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CECÍLIA FRANCO MORAIS

USE OF STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH-BRAZILIAN PORTUGUESE SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING BY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS:

An exploratory study of the interpreting process

Uberlândia/MG
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ABSTRACT

This MA thesis aims at investigating the use of strategy in simultaneous interpreting by undergraduate translation students from a cognitive perspective. The specific objectives are: 1) to identify the most common strategy used by students, 2) to assess whether these strategies are related their cognitive effort, and 3) to assess whether these strategies are related to interpreting norms. This exploratory study with an experimental design had students from the Undergraduate Program in Translation of Universidade Federal de Uberlândia (Brazil) perform a 5'10"-long simultaneous interpreting task from English into Brazilian Portuguese. The interpreting sessions were audio-recorded, with their files containing both source and target speeches. The audio files were transcribed individually using software *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor* and displayed on a timeline (in milliseconds) with a multi-tier format. The analysis was built on an inter-textual comparison between the source speech and each target speech. The data were analyzed from a cognitive perspective, i.e., by analyzing both process and product (DONATO, 2003; GARZONE, 2002; GILE, 2009[1995]; KALINA, 2005; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2013, 2015; PÖCHHACKER, 2016; RICCARDI, 2005; SHLESINGER, 2000), with a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The qualitative analysis draws on Gile's (2009[1995]) Effort Models and on Toury's (2012[1995]) operational norms as applied to interpreting by Garzone (2002) and Gile (2009[1995]). The results indicate that the students employed tactics (GILE, 2009[1995]), not strategies. They also point out that: 1) the most frequently employed tactics were omission, chunking, morphosyntactic transformation and transcoding, 2) most of the tactics used can be related to participants' cognitive effort, and 3) most of the tactics can be related to interpreting norms. These findings contribute to understanding the simultaneous interpreting process in the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair, which remains unexplored in the literature. Additionally, they contribute to interpreter training and to Cognitive Translation and Interpreting Studies, especially those related to simultaneous interpreting.

KEYWORDS: Cognitive Translation and Interpreting Studies. Simultaneous Interpreting. Interpreting Strategies. Interpreting Norms.

RESUMO

Esta dissertação tem por objetivo investigar o uso de estratégias de interpretação simultânea por estudantes de graduação em tradução sob uma perspectiva cognitiva. Seus objetivos específicos são: (i) identificar as estratégias mais utilizadas por estudantes; (ii) verificar se o uso dessas estratégias está relacionado ao esforço cognitivo despendido por eles; e (iii) verificar se o uso dessas estratégias está relacionado a normas de interpretação. Neste estudo de caráter exploratório com um *design* experimental, estudantes do curso de Graduação em Tradução da Universidade Federal de Uberlândia realizaram uma tarefa de interpretação simultânea com duração de 5 minutos e 10 segundos, do inglês para o português brasileiro. As sessões foram gravadas em arquivos de áudio contendo texto-fonte e textos-alvo. Os arquivos foram transcritos individualmente por meio do *software EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor* e salvos em formato de linha do tempo (em milissegundos) com múltiplas linhas contendo as transcrições de cada texto, um abaixo do outro. A análise baseou-se em comparação entre o texto-fonte e cada um dos textos-alvo. Os dados foram analisados sob uma perspectiva cognitiva, isto é, por meio da análise tanto do processo quanto do produto da interpretação (DONATO, 2003; GARZONE, 2002; GILE, 2009[1995]; KALINA, 2005; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2013, 2015; PÖCHHACKER, 2016; RICCARDI, 2005; SHLESINGER, 2000), com uma combinação de abordagens quantitativa e qualitativa. A análise qualitativa baseou-se nos Modelos dos Esforços de Gile (2009[1995]) e nas normas operacionais de Toury (2012[1995]) aplicadas à interpretação por Gazone (2002) e Gile (2009[1995]). Os resultados indicam que os estudantes empregaram táticas (GILE, 2009[1995]), e não estratégias. Eles apontam ainda que: (i) as estratégias mais empregadas foram omissão, segmentação, transformação morfossintática e transcodificação; (ii) o uso das táticas está relacionado ao esforço cognitivo despendido pelos estudantes; e (iii) o uso das táticas está relacionado a normas de interpretação. Esses resultados contribuem para a compreensão do processo de interpretação simultânea no par linguístico inglês-português brasileiro, que ainda não foi descrito pela literatura. Além disso, também contribuem para o treinamento de intérpretes e para os Estudos Cognitivos da Tradução e da Interpretação, especialmente para aqueles relacionados à interpretação simultânea.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Estudos Cognitivos da Tradução e da Interpretação. Interpretação Simultânea. Estratégias de Interpretação. Normas de interpretação.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIIC	Association Internationale des Interprétes de Conférence (International Association of Conference Interpreters)
EVS	ear-voice-span
SOV	subject-object-verb
SS	source speech
SVO	subject-verb-object
TS	target speech
WPM	words per minute

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INTRODUCTION

Interpreting is a millennial practice. Its formal study, however, is relatively new, dating to the 1960s when it was predominantly performed by psychology scholars interested in this communication practice. Psychologists such as Gerver (1969) and Barik (1975) were intrigued by the act of speaking while listening as performed by simultaneous interpreters. Seminal investigations were also performed by interpreters, such as Seleskovitch (1968). After that, interpreting research has been drawing the attention of other interpreters, psychologists, and cognitive scholars, and several aspects of the interpreting act have been researched under different approaches and conceptual models (PÖCHHACKER, 2009).

The simultaneous – or, in Kirchhoff's words (2002, p. 111), "quasi-simultaneous at most" – act of listening to and analyzing the source speech, retrieving it in the memory and producing the target speech does not occur smoothly (GILE, 2009[1995]), as it may seem to the ordinary listener. It is a complex process, and several problem triggers (GILE, 2009 [1995]) may appear.

The author of this MA thesis analyzed some of these problem triggers in an exploratory study carried out for her senior thesis at the end of her Undergraduate Program in Translation at Universidade Federal de Uberlândia (MORAIS, 2018). Its main objective was to analyze the role that domain knowledge plays on simultaneous interpreting tasks. The analysis identified, as a byproduct, that omissions and additions were sometimes used as an aid to deal with the interpreting task. The study concluded that there was a need for further research on strategies that helped the participants overcome problems. This was the motivation for this MA thesis, which further explores the data collected for the study first reported in Morais (2018).

The use of different interpreting strategies has been widely explored in Interpreting Studies. The term 'strategy' is used in this MA thesis to refer to an intentional, planned, goal-oriented problem-solving procedure employed by interpreters to deal with processing constraints (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KALINA, 1992; KOHN, 1990; LI, 2015). In contrast, the term 'tactic' is used to refer to actions taken in face of an immediate problem and with an immediate objective (GILE, 2009[1995]). Research has shown that interpreters use strategies and tactics to deal with processing constraints (KALINA, 1998; KOHN;

KALINA, 1996; LIONTOU, 2012; RICCARDI, 1995, 2005). Their use have been tackled building on different variables, including interpreting quality (KALINA, 2005), interpreter training (GILE, 2009[1995]), interpreters' level of expertise (BARAKAT, 2018), speech rate (LI, 2010), directionality (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006), language pair (DONATO, 2003; LIONTOU, 2011), and norms (SCHJOLDAGER, 1995; WANG, 2012a).

A significant body of literature has been published on the relationship between strategy use and languages involved in the task. Some studies have addressed several strategies used in a specific language pair (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; KALINA, 1998; LIONTOU, 2011; RICCARDI, 1995), while others have described the use of only one strategy in a given language pair (LEE, 2007; LIONTOU, 2012; SUNNARI, 1995). Language specificity is not the aim of the present investigation. However, as no study is available, to the best of the author's knowledge, on the relationship between strategy use in simultaneous interpreting and the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair, this MA thesis provides insights that can be explored in further research.

Data from several studies also suggest a relationship between strategy use and interpreting norms (GILE, 1999; PÖCHHACKER, 2004; RICCARDI, 2005; SCHJOLDAGER, 1995; WANG, 2012a). The term 'norm' is used in this thesis to refer to behaviors that are accepted and validated by a social group (speakers, interpreters, and their audience) and govern attitudes of individuals in that group. When interpreters understand how interpreting norms may influence their decisions, they may monitor their behavior in a way which may improve their production and how they manage the interpreting task. As the first contact of interpreters with interpreting norms usually takes places in interpreting classes, the present study may add to the discussions on the subject, especially by addressing students' behavior, which may contribute to the literature on interpreter training.

Building on exploratory research with an experimental design, this MA thesis investigates the use of interpreting strategies by eight undergraduate students from a cognitive perspective, i.e., by analyzing the processes underlying the interpreting task and the target speech delivered. Such processes can be related to the interpreters' processing capacity – thus, to their cognitive effort (GILE, 2009[1995]). According to Seeber (2015), the results of an interpreting behavior can be used to make inferences about the interpreters' processing capacity and cognitive effort, as

they cannot be observed directly. This indirect observation (based on recorded events) is a methodology widely used in interpreting studies (SEEBER, 2015).

The qualitative analysis in this MA thesis adopts Gile's (2009[1995]) Effort Models, which address possible causes of interpreters' difficulties and failures. These models, originally designed as a teaching tool, have been widely used in interpreting research to analyze and discuss the use of strategies (GILE, 2020; SEEBER, 2015). Toury's (2012[1995]) operational norms as applied to interpreting by Garzone (2002) and Gile (2009[1995]) is adopted in the analysis as well. These norms may help explain the students' behavior and the decisions made during the interpreting act.

The general objective of this MA thesis is to investigate the use of interpreting strategies by undergraduates while performing simultaneous interpreting tasks in the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair. Building on the interpreters' processes and products, it seeks to accomplish three specific objectives:

1. To identify the most common strategies used by the students,
2. To assess whether the strategies used by the students are related to the cognitive effort expended by them,
3. To assess whether the strategies used by the students are related to interpreting norms.

Such objectives translate into the following research questions:

1. Which interpreting strategies were most used by the students?
2. To what extent are the strategies used by the students related to the cognitive effort expended by them?
3. To what extent are the strategies used by the students related to interpreting norms?

This MA thesis is divided into four chapters. Chapter 1 presents a review of the literature relevant to the topics under scrutiny. Chapter 2 describes the materials and methods used to collect and analyze data. Chapter 3 provides an analysis of the data collected and briefly discusses the findings based on the literature. Chapter 4 provides the final remarks, including the limitations of this study and suggestions for further research.

1 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1.1 Interpreting Process

Interpreting as discipline dates to the mid-20th century. Early studies (LEDERER, 1978, 1981; SELESKOVITCH, 1965, 1968) approached interpreting as an activity analogous to monolingual discourse, assuming that both activities aim at establishing communication. Lederer (1978, p. 324) argues that “delegates speaking different languages and listening to the interpretation of languages they do not know must be able to understand each other as if they were communicating directly through one and the same language”. According to her, the interpreter’s task is to mediate this indirect communication.

Over the following years, scholars (GERVER, 1971; JONES, 2002; KIRCHHOFF, 2002; KOHN, 1990) began to differentiate the two activities as they realized that interpreting may involve cognitive processes which go beyond those in monolingual communication. One of them is the possibility for interpreters to model the target speech differently from the source speech, while still rendering an equivalent message (JONES, 2002). Conversely, during a monolingual discourse, speakers are autonomous communicators, i.e., they have semantic and syntactic autonomy to produce their texts (KOHN; KALINA, 1996).

At first, interpreting and translation were considered subdisciplines of a single discipline (KALINA, 2000; PÖCHHACKER, 2016), with immediacy being the main difference between them. According to Pöchhacker (2009, p. 129), “even when interpreting became a ‘profession’, essentially in the early twentieth century, considerable time elapsed before it came to be viewed as an object of study”, i.e., “real-time’ human translation” (PÖCHHACKER, 2009, p. 128). In fact, the first studies, such as Seleskovitch’s (1968), were published as a way of describing a translational activity (interpreting) with the aim of passing the profession’s know-how to the next generations (PÖCHHACKER, 2009). Gradually, Interpreting Studies became a different field of study, particularly after the development of the simultaneous interpreting[1] technique (KALINA, 2000). However, Kalina (2000, p. 15) argues that a

[1] In consecutive interpreting, the first mode ever adopted in conference interpreting settings (PAGURA, 2015; PÖCHHACKER, 2016), interpreters listen to the speaker for some seconds to a few minutes and render their target speech after the speaker stops. Then, the speaker starts uttering the source speech again and the process goes on. This mode may allow interpreters to correct their

closer cooperation between translation and interpreting should exist, as “the identification of these common features and of the distinctions between the two should be of great interest to the field of translation studies and to interpreting research.”

Even though interpreting and translation differ from one another, they have the same goal – as stated by Kalina (2000) – i.e., establishing communication between people from different linguistic communities (PAGURA, 2015). The main difference between them is in their operational processes (BARBOSA, 2020). In translation, the professional receives the source text, has time to read it entirely at once, can use support material (e.g., dictionaries, glossaries, encyclopedias, websites), can resort to other translators or even field specialists and can revise their own work, searching for and correcting possible mistakes. The target text may even undergo revision and/or proofreading provided by other professionals. Especially, the final product tends to be perennial after it is published (PAGURA, 2015). In interpreting, the professional receives the source text in pieces, i.e., they do not have access to the entire text at once, and they need to deal with it during a very short period, since the target speech must be delivered as quickly as possible. Because of the short time available for the act of translating the source speech, it is quite hard to consult external material and make corrections when mistakes occur. However, the target speech, along with its mistakes, tends to disappear as soon as the event is finished (PAGURA, 2003, 2015).

The literature (GARZONE, 2002; KALINA, 2005; PAGURA, 2003, 2015; RICCARDI, 2002) points out that these language professionals (i.e., translators and interpreters), just like the activity, also share some similarities, but their differences stand out. For instance, both translators and interpreters should master the languages involved in the process, as well as the cultural components related to them, and this knowledge should precede their professional careers (PAGURA, 2003, 2015). Nevertheless, interpreters have access to the communicative situation, to the source-speech author and their intonational clues, as well as to the target-speech audience and the delegates’ feedback about their target speech rendition, including their facial expressions, posture and gestures (SETTON, 1999). This involvement in the

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mistakes or even to ask the speaker for clarification. It usually takes place during small meetings, and interpreters are more visible to the eyes of the audience, since they stand physically close to the speaker (SETTON; DAWRANT, 2016). In the simultaneous mode, interpreters start uttering their target speech just a few seconds (or words) after the speaker has started, and source and target speeches are uttered almost simultaneously during the entire session. Most difficulties faced in the simultaneous mode are related to the time pressure imposed by the act of listening and speaking at the same time (SETTON, 1999).

communicative event may influence the interpreting process and, consequently, the target speech delivered.

Due to the constraints inherent to the interpreting process (time pressure, cognitive demand, difficulty of seeking external help, etc.), interpreters should have prior, consistent linguistic, extralinguistic and situational knowledge related to a given communicative event. More importantly, they are expected to both convert this knowledge into strategic actions to solve difficulties imposed by adverse conditions (KOHN; KALINA, 1996) and make effort to monitor themselves. Jones (2002, p. 6) states that “interpreters must have the capacity not only to analyze and resynthesize ideas, but also to do so very quickly and when working under stress”. Because split attention is not a natural activity and requires great concentration, the interpreting process demands far more mental capacity from interpreters than the translation process does from translators (BARAKAT, 2018).

Some key features are expected from the interpreters’ target speech. Since it is addressed to a given group of users, it should produce linguistic and cultural effect equivalent to the effect the source speech would produce on that audience. It should also be coherent, cohesive, and cognitively similar in content compared to the source speech (DÉJÉAN LE FEAL, 1990; FALBO, 2015), i.e., it should be both the correct and complete rendition of the source-speech content, and the grammatical and logical rendition of the target-speech form (JONES, 2002). Another important characteristic of the target speech is fluency, which can be defined as “the physical characteristics of the acoustic signal produced by the speaker that go beyond the verbal component of speech” (PRADAS MACÍAS, 2015, p. 165). A speech’s fluency can be measured through prosodic features such as speech rate and pauses.

To access these key target-speech features, and consequently, the output’s quality, Grbić (2015) considers that listener comprehension of the source speech and fluency of the target speech should be investigated, since they can be effective and measurable indicators of interpreting quality. Listener comprehension of what has been communicated (REITHOFER, 2015), i.e., cognitive effect, can be used to measure changes in the listener’s knowledge. Additionally, this comprehension can be related to the underlying structure and cohesive links of the source speech (PENG, 2015), which is also an indicator of target-speech quality. Likewise, speech rate and pauses, which can be measured and analyzed by using computer tools, are indicators of

fluency and can influence the listener's comprehension of the target speech (GRBIĆ, 2015).

Another relevant concept in the investigation of interpreting processes is unit of meaning. Interpreters, to perform their task, must rely on propositional representations in their memories (SETTON, 1999). These representations are generally retained in the interpreters' memory in the form of units of sense or units of meaning. Lederer (1978, p. 330) defines units of meaning as "the synthesis of a number of words present in short-term memory [associated] with previous cognitive experiences or recollections." That is, they are the combination of language meaning and cognitive elements. These cognitive elements may come from the interpreters' background knowledge, the context of the communicative event, or the speech context, i.e., sentences or words uttered previously.

Setton (1999) adds that units of meaning are semantically self-contained units formed in the mind of the listener who wishes to understand the speaker at the same moment the speech is being uttered. As the speech continues, they overlap and merge to form a broader sense. According to Jones (2002), the minimum length of a unit of meaning is determined by the level of clearness of the source speech's cognitive representation in the listener's mind. The author highlights what had been already proposed by Lederer (1978), i.e., a unit of meaning might not equate with the words uttered by the speaker, because they are a product of these words and other elements available to interpreters at a given moment. A unit of meaning is considered, thus, the smallest unit to which interpreters must listen to before they start their rendition (JONES, 2002).

This concept of units of meaning was designed by Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989), who were the pioneers of the Interpretive Theory, the first approach to describe the interpreting process. This approach envisages interpreting as a natural process and assumes that simultaneous interpreting can be performed by using ordinary speech functions. It considers that context plays a significant role on communication and, consequently, on the interpreting process. The linguistic structure of the source speech is used along with its context to express the speaker's communicative intent. However, what interpreters should express in their rendition is the intent, rather than the words, i.e., the intentionality of the speaker's discourse removed from its linguistic forms (LEDERER, 2015; SETTON, 1999).

The ideal interpreting process, according to the Interpretive Theory (LEDERER, 2015; PAGURA, 2003), can be divided into three overlapping stages. In the first stage, called comprehension, interpreters receive the sense in its linguistic form and then analyze and understand it. Its meaning is understood through the association of linguistic meaning and cognitive elements (verbal, situational, and cognitive context). The second stage is called deverbalization: the meaning of the message is dissociated from its corresponding source language linguistic structure, leaving only the awareness of the idea expressed by the speaker, i.e., the sense. In Lederer's words (2015, p. 206), "it becomes language-free". The third stage, reformulation, happens when interpreters produce their target speech, re-expressing the deverbalized sense with the linguistic, cultural, and contextual characteristics of the target language.

The Interpretive Theory states that well-trained professional interpreters who master both source and target languages and work under adequate conditions should go through these three stages relatively smoothly, only facing challenges that are similar to those that also affect monolingual communication (LEDERER, 2015; LI, 2015). Therefore, there should be no difficulties related to a specific language or language pair, since surface structures, such as syntactic differences between languages, disappear and are replaced with the source speech's deverbalized sense. In consequence, there is no need for ad hoc strategies, the only exception being transcoding, or word for word translation, which can (and should) be used in cases of proper names, numbers, and lists (DONATO, 2003; PAGURA, 2003). This approach holds no especial recommendations for interpreter training, seeing it basically as a process of having interpreters used to overlapping speaking and listening. It also considers errors as consequences of environmental conditions, language weaknesses or lack of background information (SETTON, 1999).

Another approach to explaining the interpreting process is the Information Process approach. The models developed by Information Process scholars, with Daniel Gile (2009[1995]) being the most prominent representative, are mostly based on cognitive psychology and divide the interpreting action into distinct, complex component processes or stages. Their emphasis lies especially on simultaneous interpreting, which is considered by them as a coordinated multitasking process with capacity-constrained components that require mental effort (SETTON, 1999).

Information Process scholars consider processing capacity (also called attention or attentional resources) and working memory central to the interpreting process (GILE, 2009[1995]) and assume that the message's underlying linguistic structures never completely disappears from the cognitive intermediate processes. Consequently, linguistic factors have an impact on the interpreters' cognitive processing, thus requiring language-specific strategies (DONATO, 2003; LI, 2015; SETTON, 1999). These factors also reflect on interpreter training: "it has become commonplace in the training community to define SI [simultaneous interpreting] skills (beyond language, listening while speaking, and general knowledge) in terms of a number of acquired 'strategies'" (SETTON, 1999, p. 50). One of the positive aspects of Information Process models is the possibility of identifying possible causes of failure and difficulties in performing interpreting tasks (GILE, 2009[1995]; SETTON, 1999).

Based on the described above, Gile (2009[1995]) designed his Effort Models, widely adopted to describe the simultaneous interpreting process. They were first designed as a description of what the author observed in his students' performances and aimed at understanding recurring difficulties, which did not stem only from lack of linguistic or extralinguistic knowledge, but from cognitive constraints related to the language pair involved, working conditions among others. Researchers (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016; LIONTOU, 2011) have been using these models in experimental studies to analyze different aspects of the interpreting process, and teachers have been using them in the interpreting classroom (WU; LIAO, 2018).

Gile's (2009[1995], p. 168) models consider interpreting as "a process which involves a set of operations on successive speech segments. Each of them is heard and analyzed (L), then stored in memory for a short while (M), and finally reformulated in the target language (P)". Additionally, interpreters also need to coordinate (C) all the demands of the three first operations to allocate their attentional resources adequately. Each of these operations is called an Effort. Interpreters need to have enough processing capacity available to meet the needs of the effort in action, with the caveat that there is always a limited supply of available processing capacity.

When cognitive effort – i.e., the effort expended by interpreters while performing the task (GILE; LEI, 2021) – exceeds their total processing capacity available, problems may arise, leading to cognitive saturation. These problems may also arise due to coordination problems, i.e., because of inappropriate allocation of the

interpreter's available processing capacity, or even because of a momentary lapse of attention. These problems are recurrent because interpreters tend to work most of the time close to the saturation level, as described in Gile's (1999) Tightrope Hypothesis. This hypothesis assumes that there are some conditions which may cause increased processing capacity requirements, attention management errors, or lapses of attention, all of which are problem triggers. Such conditions include:

> speeches with high information density and speech rate, enumerations, compound names, unfamiliar accents, poor voice quality, singular logic, non-standard lexical usage, syntactic complexity, interpreting between syntactically very different languages, lexical gaps and short words with little redundancy such as names and numbers, as their information content can be difficult to recover in the case of any momentary lapse of attention in the Listening Effort. (GILE, 2015, p. 136)

Gile's Effort Models have been adopted by several researchers in recent years to analyze strategies adopted by interpreters to deal with these problem triggers (GILE, 2015), as these models seek to identify the cognitive costs of choosing a specific way to tackle such problems. His models also relate the interpreters' strategic choices to what he calls the 'laws' (norms) which rule their behavior during their performance. This is the reason Gile's models are adopted in the present research to analyze the potential relationship between the strategies adopted by the research participants and their cognitive effort, as well as the potential relationship between strategy use and interpreting norms.

1.2 Interpreting strategies

Interpreting can be considered a strategic process, as pointed out by Pöchhacker (2016). As such, monolingual discourse strategies are insufficient to overcome several difficulties the interpreting task imposes (KOHN; KALINA, 1996). In fact, interpreting strategies and tactics can be considered one of the most important aspects of interpreting research (LIONTOU, 2011), as they do not only demonstrate the typical challenges of the interpreting process, but also indicate possible solutions interpreters had applied while performing the activity (RICCARDI, 2005).

The definition of strategy adopted by most interpreting researchers (KALINA, 1998; KIRCHHOFF, 2002; PÖCHHACKER, 2004) stems from Applied Linguistics. Færch and Kasper (1984, p. 47) define strategies as "potentially conscious

plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal." A strategy is defined similarly within the Translation Studies, but with a focus on problems related to translation tasks (LÖRSCHER, 1991). Interpreters, in turn, resort to strategies specific to the interpreting task, besides using monolingual communication and translation strategies (LI, 2015).

In Interpreting Studies, a strategy is an intentional, goal-oriented, problem-solving procedure employed by interpreters to deal with processing difficulties in an interpreting task. In contrast, a tactic refers to online decisions and actions taken in face of an immediate problem. Gile (2009[1995]) was the first one to consider there is a difference between planned and unplanned actions taken during the interpreting task. Both terms, however, may refer to actions used to tackle processing capacity limitations, knowledge gaps, time pressure constraints, and/or inter-lingual and intercultural communication difficulties (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KALINA, 1992; KOHN, 1990; LI, 2015). They may also facilitate the interpreting task and prevent potential problems (GILE, 2009[1995]).

