo is an assistant professor at the Department of Interpreting and Translation of the University of Bologna. Her academic activity (research and teaching) focuses on interpreting between Italian and Spanish, on technologies and methods, remote, distance and computer-assisted interpreting and interpreter training. Together with Agnieszka Chmiel, she is a co-PI in the *Inside the Virtual Booth* project, funded by AIIC with the first AIIC Research grant, on the impact of remote interpreting settings on interpreter experience and performance.
e-mail address: nicoletta.spinolo@unibo.it
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5515-1389

Christian Olalla-Soler is a post-doc researcher at the Department of Interpreting and Translation of the University of Bologna. He completed a PhD in Translation and Intercultural Studies at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain.

His main research interests are: translation and cognition, bibliometrics, and translator and interpreter training. Olalla-Soler has taught several courses on translation and interpreting theories, specialised translation, and terminology. He is a member of the TREC network, of the European Society for Translation Studies, and of the Iberian Association for Translation and Interpreting Studies.
e-mail address: christian.olalla@unibo.it
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9251-476X

Ricardo Muñoz Martín has been an intermittent freelance translator since 1987, ATA certified for English-Spanish in 1991. He studied at the universities of Valencia and Granada (Spain), Nottingham (UK), Ludwig Maximilian (Munich, Germany), and UC Santa Barbara (CA), before he was granted a PhD from UC Berkeley in 1993. Muñoz lectured at several American and Spanish universities before he joined the Department of Interpreting & Translation of the University of Bologna, Italy. Muñoz coordinates the MC2 Lab, an international research hub devoted to the empirical research of multilectal mediated communication & cognition from cognitive-situated frameworks. As a visiting scholar or guest speaker, he has travelled widely in Europe, North and Latin America and China. Muñoz is a member of the TREC and HAL networks and co-founder and co-editor of the journal *Translation, Cognition & Behavior*. Further information: Unibo page, ORCID, G Scholar, and some publications.
e-mail address: ricardo.munoz@unibo.it
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6049-9673

Agustín Darias Marrero is Professor of Translation and Interpreting in the French-Spanish language combination at the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (Spain). He also works as a conference interpreter and is a member of the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC). He holds a degree in French Philology, a European Master's degree in Conference Interpreting (EMCI) and a PhD in Translation and Interpreting. His research interests focus on various aspects of Translatology and Critical Discourse Analysis.
e-mail address: agustin.darias@ulpgc.es
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1309-1939

Clara León Delgado is a postgraduate student at the University of Strasbourg, France. She is currently studying in a master's degree in Conference Interpreting at the Institute of Translators, Interpreters, and International Relations (ITIRI). She holds a degree in Translation and Interpreting from the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain. Her working languages are Spanish, English and French.
e-mail address: clarald71@gmail.com

Mark Halley, PhD, NIC, CoreCHI™ is Assistant Professor of ASL/English Interpreting at the University of North Florida. He conducted his dissertation research in the Department of Interpretation and Translation at Gallaudet University in Washington, DC, where he studied the work of interpreters in the 1988 Deaf

President Now protest. His research agenda centers around a) contextualized role enactment of signed language interpreters in contentious political settings and b) the intersections of language and technology with interpreting practice and education. In addition to numerous articles published in peer-reviewed academic journals, he has presented at conferences in the United States, England, Italy, Poland, Scotland, the Netherlands, and Qatar. He has also been a certified interpreter in private practice since 2011 and works in community and video relay service settings. In his free time, he enjoys going to the gym (but not on leg day), walking his dog, Elio, and being a technophile.
e-mail address: mark.halley@unf.edu

David G. Phillips, MA, NIC is an ASL/English interpreter and adjunct instructor at the University of North Florida. He completed graduate studies in linguistics at Gallaudet University in 2019 and is currently pursuing the European Masters of Sign Language Interpreting. Research interests include presentation and perception of interpreters, languaging strategies, and interpreter education.
e-mail address: dgphillips27@gmail.com

Beneharo Álvarez-Pérez is a part-time lecturer of Translation and Interpreting at the Department of Modern Philology, Translation and Interpreting of the Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (Spain). In addition, he is a professional sworn translator and interpreter with more than 17 years of experience in different fields in both the public and private sectors. Beneharo holds a Master's degree in Conference Interpreting from the Catholic University of Paris (Cluny ISEIT), a Master's degree in Institutional Translation from the University of Alicante, and a Master's degree in Human Resources Management from the EAE Business School. He is currently working on his doctoral thesis under the supervision of Dr. Jessica Pérez-Luzardo Díaz in the field of interpreting.
e-mail address: beneharo.alvarez@ulpgc.es; beneharoap@gmail.com
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4916-882X

Jessica Pérez-Luzardo Díaz is a Senior Lecturer of Interpreting at the Department of Modern Philology, Translation and Interpreting of the Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (Spain). She received her Master's degree in conference interpreting at the University of La Laguna in 1997 and obtained her PhD in Translation Studies from the ULPGC in 2005 with a doctoral thesis on didactics of simultaneous interpreting. Her research focuses on interpreting pre-exercises, quality parameters in conference interpreting, and affective variables such as motivation, anxiety and self-concept in the interpreting learning process. She also works as a freelance translator and interpreter.
e-mail address: jessica.perezluzardo@ulpgc.es
Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2748-9892

CALL FOR PAPERS
THE INTERPRETERS' NEWSLETTER
ISSUE 28 (2023)

Editors: *Emanuele Brambilla* (University of Trieste) and *Nicoletta Spinolo* (University of Bologna)

Issue 28 of *The Interpreters' Newsletter* welcomes submissions that contribute to describing interpreting activity in all the situational contexts in which it is required, by using either traditional or innovative analytical methodologies.

Topics of interest

- Topics of interest include but are not limited to the following areas:
- The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on interpreting
- Remote interpreting practices and developments
- Interpreting didactics and training
- The role of interpreters throughout history
- Interpreting ethics
- Discourse analytical approaches to interpreting
- Corpus-based interpreting studies
- Artificial Intelligence and interpreting

Practical information and deadlines

Papers must be submitted in English or French and describe original research which is neither published nor currently under review by other journals or conferences. Submitted manuscripts will be subject to a process of double-blind peer review. Guidelines and the style sheet are available at https://www.openstarts.units.it/cris/journals/journals00005/journalsInfoAuthor.html. Manuscripts should be between 6,000 and 7,500 words long, including references, abstract (150-200 words) and keywords (5-10) and should be sent as Word attachments to interpretersnewsletter@units.it; Email subject: NL28 PAPER; File Name: author's name__NL28.

Manuscript submission:	30th March 2023
Results of peer-reviewing process:	30th June 2023
Publication:	December 2023