Strategies particularly "indicate which decisions must be taken in a given situation or in view of certain probabilities so as to reach a goal within a behavioral plan" (KIRCHHOFF, 2002, p. 114). They are solutions interpreters employ to allocate resources and avoid cognitive overload. They may be on-line strategies (mode-specific strategies applied during a given performance) and off-line strategies (applied before or after an interpreting session) (PÖCHHACKER, 2016). The present research addresses on-line strategies only.

The Interpretive Theory of the Paris School (SELESKOVITCH; LEDERER, 1989) does not discuss strategies because it assumes that comprehension and production are natural processes similar to those in monolingual communication. As such, only linguistic and world knowledge would suffice to allow interpreters to 'deverbalize' the original speech and render it in the target language (SELESKOVITCH, 1978). The only possible strategy within the Interpretive Theory is transcoding (word-for-word translation) in the case of proper names, numbers, and lists (PAGURA, 2003).

In contrast, Information Process scholars (GILE, 2009[1995]; KALINA, 2005; LI, 2015) propose that "since interpreting takes place under 'adverse conditions' (involving great time pressure and high cognitive processing), discourse strategies have to be adapted, complemented, and used far more efficiently" (KALINA, 2015b, p.

403). They consider the employment of strategies necessary, especially in the simultaneous mode, because of its multitasking (and therefore cognitively effortful) characteristic. However, strategies may not solve all the problems and, additionally, produce others. Li (2015, p. 173) highlights that the use of simultaneous interpreting strategies “may result in potential information loss, credibility loss, impact loss, or time and processing capacity cost”. Therefore, they may contribute (or not) to successful interpreting (LIONTOU, 2011).

Whereas this concept of strategy is generally accepted, the degree of consciousness of strategy use is subject of debate (KALINA, 2015b). Gile (2009[1995]) asserts that his term ‘tactics’ refers to unplanned actions, whereas ‘strategies’ refers to planned actions. Li (2015) considers that strategies may sometimes be conscious, sometimes unconscious, which means that they can or cannot be planned actions. Kohn (1990) says that the aim of using strategies is to achieve a specific goal, but he contends that they may not be governed by any plan. Kohn and Kalina (1996) suggest that a strategic process is probably no longer conscious once it becomes automatic.

Despite the lack of consensus about the level of consciousness of strategy use, most scholars agree that this usage can be automatized, which can eventually lead to lower cognitive processing (KALINA, 1992). Automatization results from the systematic use of strategies to solve recurring problems encountered in the interpreting process with the aim to produce an acceptable target speech (RICCARDI, 2005). Several authors (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2013, 2015; RICCARDI, 2005) suggest that the automatization of strategies use can facilitate the general interpreting process, helping interpreters reduce the cognitive processing of the task “because only if strategies are activated automatically will the interpreter overcome his or her capacity limitations and make the best use of available processing capacity” (LI, 2015, p. 172).

According to Gile (2009[1995]), non-automatic operations, such as the recognition of words in the source speech, require the storage of information to be used later. Therefore, they require processing capacity and time. In contrast, automatic operations, such as the use of a specific strategies to tackle a recurrent problem, do not require such a capacity, thus being faster. Consequently, the use of strategies should be automatic because interpreters’ performance deteriorates when the processing capacity available is insufficient; meanwhile, interpreters are able to continue their performance when cognitive capacity is saved to tackle less frequent,

yet complex operations, such as solving a problem encountered for the first time (KALINA, 2000).

Interpreting strategies may become automated with time, i.e., with experience and after repeated successful application. They can also become automated after appropriate training (BARAKAT, 2018; KALINA, 2000, 2015b; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; RICCARDI, 2005). This is the reason why interpreter trainers (KALINA, 2000; 2015b; PÖCHHACKER, 2010; SUNNARI, 1995) recommend that interpreting strategies should be taught to students, both in theory and in practice.

From an expertise-oriented perspective, Moser-Mercer (2008) asserts that students should engage in interpreter training activities to monitor their learning. When they understand their cognitive processes and figure out how to control them, they can direct their learning, i.e., they can intentionally improve specific strategic behaviors, which justifies teaching strategies in interpreter training courses. Additionally, Lajoie (2003, p. 22) proposes that “becoming an expert is a transitional process”. Consequently, to promote the development of expertise, it is necessary to identify how to help novices acquire competences like those of experts. She argues that this help may come from investigating the trajectory a student takes towards competence for completing a specific task in a specific domain. Therefore, during interpreter training, trajectories can indicate where instruction may be needed to promote changes in competence. Finally, Alves and Da Silva (2021a, 2021b), consider translation a complex skill that pertains to different domains and extends to several tasks and activities, including interpreting.

A considerable body of research has been carried out on interpreting strategies to understand how interpreters handle the difficulties imposed by a simultaneous interpreting task (DIRIKER, 2015). These difficulties may be related to language pairs, source-speech delivery rate, interpreting modes, interpreting norms, among others. In fact, analyzing how interpreters use strategies to cope with certain difficulties “reveals about the relations between the original discourse, the interpreted discourse, the possible problems in interpreting, the strategies applied, the interpreter, and the communicative setting” (LI, 2013, p. 108).

Strategies are deemed to be important for high-quality interpreting performance (KALINA, 2005). They are tools interpreters use to get rid of negative consequences of the interpreting constraints, such as poor working conditions, fast source-speech delivery rate, time pressure, and split attention (KALINA, 2005). There

are several strategies that may relieve cognitive burden, help overcoming emergencies, improve target-speech delivery rate, enhance communication, and avoid memory overload due to the accumulation of untranslated source-speech information (LI, 2013).

Several studies have addressed the difficulties imposed by the relationship between language pair and interpreting strategies. Scholars have provided different understandings for the interpreters' working languages. Jones (2002, p. 8) proposes that "a passive language is a language out of which an interpreter is capable of interpreting. An active language is one into which they are capable of interpreting." The International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) differentiates three categories of working languages based on the interpreter's level of proficiency: 'A' language (native-like proficiency), 'B' language (nearly native-like proficiency; mastered actively and passively), and 'C' language (understood at native level, not mastered actively). 'A' and 'B' languages are considered active working languages, and 'C' language is considered a passive working language (GILE, 2009[1995]).

Interpretive Theory scholars (SELESKOVITCH; LEDERER, 1989) claim that interpreters must always interpret from their 'B' language into their 'A' language, because it is the only active working language possible. They also claim that structural differences between the working languages are irrelevant, and it suffices to master these languages, as interpreters deal with 'sense', rather than words. The message retrieved by interpreters is universal, regardless language structures (SETTON, 1999). Once interpreters receive the source-speech message, it loses its surface structure, i.e., it is deverbalized, and the level at which strategies operate no longer exists (LIONTOU, 2011). Thus, if both working languages are mastered, their structures have no influence over the interpreters' performances (LEDERER, 1981).

However, Information Process scholars (DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; KALINA, 1998, 2015b; LI, 2013, 2015) understand that interpreters are more prone to cognitive overload when their working languages are syntactically different: larger segments must be stored to restructure the message in the target language, which leads to high memory load; and word order, especially verb position in the sentence, has an important effect on the use of interpreting strategies (LIONTOU, 2011). Besides, language directionality also leads to the use of different strategies (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006). Gile (2020) proposes that his Effort Models can be used to discuss language-specific characteristics in interpreting.

Another difficulty in simultaneous interpreting is source-speech delivery rate. Its impact on the interpreters' performance has been widely investigated in combination with strategy use (GERVER, 1969, 1971). This rate (along with pauses, disfluencies, fillers, and other source speech features) bears upon the amount of information which must be processed by interpreters in a given time (MEAD, 2015a). Fast delivery speech rate often causes interpreting problems, such as information loss, which may be solved through the use of specific interpreting strategies, mostly related to the comprehension process (KALINA, 2015b). According to Seleskovitch (1965), a speech rate of 100-120 wpm (words per minute) is comfortable, whereas one of 150-200 wpm is too fast. Gerver (1969), confirmed these results in his study. More recently, Riccardi (2015) suggests that 100-130 wpm are comfortable, while 135-180 wpm are too fast.

How interpreters handle the difficulties of specific interpreting modes has also been related to strategy use. According to Li (2013), the challenges of the different working modes are different, requiring different strategies: as simultaneous interpreting demands more cognitive resource management (because of its temporal, structural and cognitive constraints), the use of certain strategies has a major impact on the work of simultaneous interpreters. Similarly, Pöchhacker (2004) argues that in simultaneous interpreting, most of the constraints are related to the input load, with simultaneous interpreters tending to resort more to process-oriented strategies. In contrast, in the consecutive mode, interpreters are more aware of norms and expectations of the audience, thus resorting mostly to production-oriented strategies.

This awareness of norms and audience expectations pointed out by Pöchhacker (2004) reveals a correlation between interpreting norms and strategy use. In both consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting, interpreters seek to meet the expectations about their performance and/or target speech, thus using some strategies that impact their products (PÖCHHACKER, 2016). Gile (2009[1995]) also addresses this by proposing a relationship between 'tactics' (immediate actions taken when a problem is found) and some 'laws' (norms). Some aspects of this relation are addressed in Section 1.3 of this thesis and discussed in the Data Analysis and Discussion of this thesis.

Li (2013) reports that more than 30 strategies have been already identified and described by interpreting researchers. Some of them are applicable to solving problems related to the interpreting process or to the target-speech production, while

others are amenable to a specific language pair or directionality, or even to a specific interpreting mode (LI, 2013).

Gile (2009[1995]) differentiates ‘strategy’ from ‘tactics’. As mentioned before, ‘tactics’ are immediate actions taken when interpreters are faced with a problem, and ‘strategies’ are planned actions aimed at preventing possible problems. He describes the ones he claims to be the most used by professional interpreters. He also ascertains they can be employed in any interpreting mode and in tasks involving any language combination.

Gile (2009[1995]) proposes three types of tactics: 1) comprehension, 2) preventive, and 3) reformulation. Comprehension tactics are applied to problems related to source-speech comprehension; preventive tactics are applied to prevent possible problems in target-speech production; and reformulation tactics are changes made in the target speech when compared to the source speech. Table 1 provides the tactics described by Gile (2009[1995]).

Table 1 – Tactics described by Gile (2009[1995])

Tactics subdivision	Tactics
1. Comprehension tactics	1) Delaying the response, 2) reconstructing the segment with the help of the context, 3) using the boothmate’s help, 4) consulting resources in the booth
2. Preventive tactics	1) Taking notes, 2) lengthening or shortening the Ear-Voice Span, 3) segmentation and unloading of short-term memory, 4) changing the order of elements in an enumeration
3. Reformulation tactics	1) Delaying response, 2) using the boothmate’s help, 3) consulting documents in the booth, 4) replacing a segment with a superordinate term or a more general speech segment, 5) explaining or paraphrasing, 6) reproducing the sound heard in the source-language speech, 7) ‘instant naturalization’, 8) transcoding, 9) form-based interpreting, 10) informing listeners of a problem, 11) referring delegates to another information source, 12) omitting the content of a speech segment, 13) ‘parallel’ reformulation, 14) switching off the microphone

Source: the author, based on Gile (2009[1995]).

The present research does not address some of the tactics described by Gile (2009[1995]), namely: ‘using the boothmate’s help’, ‘consulting resources in the booth’ (comprehension tactics and reformulation tactics), ‘taking notes’ (preventive tactic), ‘informing listeners of a problem’, ‘referring delegates to another information source’, and ‘switching off the microphone’ (reformulation tactics). These tactics are all employed during real-life situations of interpreting performance, and the data analyzed by the present study were produced at an experimental setting, without the presence of an interpreter partner, of a real audience and of a speaker uttering their speech live. Thus, these tactics are disregarded in the data analysis.

Kalina (1998), the main reference for most studies related to interpreting strategies (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; LI, 2013; LIONTOU, 2011), offers a description of the ones she considers specific to the simultaneous mode. Her study uses product-oriented methods and retrospective protocol in the identification of strategies. She suggests that strategies should be divided into: 1) comprehension enhancing strategies, which intends to enhance the audience's understanding of the target speech, and 2) target-text production strategies, which are related to the characteristics of the source speech but are target speech oriented. The latter category is subdivided into 2.1) source text conditioned strategies, 2.2) target text conditioned strategies, 2.3) emergency strategies, 2.4) repair strategies, and 2.5) global strategies. Table 2 summarizes Kalina's (1998) categorization as reported by Liontou (2011) and Kalina (2015b).

Table 2 – Strategies described by Kalina (1998), as presented by Liontou (2011) and Kalina (2015b)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Comprehension enhancing strategies	1) Preparation, 2) inference, 3) anticipation, 4) chunking
2. Target-text production strategies	1) Source text conditioned strategies: 1a. syntactic transformation, 1b. transcoding 2) Target text conditioned strategies: 2a. EVS, 2b. text compression, 2c. text expansion, 2d. stylistic strategies, 2e. presentation strategies 3) Emergency strategies: compression through 3a. selection, 3b. deletion, 3c. generalization, 3d. simplification 4) Repair strategies: 4a. self-correction, 4b. decision for no-correction 5) Global strategies: monitoring

Source: the author, based on Liontou (2011) and Kalina (2015b).

The following strategies are disregarded in the present thesis: 'preparation' (comprehension enhancing strategies), 'stylistic strategies', 'presentation strategies' (target text conditioned strategies), and 'monitoring' (global strategies). To identify these strategies, it would be necessary to use a verbal protocol, which was not the case in this study.

Another study on the use of interpreting strategies is Bartłomiejczyk (2006), based on Kalina (1998) and Gile (2009[1995]). She proposes only two strategy categories: 1) product-oriented strategies, which can guide interpreters in finding solutions to specific problems, and 2) overall strategies, which can facilitate the task and prevent potential problems. Her study focuses on strategies which can be related to a specific language pair or to language directionality. Table 3 exhibits Bartłomiejczyk's (2006) categorization for interpreting strategies.

Table 3 – Strategies described by Bartłomiejczyk (2006)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Product-oriented strategies	1) Addition, 2) approximation, 3) changing the order of elements, 4) compression, 5) delaying response, 6) inferencing, 7) parallel reformulation, 8) omission, 9) paraphrase, 10) repair, 11) no-repair, 12) reproduction, 13) transcodage, 14) syntactic transformation, 15) transfer, 16) resisting transfer
2. Overall strategies	1) Anticipation, 2) visualization, 3) personal association, 4) resorting to world knowledge, 5) personal involvement

Source: the author, based on Bartłomiejczyk (2006).

To identify the strategies of 'transfer', 'resisting transfer' (product-oriented strategies), 'visualization', 'personal association', 'resorting to world knowledge' and 'personal involvement' (overall strategies) described by Bartłomiejczyk (2006), it would be necessary to resort to retrospective protocols, which was not the case of the present research. Hence, these strategies are not accounted for in the data analysis.

Language directionality is also a focus of Wu and Liao's (2018) description of strategies, but they concentrate their description only on product-oriented strategies. They adapt, merge and/or subdivide strategies described by other researchers (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2015; PÖCHHACKER, 2004) to facilitate their learning process by interpreting students. In addition to proposing new names for the strategies, they also divide them into categories according to their function in the interpreting task: 1) problem-solving, 2) problem-preventing, and 3) message-enhancing. These strategies are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 – Strategies described by Wu and Liao (2018)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Problem-solving strategies	1) Use a more general term, 2) use a similar term, 3) explain, 4) paraphrase: 4a. paraphrase by changing sentence structures, 4b. paraphrase by adjusting messages, 4c. paraphrase by using plain but clear 'B' language
2. Problem-preventing strategies	1) Chunk the source speech, 2) preserve linearity, 3) produce short and simple sentences, 4) rephrase ideas previously mentioned
3. Message-enhancing strategies	1) (Re)structure messages, 2) add cohesive words, 3) omit secondary information, 4) select important messages

Source: the author, based on Wu and Liao (2018).

This thesis does not address the problem-solving strategy called 'paraphrase by using plain but clear 'B' language. This strategy regards interpreting into a 'B' language, and the present study aims at investigating interpreting into the participants' 'A' language (Brazilian Portuguese).

Other researchers have also focused their strategy categorization on language-related factors. Donato (2003), for example, investigates whether some strategies may be language specific or language independent. In her study based mainly on Gile (2009[1995]), Kalina (1998), Kohn and Kalina (1996) and Setton (1999), she divides these strategies into three categories: 1) comprehension strategies, 2) reformulation strategies, and 3) emergency strategies (see Table 5). The first two are taken in the same sense as proposed by Gile (2009[1995]). The last one, i.e., emergency strategies, is used when interpreters fail to understand and/or render the source speech but, even so, try to sustain communication.

Table 5 – Strategies described by Donato (2003)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Comprehension strategies	1) Stalling by using neutral material, 2) anticipation, 3) time-lag
2. Reformulation strategies	1) Morphosyntactic reformulation: 1a. morphosyntactic transformation, 1b. syntactic segmentation, 1c. least-commitment strategy, 1d. changing the order of phrases or elements of other type within the clause 2) Synthesis: 2a. generalization, 2b. simplification, 2c. deletion 3) Expansion: 3a. explanatory additions, 3b. additions to maintain coherence, 3c. repetition, 3d. paraphrase
3. Emergency strategies	1) Transcoding, 2) approximation, 3) evasion, 4) substitution

Source: the author, based on Donato (2003).

The present research does not address strategy 'time lag' the same way as described by Donato (2003). To investigate this strategy, the author adopts the method proposed by Goldman-Eisler (1972), which measures time lag according to linguistic parameters. The present study, however, measures time lag in units of time, as proposed by Defrancq (2015), Lee (2002), Timarová *et al.* (2014) and Timarová (2015), as detailed in Materials and Methods (Chapter 2).

Following the strategies proposed by Donato (2003), Jones (2002), Gile (2009[1995]) and Riccardi (2005), Han and Chen (2016) also considers the language factor in their strategies' description, i.e., they consider whether the strategies investigated may or not be related to a specific language pair. Additionally, they explore the influence of speech rate and accent on strategy use. However, they do not categorize the strategies described, as presented in Table 6:

Table 6 – Strategies described by Han and Chen (2016)

Strategies
1) Stalling by using neutral material, 2) syntactic transformation, 3) syntactic segmentation, 4) changing the order of phrases, 5) generalization, 6) simplification, 7) omission, 8) explanatory addition, 9) addition to maintain coherence, 10) repetition, 11) paraphrase, 12) substitution, 13) reproduction, 14) repair, 15) transcoding

Source: the author, based on Han and Chen (2016).

Similarly, Kader and Seubert (2014) focus their strategy description on language-related factors, specifically on text-related characteristics (see Table 7). For the authors, there are 1) macro- strategies, which determine part of the interpreting process, and 2) micro- strategies, which enable interpreters to deal with speech-inherent problems. They draw upon the works by Kalina (1998) and Gile (2009[1995]) to propose their descriptions.

Table 7 – Strategies described by Kader and Seubert (2014)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Macro-strategies	1) Planning, 2) expectations, 3) inferencing, 4) continuous monitoring
2. Micro-strategies	1) Chunking, 2) paraphrasing, 3) flexible *décalage* (Ear-Voice-Span, EVS), 4) stalling, 5) generalizing, 6) simplification, 7) approximation, 8) transcoding, 9) expanding, 10) completion, 11) condensing, 12) prioritizing, 13) anticipating / inferencing, 14) monitoring / output control, 15) correction

Source: the author, based on Kader and Seubert (2014).

This MA thesis investigates none of the macro- strategies and disregards the micro-strategy called 'monitoring or output control' proposed by Kader and Seubert (2014). They are strategies identifiable through interviews with participants or through verbal protocols, none of which were adopted as methodological choices in this study.

Language-related factors, i.e., language structure and text content, are also taken into consideration by Pöchhacker (2004) to describe interpreting strategies. He evaluates whether the strategies are related to process or product to propose the following categories: 1) process-oriented strategies, related to input load, and 2) production-oriented strategies, related to effective communication with the target audience. Table 8 summarizes these strategies.

Table 8 – Strategies described by Pöchhacker (2004)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Process-oriented strategies	1) Waiting, 2) stalling, 3) chunking, 4) anticipation
2. Production-oriented strategies	1) Compression, 2) implicitation, 3) explicitation, 4) adaptation

Source: the author, based on Pöchhacker (2004).

More recently, Li (2013, 2015) published two studies describing several interpreting strategies investigated by other researchers. The author reports several different names found in the literature. In his 2013 study, he reflects upon interpreter training and describes strategies which he considers relevant to the consecutive interpreting mode, without any categorization, as shown in Table 9:

Table 9 – Strategies described by Li (2013)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Consecutive interpreting strategies	1) Compression / condensation / summarizing / filtering, 2) omission / skipping / ellipsis / message abandonment, 3) text expansion / addition / elaboration, 4) delaying response / stalling, 5) approximation / attenuation, 6) paraphrasing / explaining, 7) morpho-syntactic transformation, 8) transcodage / transcoding / calque, 9) parallel reformulation / substitution, 10) restructuring / changing order, 11) inferencing, 12) repair, 13) evasion / neutralization, 14) no-repair, 15) incomplete sentence, 16) repetition

Source: the author, based on Li (2013).

Strategy 'incomplete sentence' is not addressed in the present research. The reason is that Li (2013) defines it as the act of using fragmented sentences or stopping in the middle of a sentence in the production stage. This runs counter Jones's (2002) suggestion that in simultaneous interpreting, interpreters should always finish their sentences so that they can make sense to the audience.

In 2015, Li describes most of the strategies reported in the previous study. However, he indicates the modes in which the strategies could be employed and proposes a classification based on the type of problems they are expected to solve: 1) knowledge-based, 2) language-based, 3) meaning-based, and 4) delivery-based. His categorization is provided in Table 10.

Table 10 – Strategies described by Li (2015)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Knowledge-based strategies	1) Non-linguistic anticipation, 2) inference, 3) resorting to world knowledge, 4) visualization, 5) personal involvement
2. Language-based strategies	1) Chunking / segmentation / salami, 2) restructuring / changing order, 3) transcodage / transcoding, 4) reproduction, 5) linguistic anticipation, 6) parallel reformulation / substitution, 7) morpho-syntactic transformation, 8) transfer
3. Meaning-based strategies	1) Compression / condensation / summarizing / filtering (selection of information, deletion, generalization, simplification), 2) text expansion / addition / elaboration (explanatory additions, additions to maintain coherence), 3) adaptation, 4) neutralization / evasion, 5) omission / skipping / message abandonment, 6) approximation / attenuation, 7) paraphrasing / explaining
4. Delivery-based strategies	1) Décalage / time lag / extending or narrowing EVS, 2) waiting / delaying response / tailing / stalling (waiting with fillers), 3) repetition, 4) use of prosodic elements (pause distribution, intonation), 5) repair (self-correction), 6) no-repair (decision for no-repair), 7) monitoring

Source: the author, based on Li (2015).

Some of the strategies described by Li (2015) are not addressed in this thesis: ‘resorting to world knowledge’, ‘visualization’, ‘personal involvement’ (knowledge-based strategies), ‘transfer’ (language-based strategies) and ‘monitoring’ (delivery-based strategies). Their identification requires a specific method of investigation (verbal protocol) that was not adopted in this study. In addition, ‘use of prosodic elements (pause distribution, intonation)’ is excluded in the present analysis because this MA thesis does not aim at investigating prosodic features of the target speeches.

Lastly, Barakat (2018) considers the strategies described by Li (2015) and focuses his investigation on the teaching of interpreting strategies. However, he describes only the strategies which he considers specific to the simultaneous interpreting mode (see Table 11).

Table 11 – Strategies described by Barakat (2018)

Strategy subdivision	Strategies
1. Simultaneous interpreting strategies	1) Delaying response, 2) generalization, 3) paraphrasing, 4) compression, 5) approximation, 6) transcoding, 7) transliteration, 8) omission, 9) parallel constructions, 10) anticipation, 11) segmentation, 12) repair

Source: the author, based on Barakat (2018).

Despite all the different ways of categorizing interpreting strategies, the present research does not employ any. The reasons are that this thesis aims at analyzing both process and product and identifying the most common strategies applied, regardless the types of problems they are tackling. Besides, different

strategies interact with each other, as argued by Kohn and Kalina (1996), i.e., one strategy used in the comprehension process may impact several others to be used later during production. In the same vein, Donato (2003) notes that different strategies often overlap, i.e., more than one strategy can be used in the same segment to address multiple cognitive and linguistic difficulties. For this to happen, according to Han and Chen (2016), interpreters need to master individual strategies and employ them flexibly. Altogether, all these factors justify not proposing any categorization for the strategies to be analyzed in the present study. Nonetheless, this thesis does investigate the use of all strategies listed in Tables 1 to 11, except for those mentioned above.

The same difficulty in categorizing interpreting strategies applies to how to name them. First, differences between some strategies are not always clear, i.e., the boundaries between some of them are not clearly identified (LI, 2013). Second, one strategy may have different names depending on the author (LI, 2013, 2015). Third, some strategies go by the same name but refer to different operations (LI, 2013, 2015). Fourth, one strategy may be subdivided into several others by some authors, whereas several strategies may become only one in the description provided by others (WU; LIAO, 2018).

Taking all this into account, Table 12 presents an attempt at establishing a correspondence between the strategies identified by Gile (2009[1995]), Kalina (1998), Bartłomiejczyk (2006), Wu and Liao (2018), Donato (2003), Han and Chen (2016), Kader and Seubert (2014), Pöchhacker (2004), Li (2013, 2015), and Barakat (2018). Its first column presents the name by which this MA thesis will address each strategy. It was either chosen between those employed by the authors reviewed, usually the one adopted by most of them, or created in a way to better represent its characteristics. The second column presents the names given by each of the authors reviewed (with the respective reference). Some authors provide more than one name for the same strategy; in this case, when the names are considered synonyms by the researchers, the underlined word ‘or’ separates all the names employed by them. Some authors subdivide one strategy into many others, sometimes because of minimal differences. In this case, the underlined word ‘and’ indicates all the strategies the present study merged and considered as one. Finally, the third column presents only the main characteristics of the strategy, without any specific details. These are the aspects that the reviewed authors highlighted the most and the ones considered for the present

research for correspondence. The definition and specifics of each strategy is provided in Subsections 1.2.1 to 1.2.18.

Table 12 – Correspondence between all strategies identified on the reviewed literature (continue)

Strategy name	Names given by each author	Strategy main characteristics
1. Extending or narrowing the ear-voice-span	- Lengthening or shortening the Ear-Voice-Span (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Time-lag (DONATO, 2003) - Flexible *décalage* (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - EVS (KALINA, 1998) - *Décalage*, or time lag, or extending or narrowing EVS (LI, 2015)	• Variation of EVS
2. Chunking	- Segmentation and unloading of short-term memory (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Syntactic segmentation (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Chunking (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 1998; PÖCHHACKER, 2004) - Chunk the source speech (chunking), and preserve linearity (segmentation), and produce short and simple sentences (WU; LIAO, 2018) - Segmentation (BARAKAT, 2018) - Chunking, or segmentation, or salami (LI, 2015)	• To merge or divide clauses / units of meaning / sense groups / information into shorter ones • To establish relationship between those units
3. Delaying response	- Delaying the response (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Stalling by using neutral material (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Delaying response (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006) - Delaying response or stalling (LI, 2013) - Waiting, or delaying response, or tailing, or stalling (LI, 2015) - Stalling (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Waiting and stalling (PÖCHHACKER, 2004)	• To delay production by waiting or producing generic utterances • Goal: to receive more input
4. Anticipation	- Anticipation (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; KALINA, 1998; PÖCHHACKER, 2004) - Anticipating or inferencing (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Non-linguistic and linguistic anticipation (LI, 2015)	• To produce the target speech before the speaker utters it • Based on linguistic cues or previous knowledge
5. Reconstruction	- Reconstructing the segment with the help of the context (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Inferencing (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; LI, 2013) - Inference (KALINA, 1998; LI, 2015) - Anticipation or inferencing (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014)	• To reconstruct or recover information • Based on the context of the source speech or on general knowledge
6. Restructuring	- Changing the order of elements in an enumeration (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Changing the order of phrases or elements of other type within the clause (DONATO, 2003), - Changing the order of elements (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006) - Restructuring or changing order (LI, 2013, 2015) - Changing the order of phrases (HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Syntactic transformation (KALINA, 1998), - (Re)structure messages (WU; LIAO, 2018)	• Source-speech elements appear in a different position in the target speech

Table 12 – Correspondence between all strategies identified on the reviewed literature (continue)

Strategy name	Names given by each author	Strategy main characteristics
	- Completion (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014)	
7. Morphosyntactic transformation	- Morphosyntactic transformation and least-commitment strategy (DONATO, 2003) - Syntactic transformation (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Paraphrase by changing sentence structures (WU; LIAO, 2018) - Morpho-syntactic transformation (LI, 2013, 2015)	• Source and target speech elements or words appear in a different order • Source and target speech different syntactic construction
8. Generalization	- Replacing a segment with a superordinate term or a more general speech segment (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Generalization (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Compression (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006) - Compression, or condensation, or summarizing, or filtering (LI, 2013, 2015) - Generalization or compression (BARAKAT, 2018) - Generalizing (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Use a more general term (WU; LIAO, 2018) - Compression through generalization (KALINA, 1998)	• To replace a source-speech element with a more general and concise one
9. Simplification	- Simplification (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Compression through simplification (KALINA, 1998)	• Lexical or stylistic simplification
10. Approximation	- Substitution or approximation (DONATO, 2003) - Substitution (HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Approximation (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Approximation or attenuation (LI, 2013, 2015) - Use a similar term (WU; LIAO, 2018)	• To use a word or term close in meaning and plausible in the context
11. Addition	- Explanatory additions and additions to maintain coherence (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Addition (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006) - Text expansion, or addition, or elaboration (LI, 2013, 2015) - Adaptation (LI, 2015) - Expanding (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Add cohesive words (WU; LIAO, 2018) - Text expansion (KALINA, 1998) - Explicitation and adaptation (PÖCHHACKER, 2004)	• To expand or explicit the source-speech content • Goal: to clarify the message or facilitate the understanding of the target audience
12. Omission	- Omitting the content of a speech segment (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Deletion and evasion (DONATO, 2003) - Omission (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Omission, or skipping, or ellipsis, or message abandonment and evasion, or neutralization (LI, 2013) - Omission, or skipping, or message abandonment and evasion, or neutralization (LI, 2015) - Omit secondary information and select important messages (WU; LIAO, 2018)	• To delete redundant, repetitive, or superfluous information • Involves selection of information • Goal: to evade a problem

Table 12 – Correspondence between all strategies identified on the reviewed literature (continue)

Strategy name	Names given by each author	Strategy main characteristics
	- Text compression and compression through selection and through deletion (KALINA, 1998) - Condensing and prioritizing (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Compression and implicitation (PÖCHHACKER, 2004)	
13. Repetition	- Repetition (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016; LI, 2013, 2015) - Rephrase ideas previously mentioned (WU; LIAO, 2018)	• To repeat previously processed elements using synonyms or synonymic elements
14. Paraphrase or explaining	- Paraphrase (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) - Paraphrasing or explaining (GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2013, 2015) - Paraphrasing (BARAKAT, 2018; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 1998) - Explain and paraphrase by adjusting messages (WU; LIAO, 2018)	• To explain the meaning of a source-speech element • Used in cases when a target-speech equivalent was not found
15. Transcoding	- Transcoding and form-based interpreting (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Transcoding (BARAKAT, 2018; DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; HAN; CHEN, 2016; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 1998) - Transcodage (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006) - Transcodage, or transcoding, or calque (LI, 2013, 2015)	• Word-for-word interpretation
16. Parallel reformulation	- Parallel reformulation (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]) - Parallel reformulation or substitution (LI, 2013, 2015) - Parallel constructions (BARAKAT, 2018)	• To invent something plausible in the context • Goal: to avoid leaving sentences unfinished or producing long pauses
17. Repair	- Repair and no-repair (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; LI, 2013, 2015) - Correction (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014) - Repair (BARAKAT, 2018; HAN; CHEN, 2016; WU; LIAO, 2018) - Self-correction and decision for no-correction (KALINA, 1998)	• Self-correction or decision for no self-correction
18. Reproduction	- Reproducing the sound heard in the source-language speech and instant naturalization (GILE, 2009[1995]) - Reproduction (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; HAN; CHEN, 2016; LI, 2015) - Transliteration (BARAKAT, 2018)	• To leave a word or a phrase untranslated

Source: the author.

The 18 strategies listed in Table 12 are investigated in the present thesis because of their characteristics, the objectives of this study and the corpus of analysis.

They can be applied to simultaneous interpreting (the mode of interpreting under scrutiny in this thesis), they may refer to the interpreting process and/or product (both can be related to the cognitive effort expended by the participants, an aspect investigated by this thesis), they can be planned or unplanned actions (which can also be related to the cognitive effort expended by the participants), and they may or may not be related to interpreting norms (another aspect investigated in this thesis). They are defined and described in the following subsections.

1.2.1 Extending or narrowing the ear-voice-span (flexible décalage)

"Ear-Voice-Span", i.e., EVS, also called "time lag" or "*décalage*", refers to the interval between the moment interpreters hear a speech segment and the moment they start rendering it in the target language (GILE, 2009[1995]; GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972; TIMAROVÁ, 2015). Some authors (e.g., LI, 2013) suggest that extending or narrowing this interval is a strategy specific to simultaneous interpreting and it reflects how interpreters segment their texts into units of meaning (GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972; PÖCHHACKER, 2016).

Several factors play a role in determining the interpreters' use of this strategy. According to Kohn and Kalina (1996), it can be used at the very beginning of the interpreting task or after a topic shift so that interpreters can listen to as much information as needed before start rendering their target speech. It may also be used to maintain, in the target speech, a delivery rate similar to the one of the source speech (TIMAROVÁ, 2015). Therefore, an interpreter's ability to extend or to narrow the EVS can be particularly important for a successful interpreting performance (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014), since it may indicate that a cognitive processing is happening or can reflect an interpreting problem (TIMAROVÁ, 2015).

When the EVS is extended, some problems may arise because short-term memory can become overloaded. In such cases, interpreters may lose information of segments in a sequence, omit complete segments (GILE, 2009[1995]), or deliver the target speech in a fast speed (LEE, 2002). On the other hand, segments with abstract ideas are instances where the EVS may be successfully extended, allowing interpreters to have more time to analyze and reformulate the information heard (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). By the same token, narrowing the EVS may lead to problems as well. In this case, the anticipation potential is reduced, so the risk of

misunderstanding may increase and interpreters may produce incomplete target-language sentences (GILE, 2009[1995]). A shorter EVS, however, may result in a positive outcome, when used in segments with lists, names and numbers, for instance, because they do not demand much processing before reformulation (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014).

There are different ways of measuring the EVS. Defrancq (2015) found that most studies identify semantically equivalent lexical items in the source and target speeches and compare them. In early studies (GERVER, 1969; GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972), it was measured in words (e.g., content words) and other linguistic constituents (e.g., sentences), i.e., these studies counted (and assessed) how many words (and the type of words) interpreters need to listen before start uttering their target speech. According to Gerver (1969), when this measurement methodology is used, average EVS length is four to five words.

Recent studies (DEFRANCQ, 2015; TIMAROVÁ *et al.*, 2014; TIMAROVÁ, 2015), however, have measured the EVS in units of time, i.e., pauses (measured in seconds). Pauses may be defined as "behavioral reflections of the cognitive processes involved in changing attentional states" (SCHILPEROORD, 1996, p. 9). They may be physical pauses, which normally last less than 0.25 seconds, and indicate breathing or articulatory movements, i.e., they do not indicate cognitive processing. Or they may be communicative pauses, which last longer than 0.25 seconds, and may be a time interval given by interpreters to the audience to comprehend the message expressed, or it can reflect the interpreters' acts of listening and processing a unit of meaning before re-expressing it in the target language (SCHILPEROORD, 1996). This last type of pause can be considered a cognitive pause and is the one relevant to this measurement methodology. When pauses are the reference for measuring the EVS, its average length is between 2 and 4 seconds (DEFRANCQ, 2015; LEE, 2002; TIMAROVÁ *et al.*, 2014; TIMAROVÁ, 2015).

The EVS length, however, can reach up to 10 seconds or be negative, i.e., when interpreters start uttering the target speech before the speaker utters the equivalent source speech. Research has indicated, however, that intervals longer than 4 seconds may reflect a processing problem, which tend to lead to inaccuracy in the target speech (LEE, 2003). According to Schilperoord (1996), the longer the pause, the more effortful the cognitive process taking place. Kohn and Kalina (1996) list language pair, directionality, memory capacity and fatigue as processing problems

which may lead to longer pauses. Kalina (2015b) also include the delivery characteristics of the source speech.

The strategy of extending or narrowing the EVS is defined in the present research as the interpreters' act of varying the EVS length (measured in seconds) at the beginning of the interpreting task or after a topic shift (KOHN; KALINA, 1996). Pauses measuring between 2 and 4 seconds are here taken as EVS of average length (DEFRANCQ, 2015; LEE, 2002; TIMAROVÁ *et al.*, 2014; TIMAROVÁ, 2015); pauses longer than 4 seconds (LEE, 2003) are here considered as extended EVS; and pauses between 0.25 seconds – i.e., longer than a physical pause (SCHILPEROORD, 1996) – and 2 seconds are here deemed as narrowed EVS.

1.2.2 Chunking

Chunking (segmentation or 'salami technique') is the act of decomposing an input into processing-relevant units (PÖCHHACKER, 2015), also called processing units, speech segments or chunks. By doing so, interpreters do not adhere to the source-speech sentence structure and make the target speech understandable to the target audience. This division (or segmentation) can happen at the lexical and/or semantic level (PADILLA; BAJO, 2015) and it may involve dividing long sentences into shorter, self-contained processing units with no pre-defined length (e.g., a word or an entire sentence), or merging a sequence of source-speech sentences into one (DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; JONES, 2002; PÖCHHACKER, 2015).

The most likely use of chunking may be to ease the analysis of the incoming text (LIONTOU, 2011), providing relief to short-term memory, and facilitating memory storage (GILE, 2009[1995]). Therefore, it may allow interpreters to process the message without overloading their processing capacity (LI, 2015). As short-term memory storage is highly demanded during simultaneous interpreting tasks, this strategy can be considered specific to this interpreting mode (GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972; KIRCHHOFF, 2002; LI, 2013; SETTON, 1999; WU; LIAO, 2018).

Chunking can also be used by interpreters as a strategy to deal with long, complicated, or unclear sentences in the source speech, as well as with sentences with embedded structures (JONES, 2002; LI, 2015). Likewise, it can be relatively important when the source and target languages are syntactically different (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; PÖCHHACKER, 2015), e.g., when the source language is SVO

(subject-verb-object) and the target language is SOV (subject-object-verb). Consequently, chunking can overlap with morphosyntactic transformation and can be related to a specific language pair (DONATO, 2003; LEE, 2007; LI, 2013; PADILLA; BAJO, 2015).

The relationship between pauses and chunking has been widely researched. According to Lederer (1978), chunks of sense may come after a pause or a few probing words. Gerver (1971) explains this by saying that the act of speaking is fragmented and interrupted by silence intervals, which can vary in length depending on the source speech's delivery rate, so that interpreters can completely understand the source message, process it and re-express it in the target language. Therefore, pause time may be indicative of interpreters' segmentation pattern, i.e., it may reflect the segmentation of the source speech into processing units (PÖCHHACKER, 2016).

Besides pauses, intonation is another tool interpreters use to segment their target speeches (ČEŇKOVÁ, 1989). According to Ahrens (2005, p. 53), intonation is "the pitch contour of an utterance" and can be identified through the movements of rising and falling the pitch's boundary tones of an utterance[2]. The rising pitch implies that the sentence is not finished, and the falling pitch implies that the sentence is concluded. By using these movements of rising and falling, as well as pauses (MARTELLINI, 2013), speakers segment their utterances into tone units or chunks. Listeners (or interpreters), in turn, use the source-speech intonation and pauses to segment what they are listening to during their comprehension process. Depending on the availability of short-term memory and/or management of attentional resources, interpreters produce different tone units from the ones heard, i.e., they segment the target speech differently from the source-speech segmentation (AHRENS, 2004; GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972; SETTON, 1999).

Considering the account above, this research defines chunking as the act of splitting or merging the source speech into processing-relevant segments. These segments are here delimited by pauses and by the rising and falling pitches of utterances. In other words, it is considered a segment an utterance which starts with a rising pitch after a pause longer than 0.25 seconds (a value longer than a physical

[2] This MA thesis does not aim at exploring prosodic features related to simultaneous interpreting. Only the basic concepts about intonation and pitch movements, taken from Ahrens (2015, 2005), were used to describe and identify the chunking strategy. This is the reason why the present research does not provide further details about these elements.

pause) and which ends with a falling pitch followed by a pause longer than 0.25 seconds (AHRENS, 2004, 2005, 2015; MARTELLINI, 2013).

1.2.3 Delaying response

Delaying response, also called waiting or stalling, refers to the act of deferring target speech production. Interpreters can perform this delay by pausing the production for a few seconds, or, instead, they can choose to utter generic utterances (not found in the source speech). The last option can be an alternative to avoid leaving the audience in complete silence (DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; PÖCHHACKER, 2004). Since this strategy can relate to pauses, it may or may not overlap with the lengthening or narrowing the EVS and chunking strategies.

Normally, it is used when interpreters have not listened to enough material to comprehend the source speech or to produce the target speech. Thus, it allows interpreters to wait for more source-speech input or to search for a term or sentence structure that is socially and/or culturally adequate to the target audience (GILE, 2009[1995]; SETTON, 1999). Delaying response is also normally employed after segments that seem to cause difficulties for most interpreters, i.e., after problem triggers as referred to by Gile (2009[1995]).

These problem triggers may be related to the comprehension of a word or of an entire sentence (words such as names and numbers, especially when they are in an enumeration) or to the retrieval of information in short-term memory (mostly due to high information density) (GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2013). Specific source-speech features may also represent problem triggers which can be tackled by using delaying response. High source-speech delivery rate, unfamiliar accents, poor voice quality, and momentary lapses of attention are some of them (GILE, 2009[1995]). Finally, these problem triggers can also be related to syntactic differences between languages (PÖCHHACKER, 2004) or to restructuring problems imposed by sentences with long-distance dependencies, such as sentences with left branching structures, i.e., with the verb in the final position (GILE, 2009[1995]; SETTON, 1999). When the languages involved in the task are syntactically very different, some of these problematic segments may also appear.

According to Jones (2002), delaying response allows interpreters to be sure they will finish the sentence they are producing, which contributes to the audience's

comprehension of the target speech. When the delaying includes the production of generic utterances, it allows interpreters to avoid long periods of silence during output production (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; CHANG, 2005; GILE, 2009[1995]; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2015). When the delaying is done by pausing, it may involve lengthening or narrowing the EVS, but only for a few seconds, because if interpreters wait for a long period, it may lead to accumulation of information in short-term memory, besides making the audience uncomfortable. This accumulation may, in turn, lead to increased cognitive processing, thus making interpreters lose segments in a sequence (GILE, 2009[1995]) and producing an incomprehensible output.

In this MA thesis, delaying response is defined as the interpreters' act of deferring the production by pausing or by producing generic utterances after the appearance of segments which have a potential to trigger a processing problem (GILE, 2009[1995]). Generic utterances, for the present study, consist of segments that have no correspondence in the source speech. Additionally, the pauses considered relevant for the identification of delaying response are the ones longer than 4 seconds. These kind of pauses may indicate processing problems (LEE, 2003), as described in Subsection 1.2.1, the kind of problems which this strategy aims at solving.

1.2.4 Anticipation

Anticipation occurs when a target-speech element (e.g., an idea, a word, or an entire sentence) is uttered by interpreters before speakers utter the source-speech equivalent (DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; JONES, 2002; RICCARDI, 2002; SETTON, 1999). Lederer (1978, p. 330) considers anticipation as an interpreter's act of grasping "the intended meaning of a speaker before he finishes his sentence." This anticipation can happen based on linguistic knowledge (language prediction or linguistic anticipation) or on knowledge of any aspect of the speech or of the interpreting session (sense expectation anticipation or semantic anticipation) (GILE, 2009[1995]; KIRCHHOFF, 2002; LEDERER, 1978; LI, 2015; LIONTOU, 2011; PÖCHHACKER, 2016; SETTON, 1999).

Interpreters can employ linguistic anticipation based on cues such as lexical collocations and formulas, suprasegmental features, function words, connectives, subordinators and/or syntactic structures (subject-object-verb vs. subject-verb-object languages), i.e., interpreters may predict what the speaker is going to say based on

their knowledge of familiar lexicon-grammatical patterns. In contrast, interpreters can employ knowledge anticipation based on the knowledge they have about any of the aspects involved in the interpreting session: the speaker, the audience, the place where it is happening, the speech's domain and/or the interpreters' world knowledge. In this case, interpreters may predict the speaker's aim before s/he starts producing a specific element; thus, they can anticipate ideas and information, and utter the target speech before the speaker utters the source speech.

Anticipation is described in the literature (LI, 2013; LIONTOU, 2011; SETTON, 1999) as an essential strategy to deal with structurally different languages, especially languages with left-branching structures, such as German. Therefore, it can be considered a language-specific strategy. It is also significant for simultaneous interpreting as it can relieve the workload imposed by the constraints of this mode (LI, 2013; LIONTOU, 2015). By anticipating the content to be uttered, interpreters can have enough processing capacity available to deal with problems that may arise later in the speech. As a result, anticipation may allow interpreters to save time and improve their output. Jones (2002) observes, however, that interpreters should be careful to utter exactly what the speaker is saying rather than what they consider logical, i.e., they should not utter their own speeches but the message expressed by the speaker. Otherwise, they will risk producing a target speech completely different from the source speech.

Because this strategy involves shortening the time lag between the source and the target speech production, it often overlaps with another strategy, namely, narrowing the EVS. Oftentimes anticipation can be employed along with a negative EVS, as interpreters are ahead of what the speaker is about to utter (DEFRANCQ, 2015). Anticipation can often overlap with restructuring or morphosyntactic transformation as well, considering that interpreters need to reformulate the target speech being uttered, as they do not know exactly how the speaker is about to utter the source speech (JONES, 2002).

The present research considers as anticipation all occurrences in which interpreters utter the target speech before the speaker utters the source-speech equivalent. It can be identified by comparing source and target speeches in parallel, i.e., the begin time (in milliseconds) of the source speech and that of the target speech are compared. When the begin time of the target-speech segment appears earlier than

the begin time of the equivalent source speech, then the segment is considered as an anticipation (LIONTOU, 2011).

1.2.5 Reconstruction

This strategy refers to the interpreters' attempt to restore source-speech elements (segments, words, sentences, etc.) that they could not hear or that were lost or forgotten in the interpreting process. It can also be used to reconstruct segments with information interpreters could not understand (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2013). These elements can be technical terms, names and/or numbers, which are considered of little redundancy and can easily be lost due to momentary lapses of attention (GILE, 2009[1995]). This reconstruction, in some cases, are used to allow interpreters to utter their target speeches even before the source speech is uttered. Therefore, it can sometimes overlap with anticipation (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 1998). The present study considers as reconstruction the interpreters' act of reconstructing source-speech elements not heard, not understood, lost, or forgotten.

Oftentimes, to reconstruct the source speech, interpreters may resort to fragments that appear before or after the problematic segment, i.e., they may resort to the linguistic context of the speech. They may also use their extralinguistic knowledge, be it their domain knowledge of the speech and/or their general world knowledge. Since this strategy demands waiting time for interpreters to receive more information from input, or for them to process their extralinguistic knowledge to perform reconstruction, it requires extra processing capacity availability from interpreters. Consequently, employing it can lead to cognitive saturation and deficient output (GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2015).

1.2.6 Restructuring

This strategy has been called differently by several authors: changing order (LI, 2013, 2015), changing the order of phrases (HAN; CHEN, 2016) or of elements (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]), and syntactic transformation (KALINA, 1998). Even so, all these authors refer to the interpreters' act of changing the sequence of source-speech elements during target-speech production,

i.e., some source-speech elements are uttered by the interpreter in a different order in the target speech. This is the definition adopted in the present study.

This strategy can be used with the aim to make the target speech more idiomatic, i.e., to make the source speech closer to the target-language structure and to the target culture. As a consequence, interpreters can avoid excessive interference from the source language in the target speech (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2013; RICCARDI, 2002) as it can be used "even where this is not required by linguistic norms" (KALINA, 2015b, p. 403). Additionally, restructuring can be helpful in saving processing capacity, as interpreters can free short-term memory quickly, especially if the elements uttered first are names, numbers or other elements which can be transcoded or reproduced phonetically without much processing (GILE, 2009[1995]). Thus, it may overlap with the transcoding and reproduction strategies.

Restructuring can be applied particularly to enumerations (GILE, 2009[1995]; HAN; CHEN, 2016) and unknown words (JONES, 2002), and at word or sentence (LIONTOU, 2011). The use of this strategy may be linked to the language pair, as it occurs when interpreters decide not to use a parallel structure (DONATO, 2003; LI, 2013; RICCARDI, 1995). However, Wu and Liao (2018) suggest restructuring should be used carefully in the simultaneous mode, as it can affect the listening of the incoming information.

1.2.7 Morphosyntactic transformation

Morphosyntactic transformation is a type of restructuring that entails changing not only the order of the elements in a sentence, but also the sentence's syntactic structure. By employing it, interpreters use a different syntactic construction to express the source speech's meaning, trying to depart from its surface structure (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; LI, 2013). In the present research, morphosyntactic transformation is defined as the interpreters' act of modifying the source speech's syntactic construction during target speech production.

Unlike restructuring, morphosyntactic transformation can happen not only at the sentence level, but also at inter-sentential level (HAN; CHEN, 2016). This transformation may involve converting a negative clause into an affirmative clause, subordinate clauses into main clauses, noun phrases into verb phrases, active voice into passive voice, etc. (DONATO, 2003; LI, 2015).

Interpreters may resort to morphosyntactic transformation to achieve a more idiomatic target speech. However, to employ it, interpreters need to have good comprehension and reformulation skills, since it demands a high amount of processing capacity. Because of that, it is used less frequently, especially if the syntactic structures of the languages involved are similar (HAN; CHEN, 2016; KIRCHHOFF, 2002).

1.2.8 Generalization

Besides generalization, this strategy is also called by many other names: compression (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KALINA, 1998), condensation, summarizing, filtering (LI, 2013, 2015), and replacing a segment with a superordinate term or a more general speech segment (GILE, 2009[1995]). It involves compressing the source-speech message by reformulating the information in a more generic or concise fashion, usually by using superordinate terms or general sentences (DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). This MA thesis defines generalization as the interpreters' act of expressing source-speech elements more generically or concisely.

When using this strategy, interpreters usually summarize the source-speech content in order to deal with high time pressure, memory limitations or reformulation difficulties (CHANG, 2005; GILE, 2009[1995]; JONES, 2002; LI, 2015; WU; LIAO, 2018). These difficulties may be momentary and make interpreters lose or not retrieve source-speech segments in short-term memory. Some of them may be related to the comprehension of source-speech information (BARAKAT, 2018; GILE, 2009[1995]).

Furthermore, generalization can be used to deal with lexical or semantic problems, with detailed or complex ideas, as well as with technical words, lists of items/concepts and/or elements for which interpreters could not find an exact rendition (WU; LIAO, 2018). The target speech, when generalized, may become less accurate, but still re-expresses the source-speech message (GILE, 2009[1995]). Additionally, as this strategy involves deleting or omitting repetitive, unimportant, and/or redundant elements (LI, 2013; LIONTOU, 2011), it often implies some overlap with the omission strategy.

1.2.9 Simplification

Simplification means reducing the complexity of the source speech (JONES, 2002). It can involve lexical or stylistic simplification (DONATO, 2003). Interpreters tend to use this strategy when they find segments difficult to interpret, when they have a comprehension deficit (language or content related), or when they are under time pressure and adverse interpreting conditions (LIONTOU, 2011), e.g., a high source-speech delivery rate. Examples of simplification can be rendering technical details or higher register terms or expressions more colloquially, depending on the reactions of the target audience (JONES, 2002).

This strategy can be considered an instance of extreme generalization (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). As such, the target speech uttered may be less accurate than the source speech, and it may overlap with the omission strategy. The present research defines simplification as the interpreters' act of reducing source-speech complexity lexically or stylistically.

1.2.10 Approximation

This strategy, also called substitution (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016) or attenuation (LI, 2013, 2015), is generally applied when interpreters employ a synonym, a less precise term or a semantically related term to a source-speech element for which they cannot recall the exact rendition (BARAKAT, 2018; DONATO, 2003; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; LI, 2013, 2015).

It generally happens when interpreters are not able to retrieve source-speech elements (WU; LIAO, 2018) or when they want to detach from the source-speech sentence structure. Albeit different, the target speech uttered must be close to the source-speech meaning and plausible in the target context (DONATO, 2003). Referring to general quantities, instead of specific numbers, might be an example of this strategy use (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). Since the use of approximation involves changing the source speech content, it may overlap with the omission strategy.

Approximation may help interpreters avoid long pauses and keep pace with the source-speech delivery, as it collaborates with the interpreters' reformulation process (BARAKAT, 2018). This strategy can be considered a language-independent strategy, as it is not linked to the linguistic features of the source language, i.e., it can be used in any language combination (DONATO, 2003). In the present research,

approximation is defined as the interpreters' act of using a synonym, a less precise term or a semantically related term to replace a source-speech element.

1.2.11 Addition

Addition is a widely investigated strategy and there are several terms to refer to it. Some authors even propose a more general term and then divide it into subcategories. Kalina (1998) calls it expansion, Donato (2003) divides it into explanatory addition and addition to maintain coherence, and Li (2015) calls it adaptation. It is also called elaboration (LI, 2013, 2015) and expanding (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). Some of these terms entails small differences when compared to others, but their basic definition remains across the authors.

Broadly speaking, addition refers to the act of inserting in the target speech content or cultural information not uttered by the speaker (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 2015b; LI, 2013, 2015; LIONTOU, 2011; PÖCHHACKER, 2016). Some additions can be necessary, i.e., when the target audience is not understanding or will not understand the source-speech message due to cultural gaps. Cultural and institutional references with no direct equivalent in the target language are examples of this type of addition (JONES, 2002). Other additions may not be necessary, but interpreters choose to produce a more explicit target speech as a way of enhancing it. Information may also be added to provide logical continuity and coherence to the target speech (DONATO, 2003; RICCARDI, 2002).

The use of this strategy can be considered an error when the information added has no connection with the source speech or with the communicative situation. The same holds true for when it introduces a new meaning or new relationships to the source-speech message (FALBO, 2015). Besides, the use of addition may require more of interpreters' time and cognitive processing, especially when they need to think of a rendition more adequate to the target language and/or culture. As such, it is less frequently used, as interpreters might think they do not have this extra time (HAN; CHEN, 2016; JONES, 2002).

This strategy does not refer to the act of adding words, but of adding ideas or pieces of information (JONES, 2002; WU; LIAO, 2018). Addition is defined in this thesis as the act of inserting in the target speech information, content or culture-related, not uttered by the speaker. It may involve attempts of repair or the use of synonyms,

but in this thesis, it is considered addition only when information is added to clarify or enhance the source speech, and not when previously processed elements are corrected or repeated.

1.2.12 Omission

Omission is a strategy that has been under scrutiny by several interpreting researchers, leading to a myriad of definitions and terms referring to it. Most authors (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2013, 2015; NAPIER, 2004) call it omission, but others (DONATO, 2003; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 1998; PÖCHHACKER, 2004) propose different names (such as compression, deletion, evasion, ellipsis, message abandonment) and suggest subdivisions based on slightly different features of the same process.

A general definition, the one adopted in the present research, would be the act of deleting input when producing the target speech. However, Wu and Liao (2018, p. 198) observe:

> depending on research purposes and units of analysis, omission can refer to the deletion of lexical items (NAPIER, 2004), of messages (CHANG, 2005), of information (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; NAPIER, 2004; WANG, 2012b), of concepts (NAPIER, 2004), or of a segment of content (GILE, 2009[1995]) from the original speech. […] The information omitted might be relatively less important (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; WANG, 2012b), repetitive and redundant (AL-SALMAN; AL-KHANJI, 2002; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; LI, 2015), not transferable due to cultural differences (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; LI, 2015; NAPIER, 2004), or due to stylistic considerations (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006).

Omission may involve the deletion of an entire clause or informative unit, (DONATO, 2003), partial or complete loss of an idea (FALBO, 2015), and even the complete disappearance of certain source-speech elements (LI, 2013). Interpreters may resort to omissions due to difficulties related to the speech topic, information density, or high source speech delivery rate (JONES, 2002). When these difficulties are found, omissions can be used to avoid long pauses (DONATO, 2003), especially when interpreters are under great time pressure (LI, 2013). Either way, several studies agree that, even with the omission of some elements, the target speech must maintain coherence and completeness of the source-speech message (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014), so that interpreting quality is also assured (GARZONE, 2002).

The interpreters' level of consciousness when using this strategy has been subject of debate. Kalina (2015a, p. 73) points out that it is "hard to draw the line between intentional information reduction by strategic compression and more or less conscious omission, or 'reduced' or 'zero' renditions". Gile (2009[1995]) argues that omission is a deliberately chosen strategy, as it requires a filtering mechanism to decide which piece of information is important and which one is not (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014). However, interpreters may sometimes omit unconsciously because of processing capacity saturation (GILE, 2009[1995]), i.e., the segment uttered by the speaker may disappear from the interpreters' short-term memory, leaving a pause as replacement. Sometimes an omission may appear as a consequence of comprehension or reformulation problems (BARAKAT, 2018), and can even ensue in situations in which it is not required (DIRIKER, 2015). In such cases, it can lead to errors and make the target speech lose perspective of the source speech (FALBO, 2015).

Omission can overlap with extending the ear-voice-span (BARIK, 1975), as it may involve some level of reformulation, a process which takes some extra time to occur. Generalization, approximation, simplification, paraphrase or explaining and parallel reformulation may also involve some level of omission of pieces of information, thus overlapping with this strategy. Finally, as omission is mostly applied under high time pressure, it can be considered an alternative to deal with processing constraints of the simultaneous mode, thereby being a mode-specific strategy (PÖCHHACKER, 2016).

1.2.13 Repetition

Repetition can be defined as the interpreters' act of iterating previously processed elements, i.e., elements already interpreted, through synonyms or synonymic phrases (DONATO, 2003; HAN; CHEN, 2016; LI, 2013, 2015; WU; LIAO, 2018). This definition is adopted in the present study.

It can be used to enhance lexical accuracy or to give interpreters some extra processing time when faced with a difficulty. This extra time may allow interpreters to organize the speech they are about to utter in the target language (LI, 2013) or to avoid long pauses (WU; LIAO, 2018). Furthermore, repetition may overlap with addition, as

interpreters may use a synonym to clarify a piece of information uttered by the speaker. When this overlapping occurs, it is considered only repetition (LI, 2015).

1.2.14 Paraphrase or explaining

This strategy consists of interpreters explaining the meaning of a source-speech element instead of translating it, i.e., interpreters produce different phrases compared to the source speech, to explain the meaning of a source-speech element. They do so by using sentence structures and/or resources available to them at delivery time (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; DONATO, 2003; GILE, 2009[1995]; HAN; CHEN, 2016; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; LI, 2015; WU; LIAO, 2018). This is the definition of paraphrase adopted by the present research.

It is primarily used when interpreters have understood the source element, but failed to grasp a target-speech equivalent, due to time pressure or linguistic constraints (GILE, 2009[1995]). Additionally, it may sometimes be used as an alternative for words or elements which have no equivalent in the target language, due to culture-related aspects (BARAKAT, 2018; LI, 2015). In such cases, paraphrasing can be an alternative to clarify the source-speech meaning and to produce a more idiomatic target speech (BARAKAT, 2018). Moreover, this strategy can ease the cognitive processing caused by linguistic constraints, especially when used in simultaneous interpreting tasks (LI, 2015).

Since interpreters explain the source elements by using different constructions, or even by omitting some pieces of information, it may involve, and overlap with, morphosyntactic transformation and omission (DONATO, 2003; WU; LIAO, 2018). As a result, it can end up consuming a great deal of the interpreters' time and processing capacity, affecting their memory and ability to listen, comprehend and utter segments that comes in sequence (BARAKAT, 2018; GILE, 2009[1995]). When this strategy is employed, the target speech should preserve the source speech's core message and linguistic register as much as possible (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014).

1.2.15 Transcoding

Transcoding, transcodage or calque is defined by several scholars (BARAKAT, 2018; GILE, 2009[1995]; HAN; CHEN, 2016; KALINA, 2015b; LI, 2015; LIONTOU, 2011) as word-for-word translation of the source speech, the same

definition adopted in this MA thesis. It is a “translation without deverbalization, when words are translated from one language into another through the use of conventionally pre-established equivalences”[3] (PAGURA, 2012, p. 97). It is successfully applied, and even advisable, for rendering proper nouns, lists of items, numbers, acronyms, and specific technical words (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; KALINA, 2015b; LIONTOU, 2011; PAGURA, 2012). Occasionally, transcoding can be used to interpret entire sentences and it may still produce an acceptable target speech. It can happen when both target and source languages share similar grammatical patterns (DEFRANCQ, 2015).

The use of this strategy may allow interpreters to successfully deal with time pressure constraints and the concurrence of listening and speaking (LI, 2015), as it allows the recovery of most of the source-speech message, thus saving time and processing capacity (BARAKAT, 2018). Additionally, because it allows interpreters to avoid extending too much the ear-voice-span, transcoding is applied more frequently at the beginning of the interpreting session (LEDERER, 1978). This strategy is also an alternative when interpreters could not grasp the overall meaning of a source-speech element (LI, 2013) or when they seek to render it as quickly as possible (KADER; SEUBERT, 2014).

Most of the times, however, the use of transcoding may indicate that the interpreter failed to understand the meaning of the source-speech segment (KALINA, 2015b; LEDERER, 1981) and it may result in a clumsy, erroneous, nonsensical, and sometimes even unintelligible output. The target speech, when transcoding is not properly used, can become more hesitant, less idiomatic, and unclear to the audience, with mispronunciations and false cognates (JONES, 2002). Because of that, this strategy can be associated with great linguistic interference, especially when entire syntactic structures are transcoded. In such cases, it can lead to syntactic or semantic distortions, grammatical errors, and unfinished sentences (GILE, 2009[1995]; JONES, 2002).

1.2.16 Parallel reformulation

This strategy may also be called parallel construction (BARAKAT, 2018). It is the interpreters’ act of expressing something that was not uttered by the speaker,

[3] In the original: “tradução sem desverbalização, em que se traduzem as palavras de uma língua por equivalências convencionalmente pre-estabelecidas em outra língua” (PAGURA, 2012, p. 97).

but that is plausible in the context, i.e., compatible with the rest of the source speech (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; KALINA, 2015b; LI, 2013, 2015; STRANIERO SERGIO, 2003; WU; LIAO, 2018). This is the definition adopted in the present research. Since it can involve the deletion of some, sometimes all, source-speech elements, this strategy may overlap with omission.

Interpreters resort to it as an attempt to avoid pausing or leaving sentences unfinished (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; CHANG, 2005; KOHN; KALINA, 1996; LI, 2013), especially when they cannot understand or reformulate the source speech accordingly due to poor working conditions or to cognitive overload (GILE, 2009[1995]). By doing so, interpreters release their memory to process more incoming information without jeopardizing the target speech. However, the result may not always be positive, as interpreters can end up overloading their processing capacity and delivering an incomprehensible output or one which is incompatible with the source speech (BARAKAT, 2018).

1.2.17 Repair

Repair is the interpreters' act of correcting themselves after realizing they have made a mistake during target speech production. The mistake can be a slip of the tongue, a meaning error, or a misinterpretation of the source speech. It can also be a result of false starts, incorrect anticipations, or other disruptions. Besides, interpreters may apply it if they think of a more accurate rendition of a source-speech segment already interpreted (BARAKAT, 2018; BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; LI, 2013, 2015; LIONTOU, 2011; MEAD, 2015a). Additionally, the interpreters' correction should be semantically closer to the source speech (DEFRANCQ, 2015) and it should guarantee accuracy and coherence to the target speech, besides correcting linguistic errors (MEAD, 2015a). However, it may generate problems, as interpreters may spend processing capacity thinking of a correction and may end up missing the next input segment, and, consequently, producing more mistakes (MEAD, 2015a).

According to Mead (2015b), there are overt and covert repairs. An overt repair is an explicit correction, i.e., when interpreters express that they are making a correction. This kind of correction is rare because it evinces interpreters' fault and may compromise their credibility (GILE, 2009[1995]). A covert repair is more common and happens when interpreters start uttering an equivalent target speech, and after

realizing they had made a mistake, immediately utter a more satisfactory version of the source-speech segment (MEAD, 2015b).

This strategy can overlap with narrowing EVS, i.e., interpreters may start their rendition shortly after or before the speaker and, after listening to more source input, they realize that what was said is a mistake and try to correct it (DEFRANCQ, 2015). Moreover, repair can overlap with repetition and addition, since it may entail the addition of elements not uttered by the speaker, or the repetition of something already uttered by the interpreter, as an attempt to better express the target speech (LI, 2015).

Some authors describe a counterpart strategy called no-repair (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; KALINA, 1998; LI, 2013, 2015). It is used when interpreters realize they have made a mistake but decide not to correct it. This decision considers that the repair may demand even more processing capacity, thus causing additional problems to the interpreting process, or that the mistake may not be detrimental to source speech meaning. Li (2013) highlights that no-repair is not the same as making an error of which the interpreter is unaware, but rather a conscious and strategic decision to leave it as it is.

The present study defines repair as the interpreters' act of self-correction after the acknowledgment of a mistake in the output. The decision of not correcting a mistake (no-repair) is not investigated here because it is not noticeable through the analysis of source and target speeches in parallel. Finally, the overlapping between repair and addition, or repair and repetition, is here considered only as repair, as already explained in Subsections 1.2.11 and 1.2.13.

1.2.18 Reproduction

This strategy is defined as replicating a word or phrase as it appears in the source speech, i.e., interpreters repeat the sound of what was said as closely as they can (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; HAN; CHEN, 2016; LI, 2015). It can be used when interpreters are unable to translate the source-speech term. It is used especially with unknown names or technical terms. This MA thesis considers reproduction the interpreters' act of keeping a source-speech word or phrase untranslated in the target speech.

Sometimes, reproduction passes unnoticed by the audience, which can be considered a successful use of it. However, sometimes the reproduced term is well-

known to the audience. In this case, the reproduction may discredit the interpreter as the audience may notice the interpreter did not know how to translate it. In other cases, the source-language and target-language lexicons may be morphologically similar, which allows interpreters to reproduce a source-speech term. The drawback is that a target-speech equivalent for this term may already exist, and the reproduction may as well be noticed by the audience; in this case, it may still be effective or, once again, it may discredit the interpreter (GILE, 2009[1995]). There may be situations when interpreters unintentionally repeat a source-speech word; in such cases, this action is referred to as interference from the source language, and not counted as strategic reproduction (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006).

1.2.19 Summary

Table 13 presents a summary of the definitions proposed by the present research to the 18 strategies described in Subsections 1.2.1 to 1.2.18. These definitions are used in the data analysis in Chapter 3.

Table 13 – Interpreting strategies and their definitions

Strategies	Definition
1) Extending or narrowing EVS (*flexible décalage*)	To vary the EVS (ear-voice-span) length at the beginning of the interpreting task or after a topic shift
2) Chunking	To split or merge the source speech into processing-relevant segments
3) Delaying response	To defer production by pausing or by producing generic utterances after the appearance of segments which have a potential to trigger a processing problem
4) Anticipation	To utter the target speech before the speaker utters its source-speech equivalent
5) Reconstruction	To restore elements not heard, not understood, lost, or forgotten
6) Restructuring	To change the sequence of source-speech segments during target-speech production
7) Morphosyntactic transformation	To modify the source speech's syntactic construction
8) Generalization	To express source-speech elements more generically or concisely
9) Simplification	To reduce source-speech complexity, lexically or stylistically
10) Approximation	To use a synonym, a less precise term or a semantically related term to replace a source-speech element
11) Addition	To insert information, content or culture-related, not uttered by the speaker
12) Omission	To delete input when producing the target speech
13) Repetition	To iterate previously processed elements using synonyms or synonymic elements
14) Paraphrase or explaining	To explain the meaning of a source-speech element
15) Transcoding	To interpret the source speech word for word
16) Parallel reformulation	To express something not uttered by the speaker but plausible in the context
17) Repair	To perform a self-correction after the acknowledgment of a mistake in the output
18) Reproduction	To keep a source speech word or phrase untranslated

Source: the author.

1.3 Interpreting Norms

Several factors may influence the interpreters' performance. Interpreting norms is one of them (WANG, 2012a). This holds true because traces of their activity may be noticed not only in the end product, but in every step of the interpreting process (TOURY, 2012[1995]). Duflou (2007, p. 3) pointed out that "the norm concept is indispensable for the study of interpreting, as it can help to shed light on phenomena that cannot be explained by a purely cognitive approach." Toury (1980) was the first scholar to approach the notion of norm, focusing on norms of written translation. Shlesinger (1989) tried to apply his notion to interpreting. She was the first to raise the question whether interpreters behave following internalized norms and how we could extend the translation theory of norms to interpreting. She defined norms as "the manifestation of shared values or ideas in recurrent situations of the same type" (SHLESINGER, 1989, p. 111). Harris (1990), who wrote about interpreting norms

shortly after Shlesinger (1989), proposed several norms related specifically to the interpreting process.

Chesterman's (1993) concepts provided for written translation has also been applied within the Interpreting Studies. He states that norms describe how a group of highly influential professionals behave and how some texts are taken by readers as the representation of standard translation, thus establishing the limits of acceptable deviance. Garzone (2002) defines norms as internalized behavioral constraints which govern interpreters' choices in a specific context. She considers that norms are how social notions of correctness are expressed. Following suit, Li (2015, p. 183) states that "interpreting norms are values and ideas of what counts as correct and appropriate behaviors in concrete situations". Taking all of this into account, this MA thesis considers norm as a behavior that has been validated and accepted by a social group and which governs attitudes of individuals in that group.

A norm, as suggested by several authors (CHESTERMAN, 1993, 1997; GARZONE, 2002; GILE, 2009[1995]; HARRIS, 1990; LI, 2015; SHLESINGER, 1989; WANG, 2012a), should not be taken prescriptively. It is a description of translational and interpreting behavior tendencies followed by translators and interpreters under certain circumstances. These tendencies, accepted by a community of translators/interpreters and readers/listeners, become models or standards, thereby acquiring prescriptive force within this community.

Nonetheless, according to Garzone (2002), the first contact of interpreters with these norms usually happens during prescriptive training. After this, interpreters may learn from examples and advice of colleagues, from feedback of the parties involved in interpreting events and from sanctions and/or rewards applied by their professional community. Shlesinger (1989) contends that despite being a description of an individual's behavior, norms are general, rather than idiosyncratic, i.e., they represent the behavior of a group, not of individuals. As several professionals come from the same interpreting schools, they may have internalized similar norms, which may contribute to modelling a specific behavior of an entire group. After training, interpreters may gain experience working and become constantly aware of their own behavior. These norms, thus, are internalized and act as behavioral constraints.

The aim of a norm should be to make interpreting services meet quality standards, because norms are internalized not only by interpreters but also by the users of interpreting services (GARZONE, 2002; SHLESINGER, 2000). Since these

standards are valid only within a specific community in/for which the communicative event is happening, only the users of that specific community can evaluate the quality of the interpreters' performances (LI, 2015). Consequently, norms can become problem-solvers accepted as guidelines followed by translators and readers, or interpreters and listeners alike (CHESTERMAN, 1993).

Norms can also be related to a specific historical period, as they can change over time and can be different depending on the place where they are followed (CHESTERMAN, 1993). Additionally, some norms may vary according to the source speech itself, to its context, to its purpose and to the nature of other texts heard in similar contexts. Likewise, some norms may be related to a specific mode, e.g., "some norms may be peculiar to simultaneous interpreting and […] they occur in connection with capacity saturation" (SCHJOLDAGER, 1995, p. 80). This is consistent with Chesterman's (1997) proposition that norms are time and effort savers.

In recent interpreting research (LI, 2015; WANG, 2012a), "law" can be found expressing the same concept as "norm". Earlier studies such as Chesterman (1993, 1997) had suggested the use of both terms separately, considering "law" as any behavior (desirable or not) which leads to a translation (good or not), accepted as such. The author describes and adopts Toury's (1980) laws: the law of interference (translators are influenced by the source language), the law of explicitation (target texts tend to be more explicit than source texts), and the law of growing standardization (target texts tend to be less idiosyncratic than source texts). Laws of interpreting are described by Gile (2009[1995]) as a tendency on interpreters' conscious or unconscious behavior.

Taking this into consideration, a relation between norms and interpreting strategies can be established. According to Pöchhacker (2016), interpreting norms, by acting like constraints, can help shape interpreters' strategic responses to problems found during their performance. Because of norms, interpreters may become aware of the expectations regarding their product and performance and try to meet them. Riccardi (2005, p. 755) claims that "norms are the rule behind the strategies." She states that, while strategies are process-oriented, norms are product-oriented: strategies are applied during the interpreting process to ease the task difficulties; and norms are applied aiming at the quality and acceptance of the target speech, i.e., the interpreting product. The use of translation strategies, as noted by Chesterman (1993), is norm-based because a strategy can start out as an attempt to reach a goal and,

when used regularly by competent professional translators, it reaches the status of a law of translation behavior, thus becoming a normative law. Norms, therefore, can help interpreters choose the appropriate solutions (i.e., strategies) to interpreting problems (SCHJOLDAGER, 1995).

Chesterman (1993, 1997) divides norms into two categories: professional norms and expectancy norms. Professional norms are behavioral norms which govern the actual decisions made during the translation process. They are: 1) the accountability norm, i.e., the translator should be loyal to all the parties involved in the translation act; 2) the communication norm, i.e., the translator should optimize communication between the parties involved in the act; and 3) the relation norm, i.e., the translator should establish and maintain a relation of similarity between source and target texts. Expectancy norms are related to the syntax, the semantics and the pragmatics of a given situation, i.e., they are product norms. They are established by the expectations of the receivers of the target text, and they may be, in some situations, validated by a norm-authority. Chesterman (1993) claims that, by meeting expectancy norms, the translator conforms to professional norms. According to Garzone (2002), Chesterman's norms can be applied to interpreting as well.

Jones (2002) is another researcher who speaks of norms, calling them "rules" for interpreters' behavior. He lists four of them. First, interpreters should speak, "as far as is possible, in short, simple sentences" (JONES, 2002, p. 70), using sentences with one main clause. Second, interpreters should be certain that each of these sentences makes sense, both grammatically and logically. Third, interpreters should always finish their sentences. Fourth, interpreters should not wait too long before speaking, i.e., they should start speaking right after a unit of meaning is heard and understood. These four rules have been widely adopted by interpreter training programs (WU; LIAO, 2018).

The norms investigated in recent interpreting studies are mostly based on those proposed by Toury (1980, 2012[1995]) for translation. They are divided into initial norms, preliminary norms, and operational norms. Initial norms are the ones that govern interpreters' choices between adequacy to source speech or acceptability of target speech (CHESTERMAN, 1997; SCHJOLDAGER, 1995). Harris (1990) proposes that the source-speech ideas should be expressed as accurately as possible, with acceptability being secondary. Others, however, sustain that both aspects should

be highly considered (CHESTERMAN, 1993, 1997; GARZONE, 2002; GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2015; WANG, 2012a).

Preliminary norms are the ones related to translation policy in a certain culture (CHESTERMAN, 1997; SCHJOLDAGER, 1995). The norms suggested by Harris (1990) are examples of this kind of norm: interpreters should speak as if they were the actual speakers, i.e., in the first person; interpreters should work in shifts when the event lasts more than 20 to 30 minutes; interpreters should work exclusively into their 'A' language. Seleskovitch (1978) speaks of this latter norm, but not as a norm in a descriptive sense, i.e., she argues that into 'B' language must not be an accepted directionality.

Operational norms direct the decisions made by interpreters during the interpreting process (CHESTERMAN, 1997; SCHJOLDAGER, 1995). They affect the distribution of linguistic material, i.e., they "govern the *relationships* that would obtain between target and source texts or segments thereof" (TOURY, 2012[1995], p. 82) and they can be learnt or developed through experience. Toury (2012[1995]) proposes that these norms could be subdivided into matricial norms and textual-linguistic norms. Garzone (2002) adds that the last category can work at a local or at a general level.

According to Toury (2012[1995]), matricial norms govern the arrangement of the target speech, i.e., how the target language "substitutes" the source language. They may determine, for instance, the interpreters' choices for strategies such as omission, addition, and chunking, as well as strategies which deal with changes of the textual material location, such as restructuring. Textual-linguistic norms, in turn, rule the selection of linguistic material, i.e., which target language structures will "replace" the source language's (TOURY, 2012[1995]).

Garzone (2002) suggests that textual-linguistic norms can work at a local (or tactical) level. This type of norms can be language-specific and may enable interpreters "to rely on ad hoc strategies or ready-made solutions for the translation of certain recurrent problematic structures in pairs of languages" (GARZONE, 2002, p. 113). These norms can be extremely important for simultaneous interpreting. As they are frequently followed, they may help in the automatization process of strategies, thus saving interpreters time and processing capacity, which, in turn, help them avoid cognitive overload.

Finally, Garzone (2002) proposes textual-linguistic norms which function at a general level would be the ones Gile (2009[1995]) calls laws. The first law described

by him is maximizing information recovery, which governs interpreters attempt to re-express the complete source language message. Reconstruction would be an example of a strategy employed when interpreters follow this norm. Gile's (2009[1995]) second law is minimizing interference in information recovery, which rules interpreters attempt "to recover as much information as possible on each segment without jeopardizing the recovery of other segments" (GILE, 2009[1995], p. 212). The use of strategies like omission, reproduction and repetition would be governed by this norm, for example. The third law proposed by Gile (2009[1995]) is maximizing the communication impact of the speech, which would be behind interpreters attempt to achieve the communicative act's aims. When following this norm, interpreters tend to use strategies which allow them to save time, even if is detrimental to information recovery, such as anticipation.

Besides the first three laws – re-interpreted from Toury (2012[1995]) – Gile (2009[1995]) lists other two. He considers they are natural tendencies in human behavior, but undesirable in terms of professional ethics, which reinforces the descriptive character of norms, as described previously in the present study. His fourth law is the law of least effort: interpreters seek strategies that involve the least cognitive effort possible, even with availability of processing capacity. Gile's (2009[1995]) fifth law is called the law of self-protection: it governs interpreters' preference for strategies that do not highlight their problems in understanding or reformulating speech segments in a way they consider satisfactory.

Figure 1 represents Toury's (2012[1995]) translational norms applied to interpreting, as described by Garzone (2002), including all Gile's (2009[1995]) laws.

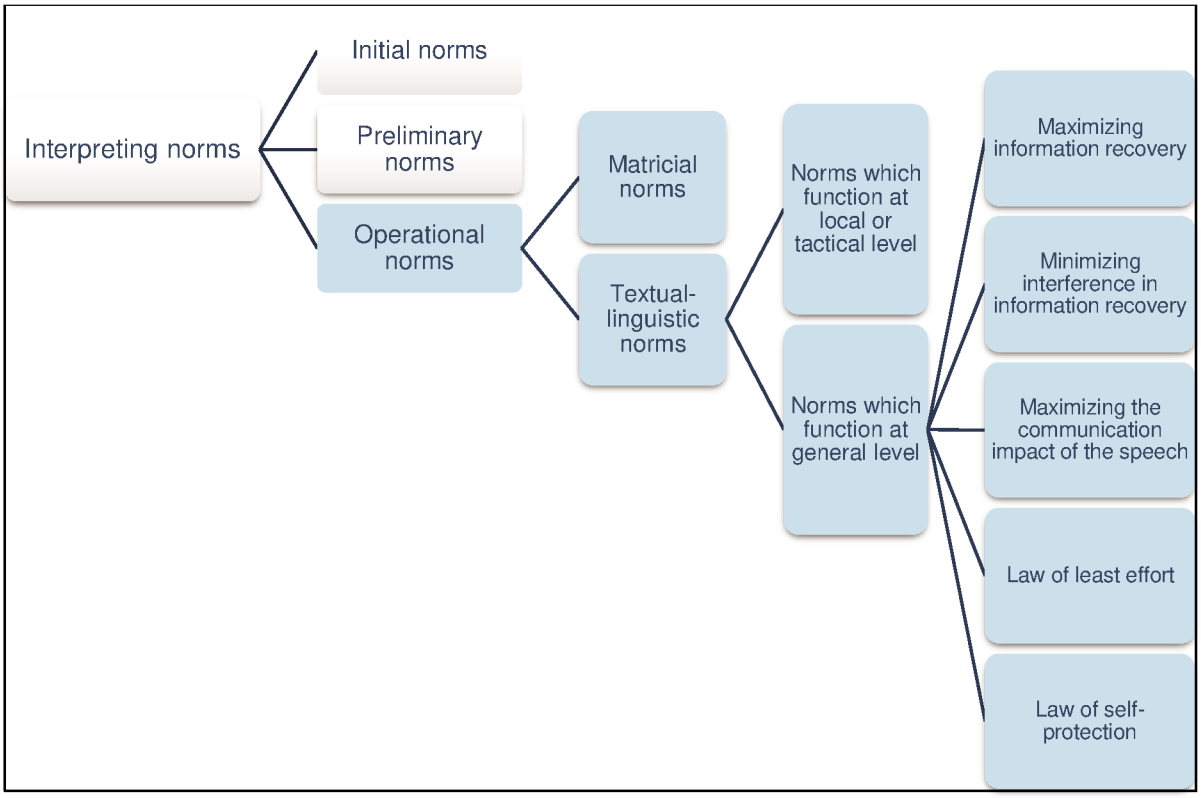

Figure 1 – Interpreting norms, with a focus on the operational norms
Source: the author, based on Garzone (2002).

Considering all the studies reviewed in this chapter and the third specific objective of this MA thesis, i.e., to assess whether the strategies used by the students are related to interpreting norms, the focus of part of the qualitative analysis reported in Chapter 3 relies on Toury's (1980, 2012[1995]) operational norms, following the division described by Garzone (2002), which includes Gile's (2009[1995]) laws. Only operational norms, the blue squares in Figure 1, are considered in the analysis as this MA thesis aims at investigating the interpreting process, not questions related to translation policy (preliminary norms) nor the debate around adequacy and acceptability (initial norms).

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Data Collection

The data were first collected as part of a senior thesis research project (MORAIS, 2018) aimed at analyzing the role that domain knowledge (both procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge) played on the performance and understanding of simultaneous interpreting tasks carried out by undergraduate translation students. The study concluded that students' domain knowledge was insufficient to allow them to produce a target speech with low level of errors and problematic segments. However, data analysis showed, as a byproduct, that students recurred to omissions and additions as an alternative to solve cognitive processing constraints. These results raised the question whether participants may have employed other strategies or tactics which could not be detected in the first analysis and motivated the investigation proposed in the present study.

Sampling was made by convenience. The research participants were 8 students (7 female and 1 male, aged from 20 to 32 years) from two classes of the Undergraduate Program in Translation of Universidade Federal de Uberlândia (Brazil). They were 4 students attending the 6th semester of the 7-semester program, and 4 students attending the 4th semester of the same program. Since the researcher was also a student of the program, she personally asked all students attending the 4th semester class to participate in the study. This specific class was chosen to meet the senior thesis objective, i.e., to compare students' who assumedly had different domain knowledge of simultaneous interpreting. However, only 4 students agreed to perform the simultaneous interpreting task.

The students attending the 6th semester were taking the "Interpreting Foundations" (*Fundamentos da Interpretação*) course, which is a mandatory course of the Undergraduate Program. The course's lecturer, along with the researcher, asked the class's 13 students whether they would agree to be part of the project. Since they would have to perform simultaneous interpreting tasks as part of the course's practical activities, they were asked whether these performances could also be used for the research. Although they all agreed to participate, only 4 of them were randomly selected to meet the same number of participants as the other group of students.

For the senior thesis (MORAIS, 2018), these participants were separated into groups, according to their semester, and their results were compared. For the present study, no distinction is made between them, as the senior thesis concluded that their performances were similar, i.e., their domain knowledge of simultaneous interpreting did not bear much upon their interpreting process, especially because there had been insufficient time of interpreting training and practice to allow significant change in procedural and declarative knowledge. In fact, the study concluded that "the training in simultaneous interpreting in the said program is positive as a first contact with the [simultaneous interpreting] field" (MORAIS, 2018, p. 70), but had little effect in the interpreting process.

All participants had Brazilian Portuguese as their 'A' language and English as their 'B' language. On average they had been studying their 'B' language for 13 years, and all of them stated they had a good English proficiency level, including listening-comprehension and speaking skills. None of them was a professional interpreter nor had any experience with interpreting[4]. Data were collected in one single semester, undisclosed for confidentiality reasons. All students provided informed consent as approved by the university's ethics committee (Approval No. 3.623.104) and they were given codes to maintain confidentiality. As this study is an extension of the previous project, a new approval was granted by the ethics committee (Approval No. 21683419.6.0000.5152).

The students taking the "Interpreting Foundations" (*Fundamentos da Interpretação*) course had to interpret a video, chosen by the course's lecturer, as a practical simultaneous interpreting activity of the course. The same video was chosen to be interpreted by the study participants who were not taking the course (the 4th-semester students). The chosen video was a recording of a speech uttered at a conference. It was used a video, instead of an audio, because it is important for interpreters to see the speaker during the interpreting session, so that they can follow the speaker's non-verbal language and facial expressions, which could influence the interpreting process (ZIEGLER; GIGLIOBIANCO, 2018).

[4] For more details, see Morais (2018). It presents an extensive description of the students' profiles, based on questionnaires they answered about themselves, including their thoughts about the skills simultaneous interpreters should have and what could bear upon one's simultaneous interpreting performance.

Finally, the speech[5] had characteristics which could allow students with low level of interpreting training to fulfill the task. It featured a speaker talking (in British English without a strong accent) about interpreting as a career, similarities and differences between interpreting and translation, and similarities and differences between consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. This means that the source speech's topic was understandable to students of the Undergraduate Program in Translation. The video was not too long (5'10"), so that participants could perform the task until the source speech's end, but long enough to emulate part of a real-life experience of simultaneously interpreting a speech. The only feature which was expected to impose some difficulty was the source-speech delivery rate, which varied along the video – 145 words per minute on average. According to Riccardi (2015), it can be considered a fast input rate and can cause interpreting problems. Although the aim of the present research is not to investigate the impact of source-speech delivery rate on strategy use, it may have interfered with the use of interpreting strategies (KALINA, 2015b). This interference is discussed in Chapter 3.

The interpreting sessions were conducted at the Laboratory of Languages (Labling) at the Institute of Literature and Linguistics, Universidade Federal de Uberlândia. Each student was on a separate booth, with adequate equipment (an individual screen showing the video to be interpreted, headphones, microphone, and suite to regulate the volume of both the microphone and the headphones). The 6th-semester students had their performances recorded by the course lecturer during a regular class. The remaining students had their sessions scheduled in a timeslot different from their regular class time.

All students received guidance, orally and in Brazilian Portuguese, about the task to be performed. The 6th-semester students received instructions by the lecturer right before the task. They were told they could regulate the volume of both headphone and microphone to simultaneously interpret the entire source speech from English into Brazilian Portuguese. Since they were already familiar with the equipment, the video was played for them to interpret without further orientation, and the session was recorded immediately.

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[5] The source-speech video was taken from the Internet. There is no information about where the speaker is, nor about the situation during which the speech was uttered. It is not possible to see the audience either, but it is possible to see some booths behind him, with interpreters delivering their target speech whereas he speaks. The complete video is available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dPF-iNmbxC8&t=5s. Accessed on: 29 Oct. 2021.

The 4th-semester students listened the instructions from the researcher (helped by the lecturer) as soon as they arrived at the laboratory. They were told they would have to translate, orally and simultaneously, from English into Brazilian Portuguese, a five-minute-long video. They were unfamiliar with the equipment, so they received orientation about how it could be operated, including how to regulate the volume of their headphones and microphones. After that, they were told they would watch and listen to the video once, and while they were watching, they could try to regulate the microphone and the headphone's volume and, at the same time, they could try to simultaneously interpret it. Right after the video had finished, they were asked to watch and listen to it once more, but this time they would have to interpret it simultaneously and they were told their performances would be recorded. The video was played for them to interpret without further orientation, and the session was recorded.

The interpreting sessions performed by 4th-semester students were recorded on 7th November 2017, and the sessions performed by the 6th-semester students were recorded on 14th November 2017. Both were recorded using software *Sanako*[6] and saved as audio files (.mp3 format). The recorded audio files contained both source and target speeches, with the target-speech volume higher than the source-speech volume. The lecturer responsible for the "Interpreting Foundations" course operated the software during the sessions of both groups.

2.2 Data Analysis

The video file (.mp4 format) containing the source speech was converted into audio file (.wav format) using software *Audacity*[7]. All interpreting sessions performed by the students (target speeches) were also converted into .wav by using the same software. The audios of the source and the target speeches were synchronized by using software *Audacity* as well. Synchronization was necessary because, although it was possible to listen to both source and target speeches in each interpreting session, the source speech did not start at the same millisecond on all the

[6] Software *Sanako* is part of a conference interpreting system. For further information, please check the developer's website: https://sanako.co.uk/products/software-language-lab. Accessed on: 29 Oct. 2021.

[7] Software *Audacity* is an open-source audio editor. For further information, please check the developer's website: https://www.audacityteam.org/. Accessed on: 29 Oct. 2021.

recordings. Thus, synchronization was needed to make the source speech start at the same moment in all audio files.

Both source and target speeches were transcribed individually by using software *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor*[8]. All transcriptions are reader friendly, i.e., they were orthographically written to facilitate reading (NIEMANTS, 2012), and they followed the conventions proposed by Marcuschi (2006) and Hale and Napier (2013).

The conventions adopted for the transcription of all speeches are as follows: 1) pauses were indicated by brackets, with its length in seconds and milliseconds – e.g., (0.523); 2) stretched letter sounds were indicated by colons (e.g., aga:::in); 3) duplicated words or syllables were indicated by writing them repeatedly (e.g., interpre pre ting); 4) unfinished words were indicated by a slash (e.g., interpre/); 5) unfinished sentences were indicated by two slashes (e.g., interpreters are//); 6) hesitations found at the beginning of a segment were indicated by the words “eh”, “ah” and “ahm”. No punctuation marks were used. Pauses indicate the speakers are interrupting their speech, the reason marks such as periods, commas and ellipsis were not used. Besides, the transcriptions are representations of oral texts. Thus, it is not possible to determine the correct mark (a period or a comma, for instance) which would represent the type of interruption made by a speaker. Finally, punctuation marks such as question marks and exclamation points were not used because the present study does not aim at exploring prosodic features of the speeches, indicated by these marks. Hence, they are not relevant for this MA thesis data analysis. All transcriptions are available in the Appendices.

The software used allows the speeches to be transcribed in a timeline, with time indicated in milliseconds, so that it is possible to identify speeches which were uttered simultaneously. Figure 2 presents a visualization of the data on the software.

[8] Software *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor* is an open-source transcription and annotation of audio and video files tool. For further information, please check the developer’s website: https://exmaralda.org/en/partitur-editor-en/. Accessed on: 29 Oct. 2021.

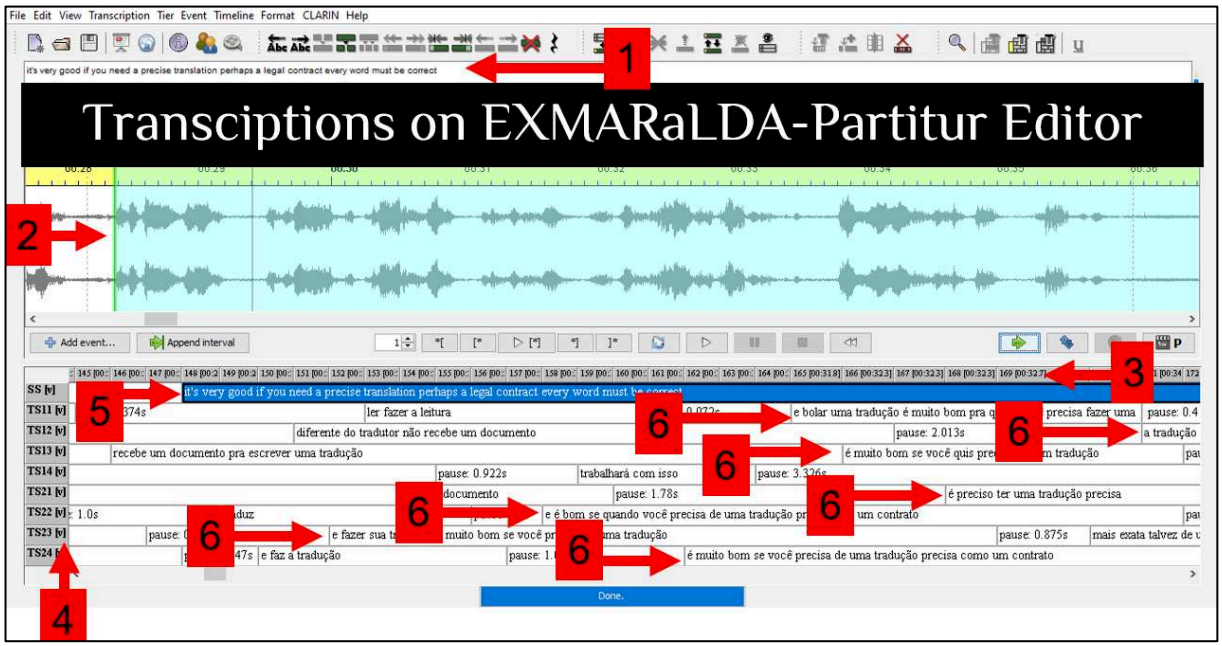


Figure 2 – Data visualization on *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor*
Source: the author.

The segment under scrutiny can be seen in square 1. The sound waves corresponding to this segment can be seen in square 2. Square 3 is the timeline, with the time displayed in seconds and milliseconds. The transcription of each speech can be seen on each of the horizontal lines, called tiers. Square 4 shows the identification of the speakers on each tier: SS is the source speech, and TS is the target speeches. The number after the letters TS indicates the participants codes, e.g., TS12 identifies the target speech of participant 12. The vertical lines, seen on the right side of all squares 6 and on the entire timeline, are segmentation marks. The line in blue, indicated by square 5, shows the segment under scrutiny by the software. Finally, on each tier (except on participant TS14's tier), there is a square numbered 6. All of them show the point where the target speeches being uttered are renditions of the same source speech, i.e., they show the moment when each participant started uttering their rendition of the source-speech segment under scrutiny on the SS tier. The visualization of the transcriptions on this format captures the simultaneous dimension of the communicative act and facilitates the analysis of source and target speeches in parallel.

Software *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor* was used to transcribe the speeches. However, it does not allow exporting the data as .txt files, a format which facilitates data processing. Thus, after the speeches were transcribed, the data were exported

as .eaf format, which was opened on software *Elan*[9]. This software, although used for audio and video transcription as well, is more complicated to manipulate – this is the reason why it was used only as a temporary fix for data exportation into the desired format. It presents the same visualization as the *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor*, as can be seen in Figure 3.

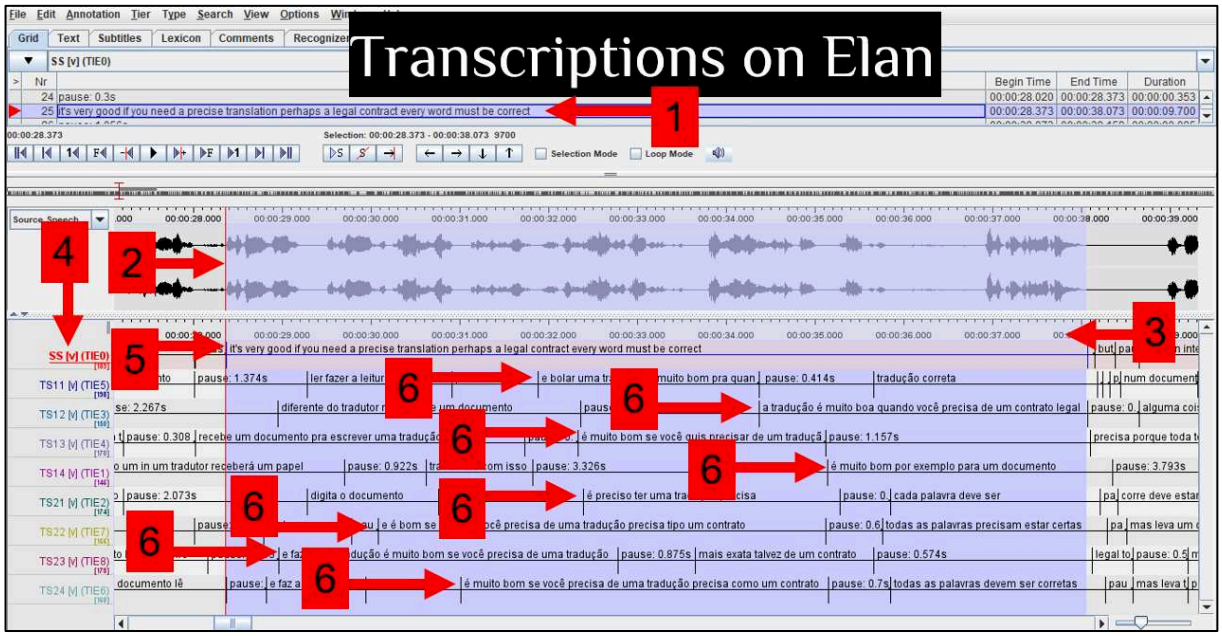


Figure 3 – Data visualization on *Elan*
Source: the author.

All numbers in Figure 3 represent the same as the numbers in Figure 2. The only difference is that there are 8, instead of 7, squares numbered 6. This means that Figure 3 shows the point where participant TS14 started uttering the target speech. No changes were made to the data on *Elan*. It was used only to export all the transcription as a .txt file, which was opened and manipulated as a *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet, as shown in Figure 4.

[9] Software *Elan* is an open-source tool for transcription and annotation of audio and video files. For further information, please check the developer's website: https://archive.mpi.nl/tla/elan. Accessed on: 29 Oct. 2021.

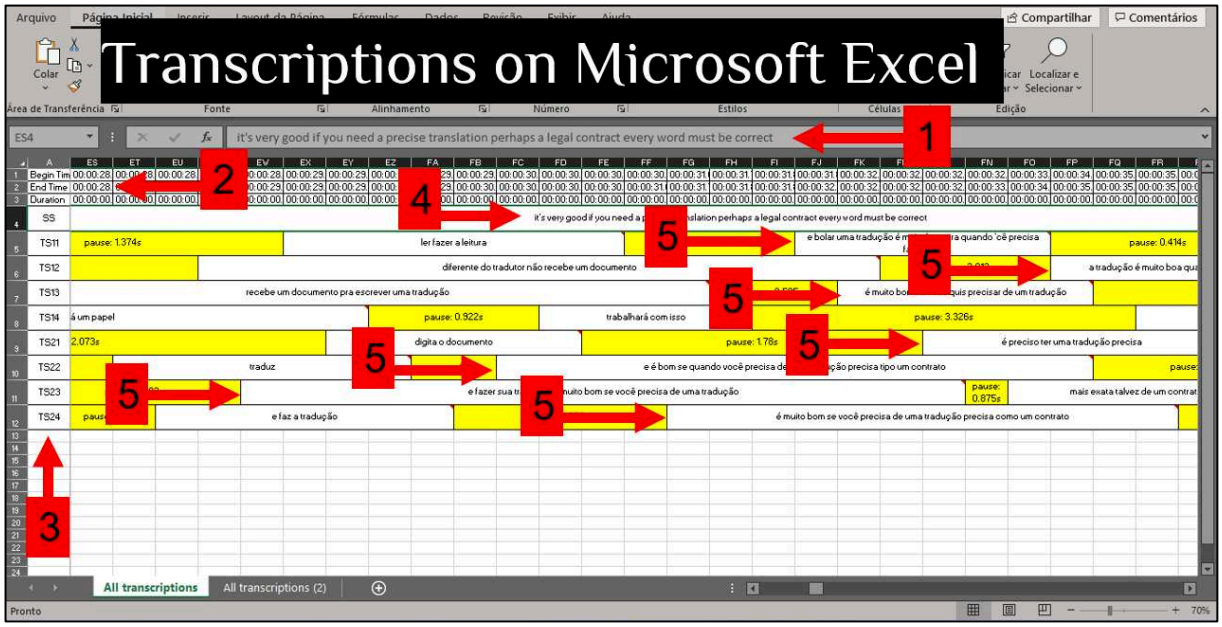


Figure 4 – Data visualization on *Microsoft Excel*
Source: the author.

The segment under scrutiny can be seen in square 1. The begin time, the end time, and the duration (displayed in seconds and milliseconds) of each interval between two segmentation marks can be seen in square 2, i.e., on the timeline. The transcription of each speech can be seen on each of the horizontal lines. Square 3 shows the participants' identification on each line. All of them, except for TS14, have a square numbered 5 indicating the moment when they started uttering the target speeches corresponding to the source speech indicated in square 4. Cells containing pauses were colored in yellow, with the annotation of their duration. This was done to facilitate their identification and the identification of the segments which come before and after these pauses.

Data analysis was based on inter-textual comparison between the source speech and each target speech seen in parallel on the timeline, as shown in Figure 4. According to Han and Chen (2016), paralleled text analysis, i.e., the analysis of segment by segment of source and target speeches in parallel, is widely used to identify strategies adopted by interpreters in a simultaneous interpreting task. This kind of analysis presupposes that cognitive processes and strategy use may leave traces in the interpreted speeches (RICCARDI, 2005). However, "not all strategies can be accurately and reliably identified based on text analysis" (HAN; CHEN, 2016, p. 189), as the method cannot reveal strategies that left no traces in the target speeches and is somehow dependent on the researcher's experience. Visualizing the data

transcription on a timeline may reduce this effect, yet the strategies reported in this thesis may represent only part of the interpreters' strategic behavior.

The objective of this analysis was to find out how the participants managed the simultaneous interpreting task and targeted the occurrences of the strategies described in subsection 1.2 of the Review of the Literature. They were identified in the data by comparing source and target speeches based on the definition from Table 13.

Pauses were used as an ancillary tool to identify strategy extending or narrowing the EVS, chunking, and delaying response. Pauses found at the very beginning of the interpreting task or after a topic shift (KOHN; KALINA, 1996) were considered EVS. When their length was between 2 and 4 seconds (DEFRANCQ, 2015; LEE, 2002; TIMAROVÁ *et al*., 2014; TIMAROVÁ, 2015), they were considered of average length, and therefore, they were not counted. When they lasted longer than 4 seconds (LEE, 2003), they were counted as an occurrence of extended EVS; when they lasted between 0.25 seconds – i.e., physical pauses (SCHILPEROORD, 1996) – and 2 seconds, they were counted as an occurrence of narrowed EVS.

Pauses longer than 4 seconds which appeared after segments considered problem triggers[10] (GILE, 2009[1995]) were counted as delaying response. This strategy may also consist of producing generic utterances, i.e., segments without equivalents in the source speech. Hence, when these segments appeared after problem triggers, they were also counted as delaying response.

The use of chunking was investigated through the identification of pauses and of the rising and falling pitches on the speeches' visual records, i.e., on the sound waves of the speeches' audio files (GOLDMAN-EISLER, 1972). These features were used to determine the speeches' segmentation points. A mark (a vertical line) indicating the end of a segment was placed before every pause (interruption on the sound wave) lasting longer than 0.25 seconds (to rule out physical pauses) and which appeared after a falling pitch (AHRENS, 2004; MARTELLINI, 2013). Another mark (vertical line) was placed as soon as the pause ended and a rising pitch appeared, to indicate the beginning of a new segment. These segmentation marks were inserted during the transcription of source and target speeches on *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor*.

[10] Some segments which may appear during the interpreting process can impose additional difficulties for interpreters, i.e., they can be problem triggers (GILE, 2009 [1995]). They are described in detail in Subsection 1.2.3.

Figure 5 is an example of the software's screen, showing how the transcription of two segments of TS11's speech was performed.

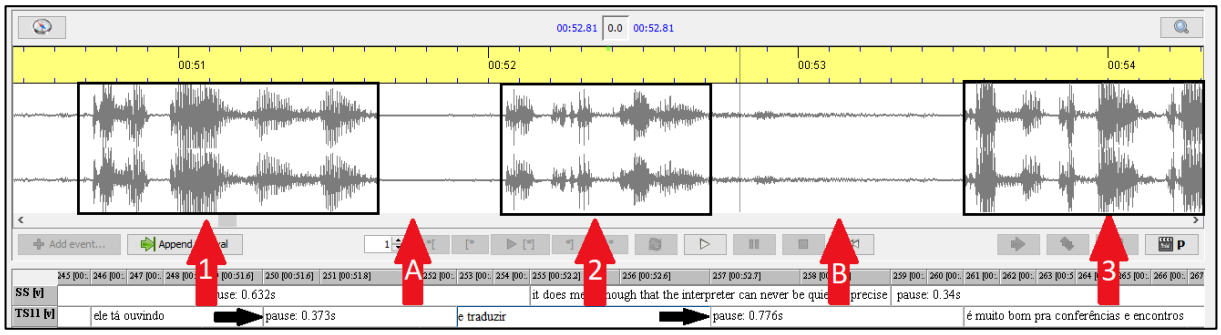


Figure 5 – Visualization of the segmentation of TS11's target speech on *EXMARaLDA Partitur-Editor*
Source: the author.

The red vertical arrows numbered 1, 2 and 3 indicate the segments, and the red arrows with letters A and B indicate the pauses. The black horizontal arrows indicate the segmentation mark corresponding to the end of the segments. The end of segment number 3 is not seen on this screen, which is the reason why there are only two black arrows in Figure 5.

It is possible to notice, on pause B, that the line is not straight, as a line representing silent should be. The reason is that the participants' microphones captured, besides their voices, other lower sounds, such as the sound of an object or a breathing sound. They were not digitally erased from the audio files because they were not jeopardizing the listening and understanding of the participants' voices.

Additionally, some false starts and hesitations appeared in the middle of pauses. They were not excluded because they did not represent an obstacle to the analysis. Although they do influence the analysis of interpreters' productions, they were considered as part of the pause because the present research does not aim at analyzing this influence on the interpreting process.

The segmentation marks placed on the source speech and on each one of the target speeches were compared using the *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet. It was done to determine whether the chunking strategy was used or not, i.e., whether the students merged, split, or maintained the same segmentation as the speaker. Figure 6 is an example of this comparison on an excerpt of participant TS23's speech.

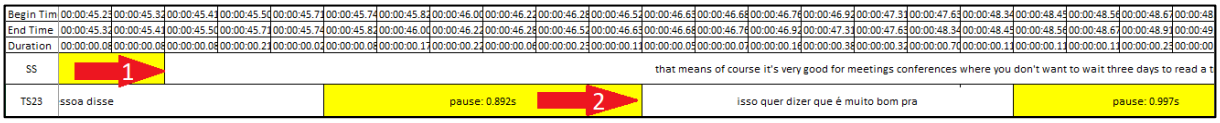


Figure 6 – Visualization of the comparison between the source speech and TS23's target speech on *Microsoft Excel*.
Source: the author.

The red arrows indicate where the segments began. Red arrow number 1 indicates the beginning of the source-speech (SS) segment and red arrow number 2 indicates the beginning of participant TS23' target speech (TS23). In this case, the student employed the chunking strategy, since a pause appeared before the complete segment uttered by the speaker was also uttered on the target speech, i.e., the student split the source-speech segment.

The identification of the anticipation strategy was done by comparing the begin time (in milliseconds) of the source speech and that of each of the target speeches, as shown in Figure 7.

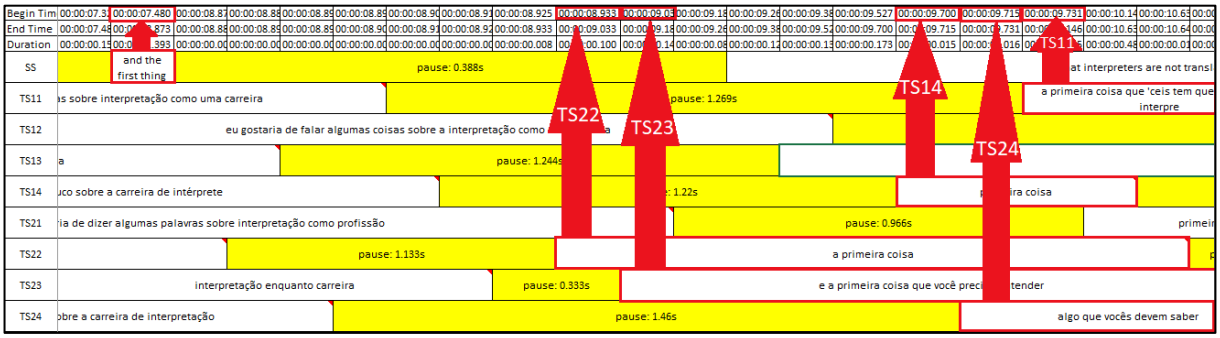


Figure 7 – Visualization of the comparison between source and target speeches begin time on *Microsoft Excel*
Source: the author.

The first horizontal line displays the begin time of each segment, in seconds and milliseconds. The example in Figure 7 compares the source speech which began being uttered at 7.480 seconds, indicated by the first red arrow, and its equivalent target speeches. The other red arrows indicate the correspondence between the target speeches equivalent to this specific source speech and the moment each of them began being uttered. To be considered an occurrence of anticipation, the begin time of a target speech would have to be smaller than the begin time of the source speech. This was how the anticipation strategy was identified throughout the entire transcription of all target speeches.

The remaining strategies – i.e., reconstruction, restructuring, morphosyntactic transformation, generalization, simplification, approximation, addition, omission, repetition, paraphrase or explaining, transcoding, parallel reformulation, repair, and reproduction – were identified by comparing source and target speeches, as this identification does not depend on additional measurement methods. Therefore, only the definition of each of them, as reported in Table 13, was taken as a reference to perform comparisons.

A quantitative analysis was performed to answer the first research question, i.e., which interpreting strategies were most used by the students. The occurrence of each strategy was counted to reach meaningful results about the use of interpreting strategies, i.e., to identify and quantify the different strategies students employed to manage the simultaneous interpreting task. Extending or narrowing the EVS, chunking, delaying response and anticipation, which were recognized considering time measures, were identified on the spreadsheet in Figure 4.

However, to facilitate the identification and quantification of the remaining strategies, the *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet containing all the transcriptions was divided into eight different spreadsheets. Each of them contained only the transcription of the source speech and of the target speech of one participant. Besides, the begin and end times of each segment were erased, since they were irrelevant for identifying the remaining strategies, but the timeline structure was maintained. The indication of pauses was also maintained, with an indication whether it was before or after the segment and its duration. Figure 8 presents an example of how these new spreadsheets could be visualized.

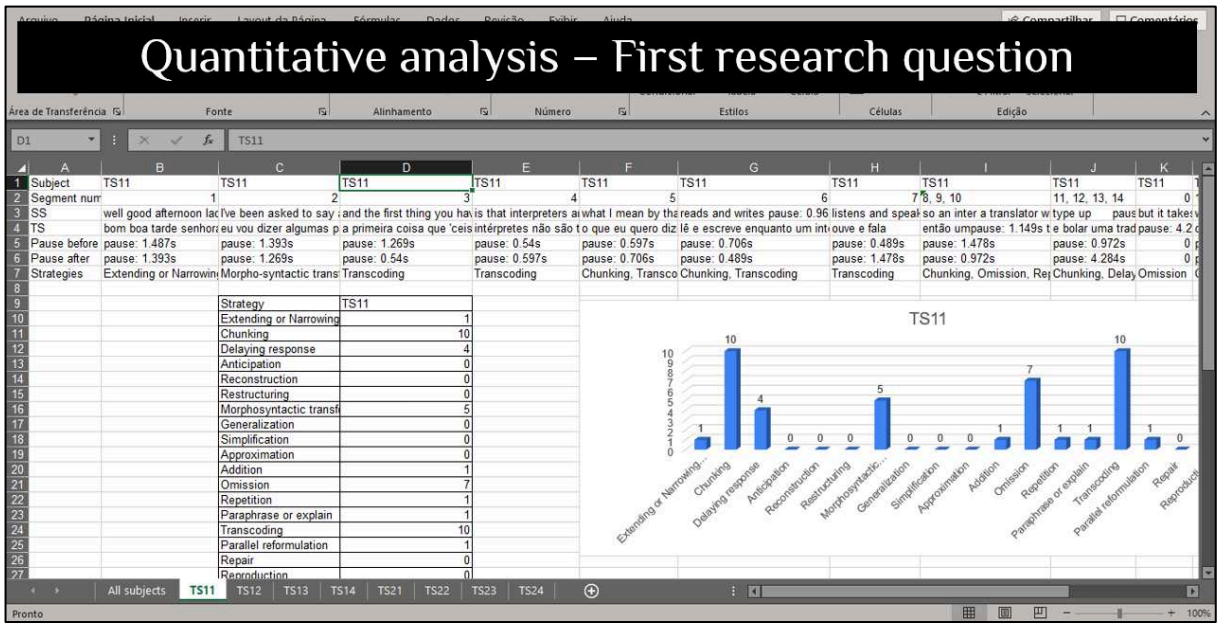


Figure 8 – Visualization of the quantitative analysis spreadsheet on *Microsoft Excel*
Source: the author.

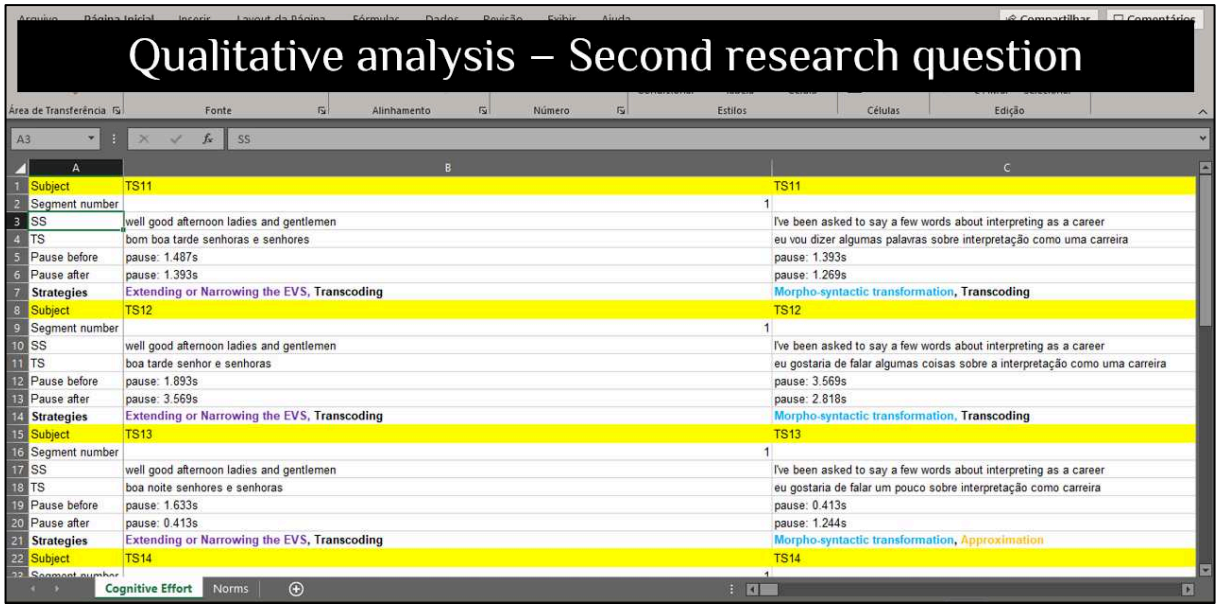
Figure 8 shows the transcription of the source speech and that of the target speech of participant TS11. Each column represents a segment. However, when the target-speech segmentation was different from the source-speech segmentation, several segments were grouped into one column to facilitate analysis. Each line of the spreadsheet contains one piece of information: line 1 contains the participant identification, line 2 contains the segment numbers, line 3 contains the source-speech transcription, line 4 contains the target-speech transcription, line 5 contains the pause duration before the target-speech segments, line 6 contains the pause duration after the target-speech segments, and line 7 contains the strategies identified on the segments of each column.

As described in the Review of the Literature, some strategies were expected to overlap, i.e., more than one strategy could be ascribed to the same segment. The addition strategy may also overlap with others, namely repetition and repair. When interpreters' addition was made through the use of synonyms or synonymic elements, it was considered a repetition, and not counted as addition (LI, 2015). Furthermore, when the repetition was performed as an attempt to better express the target speech, it was considered as repair rather than addition or repetition (LI, 2015). As a conclusion, it was only counted as addition when the information added clarified the source speech or when it was not a correction nor a synonym of the segment previously uttered.

For each spreadsheet, a table was created, listing the 18 strategies under investigation and the number of occurrences of these strategies found on the participants' target speech. Graphs corresponding to the lists were also generated. However, individual data of each participant will not be discussed in the present research. Finally, the tables from the eight participants were grouped, and the occurrences of each strategy were summed to obtain the quantitative results.

A qualitative analysis was also performed to grasp a better understanding of the process that took place during performance and to answer the second and the third research questions, i.e., to what extent the strategies used by the students are related to their cognitive effort; and to what extent the strategies used by the students are related to interpreting norms. To this end, the target speeches were compared with the source speech and with each other.

To facilitate the investigation of a possible relationship between strategy use and cognitive effort, the eight individual *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheets containing each participants' transcriptions and strategy identification (Figure 8) were joined. This new spreadsheet contained the transcription of the source speech and those of all participants' target speeches, the pauses which occurred before and after the segments and their durations, and the strategies identified on each segment. It did not contain the begin and end times of each segment, but the timeline structure was maintained. Figure 9 presents an example of how this spreadsheet could be visualized.

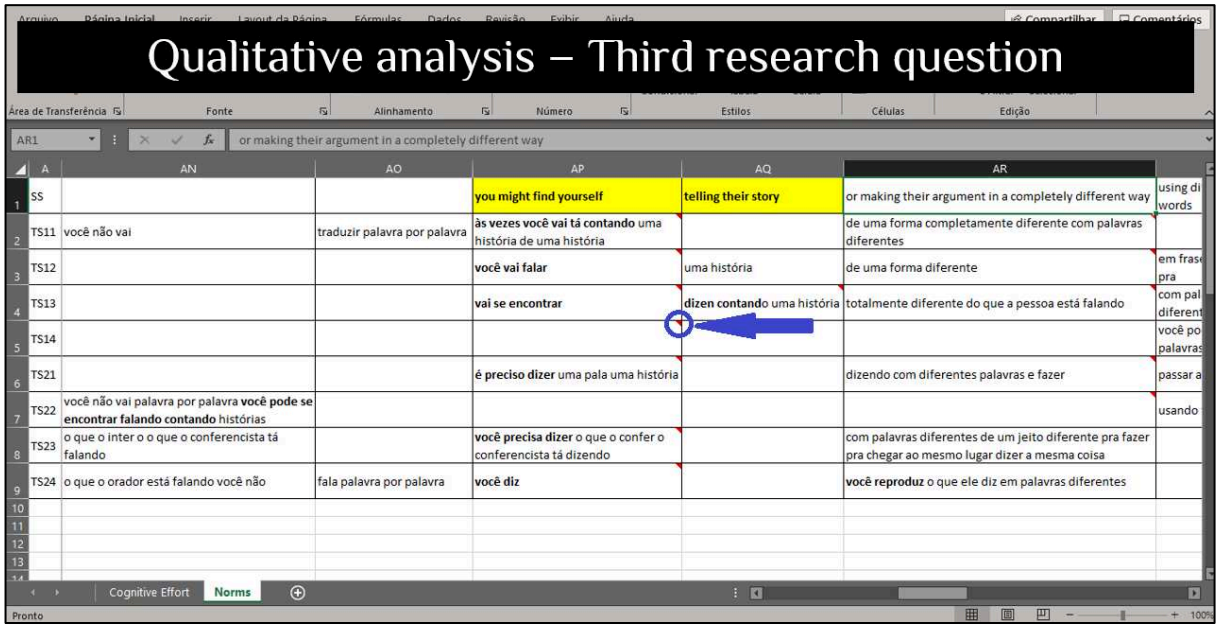


	A	B	C
1	Subject	TS11	TS11
2	Segment number	1	
3	SS	well good afternoon ladies and gentlemen	I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career
4	TS	bom boa tarde senhoras e senhores	eu vou dizer algumas palavras sobre interpretação como uma carreira
5	Pause before	pause: 1.487s	pause: 1.393s
6	Pause after	pause: 1.393s	pause: 1.269s
7	**Strategies**	Extending or Narrowing the EVS, **Transcoding**	Morpho-syntactic transformation, **Transcoding**
8	Subject	TS12	TS12
9	Segment number	1	
10	SS	well good afternoon ladies and gentlemen	I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career
11	TS	boa tarde senhor e senhoras	eu gostaria de falar algumas coisas sobre a interpretação como uma carreira
12	Pause before	pause: 1.893s	pause: 3.569s
13	Pause after	pause: 3.569s	pause: 2.818s
14	**Strategies**	Extending or Narrowing the EVS, **Transcoding**	Morpho-syntactic transformation, **Transcoding**
15	Subject	TS13	TS13
16	Segment number	1	
17	SS	well good afternoon ladies and gentlemen	I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career
18	TS	boa noite senhores e senhoras	eu gostaria de falar um pouco sobre interpretação como carreira
19	Pause before	pause: 1.633s	pause: 0.413s
20	Pause after	pause: 0.413s	pause: 1.244s
21	**Strategies**	Extending or Narrowing the EVS, **Transcoding**	Morpho-syntactic transformation, Approximation
22	Subject	TS14	TS14

Figure 9 – Visualization of the first qualitative analysis spreadsheet on *Microsoft Excel*
Source: the author.

Figure 9 shows that each column contained the same source speech for all participants, which were identified in yellow. It also contained the equivalent target speeches uttered by each participant, as well as the strategies identified on each target-speech segment. These strategies occurrences, the target speeches and the source speech were compared to investigate whether there was a relationship between their use and cognitive effort, in the light of the Review of the Literature.

For the investigation of a possible relationship between strategies use and interpreting norms, another *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet was created, with the aim of facilitating the analysis. The spreadsheet shown in Figure 4 was used as a reference, but the time indication was removed, as well as the cells containing pauses. This new spreadsheet can be seen in Figure 10.



	A	AN	AO	AP	AQ	AR	
1	SS			you might find yourself	telling their story	or making their argument in a completely different way	using di words
2	TS11	você não vai	traduzir palavra por palavra	às vezes você vai tá contando uma história de uma história		de uma forma completamente diferente com palavras diferentes	
3	TS12			você vai falar	uma história	de uma forma diferente	em fras pra
4	TS13			vai se encontrar	dizen contando uma história	totalmente diferente do que a pessoa está falando	com pal diferent
5	TS14						você po palavra
6	TS21			é preciso dizer uma pala uma história		dizendo com diferentes palavras e fazer	passar a
7	TS22	você não vai palavra por palavra você pode se encontrar falando contando histórias					usando
8	TS23	o que o inter o o que o conferencista tá falando		você precisa dizer o que o confer o conferencista tá dizendo		com palavras diferentes de um jeito diferente pra fazer pra chegar ao mesmo lugar dizer a mesma coisa	
9	TS24	o que o orador está falando você não	fala palavra por palavra	você diz		você reproduz o que ele diz em palavras diferentes	
10							
11							
12							
13							

Figure 10 – Visualization of the second qualitative analysis spreadsheet on *Microsoft Excel*
Source: the author.

The first horizontal line in Figure 10 contains the source speech and each line from 2 to 9 contain the participants' target speeches. Each column presents the segments uttered by the participants which could be considered equivalent to the source-speech segment. Blank cells indicate either that the speech had finished earlier (it was merged with the previous or with the next segment) or that there was an omission. When this was the case, a red mark (indicated by the blue arrow) was placed, as can be seen in Figure 10. Omission and all the other strategies were

signalized as annotations (inserted using the *Microsoft Excel* annotation tool) and visualized as red marks. This parallel visualization of source speech and all target speeches allowed the comparison between them, and therefore, the investigation whether there was a relationship between strategies use and interpreting norms.

Following the method described above, the next chapter reports the data analysis of the participants' performances from the source-speech beginning to 5'10". It also discusses the findings in the light of the literature.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is divided into three sections. Section 3.1 aims at answering the first research question, which sought to identify the interpreting strategies most used by the students. To this end, a quantitative analysis was performed: the number and distribution of all the strategies found in the data are presented and discussed through an analysis of examples found in the target speeches. Section 3.2 aims at answering the second research question, i.e., to what extent the strategies used by the students are related to their cognitive effort. Finally, Section 3.3 aims at answering the third research question, i.e., to what extent the strategies used by the students are related to interpreting norms. A qualitative analysis was performed to answer the two latter research questions. In other words, sections 3.2 and 3.3 report on an analysis of examples found in the target speeches, as compared to the source speech and to one another.

3.1 Strategy Use

Data were extracted from the entire interpreting sessions performed by all participants, i.e., from the beginning of the target speeches until the last target segment uttered. This interval corresponds to the segments uttered by the speaker from the beginning of source speech to its end. The target speeches' equivalents to the last segments uttered by the speaker were also included, even if they were omitted by the participant.

The first striking finding was that most of the strategies found, if not all of them, were employed without prior planning, i.e., they were decisions made as immediate responses to the problems that arouse during the interpreting task. This is related to fact that the participants were undergraduate translation students who had no formal training in simultaneous interpreting and no professional experience as interpreters. Therefore, the solutions employed to deal with the constraints faced during the sessions were 'tactics', rather than 'strategies', which are planned and intentional actions (GILE, 2009[1995]).

Table 14 provides the frequency of tactics used by all students.

Table 14 – Tactic use

Tactic	Frequency of use	Percentage
Extending or narrowing the EVS	24	2.6%
Chunking	193	20.6%
Delaying response	27	2.9%
Anticipation	0	0%
Reconstruction	0	0%
Restructuring	27	2.9%
Morphosyntactic transformation	149	15.9%
Generalization	63	6.7%
Simplification	0	0%
Approximation	70	7.5%
Addition	18	1.9%
Omission	290	30.9%
Repetition	15	1.6%
Paraphrase or explaining	26	2.8%
Transcoding	126	13.4%
Parallel reformulation	27	2.9%
Repair	66	7%
Reproduction	3	0.3%
Total	**938**	**100.0%**

Source: the author.

The most frequently employed tactics were omission (30.9%) and chunking (20.6%.) Other relatively common tactics were morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%) and transcoding (13.4%) and. Albeit not frequently used, the occurrences of approximation (7.5%), repair (7%), and generalization (6.7%) can be considered relevant. Finally, rare tactics included delaying response (2.9%), restructuring (2.9%), parallel reformulation (2.9%), paraphrase or explaining (2.8%), extending or narrowing the EVS (2.6%), addition (1.9%), repetition (1.6%), and reproduction (0.3%). Anticipation, reconstruction, and simplification were not applied by any participant.

Omission (30.9%), chunking (20.6%) and transcoding (13.4%), three of the most used tactics amongst the participants, are adopted to deal with time pressure, which is a strong characteristic of simultaneous interpreting, as interpreters must listen to the input segment, process information, and produce the output swiftly or otherwise they will risk losing the following segments uttered by the speaker (GILE, 2009[1995]). Data analysis reveals that, most of the times, the employment of these tactics resulted in comprehensible and idiomatic outputs, as seen in Examples 1-4.

Example 1: Chunking

SS: “well some people love that (0.552) other people don’t”

TS11: “algumas pessoas gostam outras não” [some people like others don’t[11]]

Example 2: Chunking

SS: “consecutive is what you do if you haven’t got all this technology”

TS14: “a interpretação consecutiva (0.43) é o que você terá que fazer caso não tenha toda essa tecnologia como as cabines” [consecutive interpretation (0.43) is what you will have to do in case (you) don’t have all this technology such as the booths]

Example 3: Transcoding

SS: “you have to reconstruct what the speaker is saying”

TS24: “você precisa reconstrui:::r (0.473) o que o orador está falando” [you need to reconstru:::ct (0.473) what the speaker is saying]

Example 4: Omission

SS: “it's very good if you need a precise translation perhaps a legal contract every word must be correct”

TS13: “é muito bom se você quis/ precisar de um tradução (1.157) precisa porque toda todas as palavras precisam estar certas” [(it)’s very good if you wan/ need a translation (1.157) precise because all all the words need to be right]

Examples 1 and 2 show the employment of chunking tactic in two different ways, by merging and by dividing source-speech segments. In example 1, the participant merged two relatively short source-speech segments, which could indicate s/he decided to process them as quickly as s/he could and relieve short-term memory. In contrast, in example 2, the participant divided a single source-speech segment into two new ones. This division probably occurred because s/he started uttering her/his sentence, noticed it was long, and decided to wait before uttering the target speech. In both examples, the tactic use resulted in a comprehensible and acceptable target speech.

The use of transcoding, according to Kalina (2015b), is advisable when interpreting proper nouns, lists of items, numbers, acronyms, and technical words. However, it was used, in Example 3, to re-express a segment without any of these

[11] The target speeches were translated into English as literal as possible.

types of words. Despite that, the output was comprehensible and idiomatic, probably due to the syntactic similarities between English and Portuguese, i.e., both are subject-verb-object languages.

Finally, in Example 4, the participant decided to omit a chunk of speech ("perhaps a legal contract") which is used by the speaker to exemplify his idea of accuracy. This tactic can be considered successfully applied, since the omission maintained the segment's essential idea. Hence, the source-speech meaning was uttered, and target-speech comprehension was not jeopardized.

It is possible that, in Examples 1-4, the use of these tactics might have been a consequence of a planned action. This may represent a transference from written translation skills, i.e., the students might have applied their translation skills to solve interpreting problems. This is consistent with a hypothesis raised by Alves and Da Silva (2021a, 2021b), who understand translation as a skill pervading several domains, including interpreting. Taking this into consideration, the occurrences presented in examples above might have been employed as intentional plans when dealing with specific problems, hence they could be called 'strategies.'

Data analysis also reveals that some of the occurrences of these three tactics, omission, chunking and transcoding, were probably unplanned, i.e., they were probably the result of participants' immediate reactions. In such cases, the target speeches were, most of the times, incomprehensible and unidiomatic. The outputs also contained omissions of entire sentences and/or unfinished sentences, as in Examples 5-7.

Example 5: Chunking

SS: "that means of course it's very good for meetings conferences where you don't want to wait three days to read a translation"

TS11: "é muito bom pra conferências e encontros (2.822) eh difícil porque// (2.649)" [it's very good for meetings and conferences (2.822) it's hard because// (2.649)]

Example 6: Transcoding

SS: "using different sentences and different words (0.307) to make (0.307) the same point"

TS22: "usando fra:::ses e palavras difere:::ntes (0.573) pra fazer o mesmo ponto" [using differe:::nt senten:::ces and words (0.573) to do the same point)]

Example 7: Omission

SS: “you might find yourself (0.319) telling their story (0.54) or making their argument in a completely different way”

TS14: (3.8)

In Example 5, the participant chunked a long sentence, dividing it before the beginning of a new clause, which is a tactic that can be used to deal with long, complicated sentences. However, after the pause, the participant could not finish the sentence, and produced an unintelligible output.

In Example 6, transcoding was used to render the same kind of segment found in Example 3, i.e., without any proper nouns, lists of items, numbers, acronyms, or technical words. Unlike the previous example, however, this output is unidiomatic which may jeopardize the target speech’s comprehension.

In Example 7, the participant omitted an entire sentence and replaced it with a pause. The complete message uttered by the speaker, thus, was not uttered by the interpreter. The pause may indicate that the entire information unit might have been lost by the interpreter in the interpreting process.

In Examples 5 to 7, the tactics were probably a response to the mode-specific time pressure. In Example 5, the target speech started being uttered 11 seconds after the speaker started uttering the equivalent source speech. In Example 6, the target speech was uttered after a pause of 3.747 seconds which replaced an entire source-speech segment. The source segment omitted was uttered in a delivery rate of 135 wpm, which is considered too fast (RICCARDI, 2015). In Example 7, besides the 4 seconds of lag between the beginning of delivery of source and target speeches, the source-speech delivery rate in this chunk was also very fast (166 wpm). All these data suggest that participants were indeed under high time pressure in these three examples.

Interestingly, the third most used tactic was morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%). This tactic is generally used when the syntactic structures of the languages involved are different, which is not the case for the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair, as both are SVO (subject-verb-object) languages. It was mostly used in segments with modal verbs, conditional clauses, and sentences in the passive voice, as in Example 8.

Example 8: Morphosyntactic transformation

SS: "I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career"

TS13: "e:::u gostaria de falar um pouco sobre interpretação como carreira" [I':::d like to speak a little about interpreting as a career]

The underlined words in the sentences indicate the structure of the passive voice in English and its transformation into active voice in Brazilian Portuguese. The student probably employed this tactic to achieve a more idiomatic target speech, as Brazilian Portuguese does have passive voice, but it does not work for the first person as subject as often as in English – e.g., something like "eu fui pedido para falar" ("I've been asked to say") would result unidiomatic.

Approximation (7.5%), repair (7%), and generalization (6.7%) were not frequently employed. Approximation can be used, for instance, when interpreters want to produce target speeches which are semantically and/or structurally close to the source speech, but not the same, as in Example 9.

Example 9: Approximation

SS: "consecutive is what you do if you haven't got all this technology"

TS21: "consecutiva é realizar é uma opção quando não se tem acesso a equipame:::nto" [consecutive is to perform is an option when (people) don't have access to equipme:::nt]

In Example 9, the participant said "equipamento" ("equipment") as an equivalent for "technology". By doing so, s/he uttered a semantically related word to render the target speech, probably because s/he did not want to utter the exact equivalent source-speech word in Portuguese ("tecnologia") or because she could not retrieve it. Albeit using a different word, the target-speech segment remained close in meaning to the source speech.

Repair, which is the act of self-correction, represents 7% of all the occurrences of this tactic. Example 10 presents an occurrence.

Example 10: Repair

SS: "another aspect of interpreting is we tend to travel a lot"

TS22: "outro aspecto::: (0.353) é porque nós nós traveja/ nó:::s viajamos muito" [another aspect::: (0.353) is because we we trav/ we::: move around a lot]

In this example, the interpreter started uttering an equivalent to the word “travel”, stopped before completing the word, and uttered another one. The repair probably occurred because the participant noticed her/his word (“traveja”) was suffering an interference from the source language (“travel”) and made a correction to avoid it. This is an example of what can be considered a covert repair, i.e., it “involve[s] a sequence of an initial target-language equivalent for a given lexical item or phrase, followed by a more satisfactory version in terms of wording or collocation” (MEAD, 2015b, p. 349).

The data included also overt repairs, i.e., when the interpreter openly expresses s/he is making a correction. Example 11 shows some evidence.

Example 11: Repair

SS: “an interpreter at the end of the day has nothing (1.06) the conference is finished you go home”

TS23: “enquanto o cliente enquanto o intérprete perdão (1.194) quando acaba a conferência não tem na:::da pra levar pra casa” [while the client while the interpreter sorry (1.194) when the conference ends there is no:::thing to take home]

In this example, the participant uttered the word “cliente” (“client”), realized it was not what the speaker meant, repeated the structure “enquanto o” (“while the”), uttered the rendition s/he thought would be correct (“o intérprete”), and said “perdão” (“sorry”). By saying “sorry”, the interpreter openly admitted s/he had made a mistake, which is rarely done by interpreters (GILE, 2009[1995]) for reasons which will be discussed in Subsection 3.3.

The generalization tactic represents 6.7% of all occurrences found in the data. As it involves deleting or omitting repetitive, unimportant, and/or redundant elements (LI, 2013; LIONTOU, 2011), it generally implies some overlap with the omission tactic, which was the case in all occurrences. Example 12 represents one of these occurrences.

Example 12: Generalization

SS: “although it’s important to remember that translators very often have to work (0.653) under time pressure as well”

TS24: “tradutores geralmente trabalham com a pressão do tempo” [translators generally work with the pressure of time]

In Example 12, the interpreter compressed the source-speech message by reformulating its information more concisely. The source speech beginning was omitted, thereby leaving out the contrastive idea expressed by the word “although”. Additionally, “as well” was omitted, thus eliminating the idea of addition, i.e., the sentence was comparing translators and interpreters; thus, “as well” added that the time pressure was a situation lived by both professionals. Although these omissions did turn the target speech less accurate, it still re-expressed the core source-speech meaning.

Tactics delaying response (2.9%), restructuring (2.9%), parallel reformulation (2.9%), paraphrase or explaining (2.8%), extending or narrowing the EVS (2.6%), addition (1.9%), repetition (1.6%), and reproduction (0.3%) were rarely used by the undergraduate translation students.

The delaying response tactic, which represents 2.9% of all occurrences, can be applied by producing generic utterances or by pausing target-speech production. Both instances were found as evinced through Examples 13 and 14.

Example 13: Delaying response

SS: “another aspect of interpreting is we tend to travel a lot”

TS13: “(4.092) outra característica do intérprete é que nós viajamos muito” [(4.092) another characteristic of the interpreter is that we travel a lot]

Example 14: Delaying response

SS: “well it’s people who like the stress the excitement of interpreting it’s you there you’re in the hot seat”

TS12: “eh muitas coisas acontecem que:::// (4.221) um estresse então a pessoa não quer ser um intérprete porque::://” [eh many things happen that:::// (4.221) a stress so the person doesn’t want to be an interpreter because::://]

In Example 13, delaying response was employed by pausing target-speech production. Before employing this tactic, the speaker had uttered a source speech with high information density:

SS: “some people find that rather frustrating (0.479) a translator at the end of the day has a nice document they’ve checked it through they’ve done it well it’s perfect they can send it off (0.42) to their customer (1.159) an interpreter at the end of the day has nothing (1.06) the

> conference is finished you go home (1.115) I personally like that (0.413) I don't take my work home (0.677) some people find it frustrating."

The excerpt above was delivered in 23 seconds, which means this entire speech was expressed in a speech rate of 175 wpm, i.e., the source-speech delivery rate was too fast. These two factors together may indicate why the interpreter paused her/his production for 4.092 seconds before uttering the next target-speech segment, the one found in Example 13.

Example 14 brings two instances of delaying response. Before this tactic was employed, there was a lag of 7 seconds between the source-speech and the target-speech utterings, which may have led her/him to produce segments with no correspondence in the source speech ("eh muitas coisas acontecem que::://" [eh many things happen that:::/]) at the beginning of Example 14. However, this delay did not help the participant reformulate the source speech, and s/he delayed the production once more by pausing it for 4.221 seconds. The output rendered after this pause, however, was incomprehensible, which may confirm Gile's (2009[1995]) assertion that delaying response can make interpreters lose segments in a sequence.

Another tactic found in the data is restructuring (2.9%). One of the possible aims of employing it is to produce a more idiomatic target speech. Example 15 represents one occurrence of this type.

> **Example 15: Restructuring**
>
> SS: "in a completely <u>different</u> <u>way</u> (0.341) using different sentences and <u>different</u> <u>words</u>"
>
> *TS23: "com::: <u>palavras</u> difere:::ntes de um <u>jeito</u> diferente" [with::: differe:::nt <u>words</u> in a different <u>fashion</u>]*

The interpreter in Example 15 probably changed the order of the elements "different way" ("jeito diferente") and "different words" ("palavras diferentes") to produce a target speech less attached to the source speech, thus making it more idiomatic in the target language.

The occurrences of parallel reformulation also represent 2.9% of all tactics in the data. Example 16 provides one of the occurrences.

Example 16: Parallel reformulation

SS: “you’re perhaps working ‘round a farm (0.333) or you’re just meeting in a small room somewhere”

TS11: “quando cê tá numa reunião pequena ou (0.552) pelo telefone” [when you’re in a small meeting or (0.552) on the phone]

The parallel reformulation tactic is used when interpreters do not know how to utter a segment (for several different reasons) but want to avoid pausing or leaving sentences unfinished. Therefore, they invent and utter something not said by the speaker, but which might be plausible in the context. This is probably what happened in Example 16. The participant delivered an output (“pelo telephone” [“on the phone”]) which was not uttered by the speaker, but which seemed reasonable in the context described in the source speech, i.e., situations in which a consecutive interpretation could be used.

Another tactic rarely used by the participants was paraphrase or explaining, which represents 2.8% of all occurrences found in the data. One of these occurrences can be seen in Example 17.

Example 17: Paraphrase or explaining

SS: “there's lots of adrenaline (0.488) lots of enjoyable (0.334) pressure on you”

TS13: “a adrenalina e a alegri:::a que você tem sob pressão” [the adrenaline and the jo:::y that you have under pressure]

This is a tactic applied when interpreters explain the meaning of a source-speech element, which is the case of Example 17. The participant probably could not find a target-language equivalent for the expression “enjoyable pressure”. However, s/he understood what it means because the target speech found in the example is an acceptable equivalent to the source speech. Thus, s/he explained what the speaker have uttered, i.e., s/he produced an output which expressed an equivalent message but using words that are not formally correspondent to those of the source text.

Extending or narrowing the EVS is, along with chunking and delaying response, another tactic which deals with pauses. It is used, according to Kohn and Kalina (1996), after a topic shift or at the beginning of the interpreting task, as in Example 18.

Example 18: Extending or narrowing the EVS

SS: “well good afternoon ladies and gentlemen”

TS14: “(0.56) boa no:::ite senhoras e senhores” [(0.56) good e:::vening ladies and gentlemen]

Example 18 is the first segment of the source speech. Seven students (out of 8) waited less than 2 seconds before starting to utter their target speeches, which can be considered a narrowed EVS (LEE, 2003). The speech selected for the present research has only three topic shifts, besides the beginning of the interpreting task. As such, there were only four possible occurrences of this tactic for each interpreter, which might explain its low occurrence in the data (2.6%). Interestingly, Example 18 illustrates a consequence of using a narrowed EVS, i.e., the production of an incomplete or erroneous output, which is the case of “good afternoon” being rendered as “boa noite” (“good evening”). By narrowing the EVS, the participant reduced the anticipation potential, which may have led to the erroneous target speech.

Addition was also rarely employed. This is a tactic used to clarify the message expressed by the speaker. However, considering the participant’s background knowledge of the speech’s topic, the source speech interpreted in this study was relatively clear and simple, thus not requiring much clarification. Besides, the audience was the course lecturer and the researcher of the present study, both of whom are familiar with the speech’s domain, which may have eliminated the need for clarification on the interpreters’ part. These factors might explain its low number of occurrences (1.9%).

This tactic, as well as repetition (1.6%), can be used to enhance the target speech (DONATO, 2003). Examples 19 and 20 present the attempts of two interpreters to use these tactics, probably as a way of enhancing their output.

Example 19: Addition

SS: “it’s very good if you need a precise translation perhaps a legal contract every word must be correct”

TS12: “a tradução é muito boa quando você precisa de::: um contrato lega:::l (0.58) alguma coisa pra você:::” [translation is very good when you need a::: lega:::l contract (0.58) something for you:::]

Example 20: Repetition

SS: “probably the best thing about interpreting is what I just said it’s exciting it’s creative (0.352) there’s lots of adrenaline (0.488) lots of enjoyable (0.334) pressure on you”

TS21: “provavelmente a melhor coisa (1.4) da interpretação (2.792) é criativo envolve criatividade pressã:::o” [probably the best thing (1.4) of interpreting (2.792) (it)’s creative involves creativity pressu:::re]

The use of addition in Example 19, underlined on the sentence in Brazilian Portuguese, cannot be considered successful. On the contrary, it can be considered, according to Riccardi (2002), an error, because the participant could not finish her/his sentence after the pause, and the information added did not make sense and had no connection with the source speech.

In Example 20, the source-speech delivery rate is 150 wpm, which can be considered fast. Thus, the interpreter probably used the repetition tactic to gain some extra time. By repeating a previously processed element (“criativo envolve criatividade” [“creative involves creativity”]), s/he could organize the speech s/he was about to utter in the target language (LI, 2013) and/or avoid long pauses (WU; LIAO, 2018).

Reproduction was the tactic with lowest occurrence (0.3%) in the data. Interestingly, all occurrences (3) came from the same participant. Example 21 is one of them.

Example 21: Reproduction

SS: “you often find that you have to reconstruct what the speaker is saying”

TS22: "você tem que reconstruir o que o::: speaker tá falando” [you have to reconstruct what the::: speaker (repeating the English word) is saying]

The participant who employed this tactic was one of the students of the “Interpreting Foundations” course. The present researcher was also a student of the same course and noticed, during the classes, that the course’s lecturer almost never said the reproduced word (“speaker”) in Brazilian Portuguese (“orador”) when referring to the person who utters the source speech. Since this tactic is used when interpreters are unable to re-express the source-speech term in the target language because they do not know the target-speech equivalent to it or because they did not recognize it, it is likely that either participant TS22 did not know the equivalent word in the target

speech or that s/he was so used to listening to it in English that s/he forgot to re-express its target-speech equivalent, as a lapse of attention.

Finally, three tactics were not used by any of the students. Anticipation, i.e., the act of uttering the target speech before the speaker utters the source speech equivalent, can be considered language-specific and used to deal especially with languages with left-branching structures, such as German (LIONTOU, 2015). Neither English nor Brazilian Portuguese presents this syntactic feature, which may explain why this tactic was not employed by any of the students.

The results for reconstruction and simplification are also consistent with the literature. Reconstruction is usually employed to deal with problematic source-speech elements, such as technical terms (BARTŁOMIEJCZYK, 2006; GILE, 2009[1995]; LI, 2013). Similarly, simplification can also be used to deal with information that is difficult to re-express in the target language, such as technical details (JONES, 2002). As pointed out in Section 2.1, considering both the participants' knowledge of translation and the target audience of their interpreting sessions, the source speech interpreted for the present research posed no technical or terminological challenges, which may explain the absence of these two tactics in the data.

This section described and discussed the tactics employed by the participants in their interpreting tasks. In short, the results show that the most frequently employed tactics were omission (30.9%), chunking (20.6%), morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%), and transcoding (13.4%). What was first thought to be 'strategies' were actually 'tactics', as they were online decisions with immediate goals, rather than a result of planned actions. However, there were some few examples where the students probably adopted interpreting 'strategies', i.e., they made intentional and planned decisions, to deal with the constraints found during the task.

The next section describes and discusses whether there is a relationship between tactic use and cognitive effort.

3.2 Tactic Use and Cognitive Effort

The following pages explore the potential relationship between the tactics identified in the data and the cognitive effort expended by the undergraduate students under scrutiny.

As shown in Table 14 (Section 3.1), chunking (20.6%) and morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%) were among the most used tactics, overlapping with each other on several occasions. According to Donato (2003), it is common because different tactics can be used in the same segment to address multiple cognitive and linguistic difficulties.

Chunking is considered by the relevant literature (BARAKAT, 2018; GILE, 2009[1995]; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; LI, 2015) as a tactic that may decrease short-term memory requirements, thereby allowing interpreters to process the incoming message without overloading their processing capacity. It may allow interpreters to save time and attentional resources. Meanwhile, morphosyntactic transformation is described (HAN; CHEN, 2016; KIRCHHOFF, 2002) as a tactic which demands a considerable amount of processing capacity. Example 22 illustrates a successful use of these two tactics.

Example 22: Chunking and morphosyntactic transformation

SS: "you might also sometimes find yourself (0.393) adding some cultural information"

TS24: "às vezes é necessário vo/ você adiciona:::r elementos culturais" [sometimes (it) is necessary yo/ you add::: cultural elements]

In the example above, the interpreter merged two source-speech segments, most likely to allow her/him to save time and/or attentional resources. This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that s/he, additionally, performed a morphosyntactic transformation. S/he transformed a sentence with a well-defined subject ("you) into a sentence starting with the verb "é" ("is") followed by a clausal subject, "você adicionar elementos culturais" ("you add cultural elements"). Similarly, s/he eliminated the idea of a possibility of adding cultural information, expressed by the modal verb "might", transforming this possibility into a necessity by using "é necessário" ("[it] is necessary"). The idea of possibility, however, was not eliminated. It was expressed by "às vezes" ("sometimes"). All these changes were made without compromising the re-expression of the source-speech meaning while still allowing the interpreter to save time to process the incoming message, probably due to the employment of chunking as well.

Likewise, chunking overlapped with transcoding (the fourth most used tactic, representing 13.4% of all occurrences) several times, as transcoding is also a

resource used to release short-term memory. Example 23 illustrates a successful use of these tactics.

Example 23: Transcoding and chunking

SS: “what I mean by that is that (0.327) a translator”

TS23: “o que eu quero dizer com isso é que::: um tradutor” [what I want to say with that is that::: a translator]

The student in Example 23 joined two segments separated by a short pause and expressed them on a word-for-word basis. In this case, the target speech was comprehensible and acceptable, allowing the interpreter to continue her/his rendition smoothly, without overloading her/his processing capacity.

The most used tactic, omission (30.9%), also overlapped with other tactics, especially with generalization, approximation, paraphrase or explaining and parallel reformulation. In Example 24, however, it overlapped with the third most used tactic, morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%), as shown below.

Example 24: Omission and morphosyntactic transformation

SS: “an interpreter at the end of the day has nothing”

TS23: “já o intérprete não tem nada” [in turn the interpreter doesn’t have anything]

The segment from Example 24 was uttered right after a source-speech excerpt delivered at a very fast rate (180 wpm). Additionally, the employment of the morphosyntactic transformation tactic (the interpreter converted an affirmative sentence into an negative one) demands a high amount of the interpreter’s processing capacity (KIRCHHOFF, 2002). It is probable, then, that the interpreter resorted to an omission to deal with processing problems imposed by the great time pressure and by the cognitive demands of performing the morphosyntactic transformation. The element omitted (“at the end of the day”), although making the target speech less accurate, did not compromise its comprehension by the audience.

However, in several occurrences, especially in the first 30 seconds after the beginning of the interpreting process, the use of some tactics caused problems to the participants. When employing transcoding, for example, some students could not finish their sentences, or they started having difficulties in managing their attentional

resources and tried to search for other tactics in an attempt to keeping up with the task, as shown in Example 25.

Example 25: Chunking, repair, transcoding, reproduction, and omission

SS: “you often find that you have to reconstruct what the speaker is saying you don’t go through word by word (0.575) you might find yourself (0.319) telling their story (0.54) or making their argument in a completely different way”

TS22: “você tem que reconstruir o que o::: speaker tá falando (0.433) você não vai palavra por palavra você pode se encontrar falando contando histó:::rias (3.747)” [you have to reconstruct what the::: speaker (repeating the English word) is saying (0.433) you don’t go word for word you can find yourself speaking telling sto:::ries (3.747)]

The source speech in Example 25 starts at 01’03”381, but the target speech starts only at 01’07”370. In other words, the interpreter was almost 4 seconds behind the speaker, which may have caused an accumulation of information on her/his short-term memory. Additionally, this excerpt’s source-speech delivery rate was 180 wpm, which is considered fast and could have caused the loss of information.

The participant may have started transcoding and chunking the target speech as a way of relieving her/his memory. However, in the first segment uttered, s/he reproduces the word “speaker” in her/his target speech. This tactic (reproduction) can be used when interpreters are unable to re-express a source-speech element most likely due to a lapse of attention, which was probably what happened here, as described in Section 3.1. In Example 25, this lapse could have been caused by a possible cognitive processing problem resulted from the delay in listening, processing the information, and producing the output.

At the end of the next segment, the participant used the repair tactic when s/he started uttering an equivalent for “telling their story”. S/he may have realized s/he was not uttering an idiomatic expression and changed her/his output (the underlined words at the end of the target speech). When the interpreter employed the repair tactic, s/he may have probably spent a high amount of processing capacity thinking of a correction and ended up losing the last input segment (the underlined segment in the source speech). Therefore, the accumulation of cognitive processing problems, caused by time pressure and by the misemployment of all these tactics, may have led to a cognitive saturation, which can be confirmed by the omission at the end of the

excerpt. The last information units uttered by the speaker (the underlined words at the end of the source speech) were replaced by a pause of 3.747 seconds, which may be indicative that the interpreter exceeded her/his total processing capacity.

As pointed out in the Review of the Literature (Subsection 1.2.12), there is a great debate about the level of consciousness when using the omission tactic. The data found in this MA thesis demonstrated that in most of the occurrences where the participant seemed to be aware s/he was employing it, there was an overlapping between omission and other tactic, as in Example 26.

Example 26: Chunking and paraphrase or explaining (omission)

SS: “translator you get a document and you’ve got time to look up the vocabulary or to think of (0.336) just the right word the perfect word to translate the word in the original”

TS21: “você (0.827) você te:::m tempo (2.798) eh tem recu:::rsos para (0.575) conseguir (0.427) com precisão a palavra” [you (0.827) ha:::ve time (2.798) eh (you) have resou:::rces to (0.575) get (0.427) with precision the word]

The excerpt in Example 26, albeit very segmented, can be considered a comprehensible output that conveyed the source-speech message. The chunking tactic may have been used to ease the analysis of the incoming message (LIONTOU, 2011) and/or to deal with the long sentence (LI, 2015), thus facilitating target-speech production. Similarly, the paraphrase or explaining tactic may indicate that the participant understood the source-speech message, but due to time pressure, probably decided to explain it, rather than render it more attached to the source words and syntactic structure. Consequently, part of the source-speech elements was omitted without compromising the target-speech production.

However, there are several instances where the students omitted entire segments, probably due to processing capacity saturation. In such cases, the employment of this tactic can be considered unconsciously as participants probably omitted because they could not retrieve the source speech from their memory any longer. Example 27 demonstrates one of these occurrences.

Example 27: Omission

SS: “you might find yourself in some big castle somewhere”

TS21: (1.971)

The source segment in Example 27 was uttered after a dense excerpt:

> SS: “another advantage is quite often you're going to interesting conferences very va:::ried conferences meeting lots of people you might meet all kinds of VIPs (0.534) who you otherwise only see on television (1.207) or you might find yourself going ‘round a farm (0.574) or going ‘round a factory places that you would never have seen (0.425) if you weren’t an interpreter”

This SS was delivered at a high rate (171 wpm). In such a context, it was expected that the interpreter’s short-term requirements would increase. However, it increased in such a way that the student probably exceeded her/his total processing capacity availability and ended up losing the last segment, the one from Example 27, thus omitting it.

The use of some other tactic, such as repetition (1.6%) and repair (7%), albeit least common, may also indicate some relationship between the cognitive effort expended by the students and tactic use. Example 28 may demonstrate this relationship.

> **Example 28: Repetition, chunking and parallel reformulation (omission)**
>
> SS: “where you will be eaten the same fancy food as the delegates (0.34) which is a nice advantage”
>
> *TS14: “que você onde você (0.422) em que você co:::merá (0.513) comidas que você não comeria outros lugares” [that you where you (0.422) in which you will ea:::t (0.513) food that you would not eat other places]*

The source-speech segment in Example 28 starts at minute 5. Its interpreting was anteceded by several omissions of entire information units, which could indicate that the student was probably already having some cognitive processing problems before s/he started processing this segment. The repair tactic is used right at the beginning of the segment (underlined words in the target-speech transcription). The participant repeats the equivalent of the relative pronoun “where” three times, each time with a different relative pronoun (“que você onde você em que você” [“that you where you in which you”]), probably trying to gain some extra processing time due to a difficulty which s/he might have encountered in the segment. This difficulty may be

confirmed by the employment of the other tactics (chunking and parallel reformulation) found in this Example.

The source speech was chunked twice, which may have been an attempt to relieve short-term memory, since the repetition was employed right before the second pause, indicating that the interpreter might have found a solution to the problem s/he was facing. However, the occurrence of parallel reformulation, i.e., the expression of something not uttered by the speaker, but plausible in the context, indicates that s/he probably could not understand or reformulate the source speech accordingly, possibly due to cognitive overload. Finally, this cognitive overload can be confirmed by the omission of the entire segment that came after the source speech's pause ("which is a nice advantage").

Several instances of repair found in the data indicate that it might have been applied to solve cognitive constraints. Example 29 is one of them.

Example 29: Repair, delaying response, and approximation (omission)

SS: "(4.58) but for your listeners to understand you might quickly have to add a couple of cultural points"

TS22: "(4.58) <u>você teve que::: você tem::: que</u> falar algumas coisas culturais" [(4.58) <u>you had to::: you have::: to</u> say some cultural things]

Before the student started uttering the target speech in Example 29, s/he had made a pause of 4.58 seconds, which was counted as an instance of delaying response. This tactic is used after segments considered problem triggers (GILE, 2009[1995]) and may allow interpreters extra processing time to deal with constraints in the interpreting process. Therefore, the participant was already having some processing problems before s/he began interpreting this segment, which is reflected in the omission made at its beginning. Right after the omission, the interpreter employed the repair tactic (the underlined words in the target-speech transcription), i.e., s/he uttered a target speech s/he thought was adequate ("você teve que" ["you had to"]), realized it was not what s/he should have uttered and corrected her/his target speech by uttering something different ("você tem que" ["you have to"]). Finally, after the repair, the participant used a less precise expression, i.e., the approximation tactic, as an aid to her/his reformulation process, since s/he was probably having some difficulties in performing it.

To conclude this section, the examples showed that most of the tactics used by the students are related to the cognitive effort expended by them. Altogether, the occurrences of the four most used tactics (omission, chunking, morphosyntactic transformation, and transcoding) represent 80.8% of all tactics found in the data. Additionally, the analysis of the use of other tactics revealed that they were also influenced by, or had an influence upon, the cognitive effort expended by the participants. The examples are indicative that the tactics identified were probably used to tackle cognitive constraints found during the performance of the interpreting task. Some of these constraints were related to input listening, others to source-speech comprehension and analysis, and others to target-speech production. Additionally, there were cognitive constraints related to the time pressure imposed by the simultaneous act; these constraints were dealt with by using specific tactics which could be related to the cognitive effort expended by the students.

The next section explores a potential relationship between tactics use and interpreting norms to answer the third research question, i.e., whether the tactics used by the translation students are related to interpreting norms.

3.3 Tactic Use and Interpreting Norms

This section investigates whether the tactics identified in Section 3.1 are, to some extent, related to interpreting norms. In Section 3.2, it was shown that there was a relationship between tactic use and cognitive effort, i.e., the participants employed several tactics to deal with cognitive constraints. However, some occurrences found in the data were not related to cognitive processing. Instead, they were used with the aim of producing a more idiomatic target speech.

Idiomaticity can be related to the audience's acceptability of the target speech and, consequently, to interpreting quality. According to the literature (GARZONE, 2002; SCHJOLDAGER, 1995; WANG, 2012a), interpreting norms can guide the interpreters' behavior with the aim of reaching an output of higher quality. Therefore, when interpreters use interpreting tactic to seek for quality, they are probably guided by interpreting norms, as in Example 30.

Example 30: Morphosyntactic transformation (passive into active voice)

SS: "I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career"

TS11: "eu vo:::u dizer algumas palavras sobre interpretação como uma carreira" [I'm go:::ing to say a few words about interpreting as a career]

TS12: "eu gostaria de falar algumas coisas sobre a interpretação como uma carre:::ira" [I'd like to speak some things about interpreting as a care:::er]

TS13: "e:::u gostaria de falar um pouco sobre interpretação como carreira" [I':::d like to speak a little about interpreting as a career]

TS14: "pediram que eu falasse um pouco sobre a carreira de intérprete" [(they) asked me to speak a little about the interpreter career]

TS21: "gostaria de dizer algumas palavras sobre::: interpretação como profissão" [(I')d like to say a few words about::: interpreting as a profession]

TS22: "boa ta:::rde senhoras e senho:::res vou dizer algumas palavras sobre interpretação como carreira" [good after:::noon ladies and gentle:::men (I')m going to say a few words about interpreting as a career]

TS23: "gostaria de conversar so:::bre (0.517) interpretação enquanto carreira" [(I')d like to talk abo:::ut (0.517) interpreting as a career]

TS24: "gostaria de falar sobre a carreira de interpretação" [(I')d like to speak about the interpreting career]

The source speech in Example 30 was uttered at the beginning of the speech. The speaker is introducing the topic of his speech by using a common construction in English ("I've been asked to say"). Similarly, the interpreters use common structures in Brazilian Portuguese ("gostaria de falar sobre" [I'd like to speak about], "vou falar sobre" [I'll speak about]). However, the constructions in Brazilian Portuguese are in the active voice, whereas the construction in English is in the passive voice. Still, they can be called equivalents as they have the same function, i.e., to present the topic of the speech.

This type of transformation is common when interpreting from English into Brazilian Portuguese, i.e., it is a recurrent situation faced by interpreters working with this language pair. Thus, the use of an active construction as an equivalent for a passive construction with the aim of reaching a more idiomatic expression can be considered an ad hoc tactic, i.e., a norm-based solution activated when this syntactic pattern appears. Therefore, it is probably employed as a result of an operational norm

working textually at a local level. This norm was activated several times by the participants through morphosyntactic transformation, as shown in Example 31.

Example 31: Morphosyntactic transformation (passive into active voice)

SS: "the conference is finished you go home"

TS11: "se/ seu trabalho acaba ali (0.68) na hora que a reunião acaba" [you/ your work ends there (0.68) in the time that the meeting ends]

TS12: "a conferência acaba e você vai pra casa" [the conference ends and you go home]

TS13: "a conferência acabou e você pode ir embora" [the conference ended and you can go away]

TS14: "a conferência termina e ele vai pra casa" [the conference finishes and he goes home]

TS21: "a conferência acaba você vai pra casa" [the conference ends you go home]

TS22: "a conferência::: acaba e você vai pra casa" [the conference::: ends and you go home]

TS23: "quando acaba a conferência não tem na:::da pra levar pra casa" [when the conference ends (you) don't have any:::thing to take home]

TS24: "a interpretação termina e você vai pra casa" [the interpreting finishes and you go home]

This example corroborates the previous one. The source-speech construction is in the passive voice ("the conference is finished"), and all the interpreters' outputs are in the active voice, with half of them (TS12, TS21, TS22, TS23) being the same construction ("a conferência acaba"). This result confirms that the students' decision of applying morphosyntactic transformation when the source-speech sentence was in the passive voice was probably guided by a textual linguistic norm which function at local level. According to Garzone (2002), by frequently following this norm, interpreters may end up automatizing the use of this tactic, which may allow them to save time and processing capacity while avoiding cognitive overload and producing an output of higher quality.

Constructions with the modal verb "might" also presented some difficulty for most participants. As an alternative to this difficulty, they used, most of the times, morphosyntactic transformation, as shown in Example 32.

Example 32 – Morphosyntactic transformation (modal verb "might")

SS: "**you <u>might</u> find yourself telling** their story"

TS11: "**às vezes você vai tá contando uma história de uma história**" [**sometimes you<u>'ll</u> be telling** a story of a story]

TS12: "**você vai fala:::r (0.487)** uma história" [**you<u>'ll</u> sa:::y (0.487)** a story]

TS13: "**<u>vai</u> se encontra:::r *dizen/ contando*** uma história" [(you')**<u>ll</u> find:::: yourself *sayi/ telling*** a story]

TS14: [Omission]

TS21: "**<u>é preciso</u> dizer** *uma pala/ uma história*" [(it')**<u>s necessary</u> to say** *a wor/ a story*]

TS22: "**você <u>pode</u> se encontrar *falando contando*** histó:::rias" [**you <u>can</u> find yourself *speaking telling*** sto:::ries]

TS23: "**você <u>precisa</u> dize:::r** o que *o confer/ o conferencista* tá dizendo" [**you <u>need</u> to sa:::y** what *the spe/ the speaker* is saying]

TS24: "***você* <u>di:::z</u> você <u>reproduz</u> o que ele di:::z** em palavras diferentes" [**you <u>sa:::y</u> you <u>reproduce</u> what he sa:::ys** in different words]

The modal verb "might" expresses the slight possibility of something happening. In the case of Example 32, there is a slight possibility that the subject ("you") might have to tell their story, but this is not certain. In Brazilian Portuguese, this idea of possibility could be expressed by words like "talvez" ("maybe") or "pode" ("can"). However, only TS22 used "pode" as a rendition for "might". Participant TS11 uttered the word "vai" ("is going to"), which gives an idea of certainty rather than predictability. This word ("vai") was also used by TS12 and TS13, while students T21 and TS23 used the word "precisa" ("need"), and TS24 ignores the modal verb in the source speech and utters "diz" ("say") directly. All these renditions give an opposite idea to what was uttered by the speaker. Finally, TS14 omits the entire information unit.

Even though only TS22 managed to partially render the meaning of the modal verb "might", it is noticeable that all participants did try to recover all the information contained in the source message. Therefore, they were probably guided by a textual linguistic norm which function at a general level, i.e., Gile's (2009[1995]) law of maximizing information recovery, as they were attempting to reformulate all the content from the source speech. Despite this attempt, the target speeches in Example 32 were not able to recover this message.

Schjoldager (1995) explains that interpreters may follow some norms as guidelines in the employment of tactics, but capacity saturation may interfere with their cognitive processing and may force them to search for emergency tactics, such as repair and repetition (indicated by the words in italics). TS13, TS21 and TS22, for example, had to repair their target speeches after uttering words that they had realized were not an exact rendition of the source speech. Generalization was used by interpreters TS23 and TS24, which probably led to morphosyntactic transformation. However, they probably had some difficulty in employing these tactics and had to repeat a previously processed element as an attempt to better express the target-speech message. Interestingly, capacity saturation may have been caused by the combined use of tactics as an attempt to recover the maximum of the source-message information.

Some of the occurrences of repair, one of the tactics found in Example 32, can be related to interpreting norms. As discussed in Section 3.1, repair represented 7% of all tactics employed by the participants, with instances of overt and covert repairs. Covert repairs, such as those in Example 32, accounted for nearly 100% of this tactic in the data, something expected when taking into consideration the law of self-protection. This norm is described by Gile (2009[1995]) as a natural tendency in human behavior. Interpreters' choices for tactics which do not highlight their problems in understanding and reformulating segments, such as covert repairs, demonstrate that they do follow this norm.

However, two participants did employ overt repairs, which means they did not follow this norm, as shown in Examples 33 and 34.

Example 33: Repair

SS: "what I mean by that is that (0.327) a translator (0.38) reads and writes (0.96) whereas an interpreter (0.56) listens and speaks"

TS13: "o que eu quero dizer com isso é que um tradutor lê (0.526) e escreve enquanto e intérprete escreve (0.471) <u>não</u> (0.336) escuta (1.248) e fala" [what I want to say with this is that a translator reads (0.526) and writes while and interpreter writes (0.471) <u>no</u> (0.336) listens (1.248) and speaks]

Example 34: Repair

SS: “an interpreter at the end of the day has nothing (1.06) the conference is finished you go home”

TS23: “enquanto o cliente enquanto o intérprete perdão (1.194) quando acaba a conferência não tem na:::da pra levar pra casa” [while the client while the interpreter sorry (1.194) when the conference ends doesn’t have no:::thing to take home]

In Example 33, the participant was uttering her/his target speech and realized s/he had made a mistake, paused her/his rendition briefly and then made a correction. However, before correcting her/his mistake, s/he uttered the word “não” (“no”), making it explicit that s/he realized s/he had uttered something wrong.

Similarly, in Example 34, the student uttered her/his target speech, made a correction right after, and then said the word “perdão” (“sorry”), apologizing for making a mistake. As in the previous example, the interpreter’s fault was highlighted by her/himself. Gile (2009[1995]) contends that this type of action does not protect interpreters, as it can discredit the interpreter in front of her/his audience. The fact that the interpreters of this study were translation students, not professional interpreters with internalized norms, may justify their deviation from professional behavior.

Another construction governed by interpreting norms found in the data was conditional sentences. Example 35 shows how interpreters managed one of these constructions.

Example 35: Morphosyntactic transformation and omission (second conditional sentence)

SS: “or going ‘round a factory places that you would never have seen (0.425) if you weren’t an interpreter”

TS11: “fábrica (1.962) que você nunca veria normalmente” [factory (1.962) that you’d never see normally]

TS12: “conhecer pessoas que você não (0.683) conheceria se você não fo:::sse um intérprete” [meet people that you’d (0.683) not get to know if you we:::ren’t an interpreter]

TS13: “ou uma fábrica (0.304) lugares que você nunca imaginou estar estar indo” [or a factory (0.304) places that you never imagined be be going]

TS14: “ir a qualquer outro lugar que você não conheceria em outras situações” [to go to any other place that you would not get to know in other situations]

TS21: “ou lugares que você nunca esteve” [or places that you never were]

> *TS22: "fábricas ou pe/ lugares que <u>você nã:::o se nunca se imaginou indo como um intérprete</u>" [factories or pe/ places that <u>you no::: yourself never imagined yourself going as an interpreter</u>]*
>
> *TS23: "por uma fábrica que::: (0.825) <u>se não fôssemos intérpretes não conheceríamos</u>" [through a factory that::: (0.825) if (we) weren't interpreteres (we) wouldn't get to know]*
>
> *TS24: "e você pode ir em lugares que <u>você talvez não conheceria se você não fosse um intérprete</u>" [and you can go in places that <u>you maybe wouldn't get to know if you weren't an interpreter</u>]*

The way interpreters dealt with the conditional sentence, in Example 35, was different. Some of them (TS12, TS23, and TS24) were probably guided by the law of maximizing information recovery and employed a morphosyntactic transformation, thus recovering the condition expressed by the source sentence ("you'd never have seen (0.425) if you weren't an interpreter").

Others were probably guided by the law of minimizing interference in information recovery and used omission or tactics which involved the omission of elements, probably because they recognized it would be difficult to express the sentence's equivalent and/or because they did not know its equivalent. Either way, they resorted to tactics which require less time and processing capacity, such as paraphrase or explaining and approximation, despite the loss of information that it might result.

Participants TS11 and TS13 paraphrased the source-speech sentence and ended up omitting the condition expressed by it, probably because they understood its meaning but did not know how to utter the target-language equivalent. The other participants (TS14, TS21 and TS22) applied the approximation tactic, probably because they could not retrieve the source-speech elements, and omitted part of (TS14) or the entire (TS21 and TS22) condition expressed in the source speech.

The segments in Example 35 are part of a source-speech excerpt which was delivered at a rate of 171 wpm, which is considered very fast and might have caused the accumulation of information in the interpreters' short-term memory. Because of that, they might have followed the norm of minimizing interference in information recovery as an attempt to maintain the production without losing the next input segments. However, as stated earlier, sometimes cognitive saturation may interfere with interpreters' cognitive processing, even if they were trying to follow a norm, and make them choose tactic which result in an incomplete or inaccurate output.

Additionally, the source-speech segment in Example 35 began being uttered at 4'48", i.e., 20 seconds before the end of the speech. This could indicate that interpreters were already experiencing some fatigue because they were translation students not used to perform this kind of task. Therefore, some of them, instead of following the law of minimizing interference in information recovery, were probably following the law of least effort, i.e., they were omitting elements with the aim of saving time and cognitive processing and, eventually, fulfilling the interpreting task.

Other norm described by Gile (2009[1995]), the law of maximizing the communication impact of the speech, did not seem to have guided any of the interpreters choices for specific tactic. This norm is described as a behavior that leads the interpreter to choose tactics which are related to synchronicity between source and target speeches, considering the audience's reactions to it. Since the audience of the task in this study was the course lecturer and the researcher, the students were probably not concerned with this aspect. Additionally, they did not have experience as interpreters; thus, they were probably not aware of the importance of keeping the pace of both target and source speeches.

Finally, some tactics were applied following matricial norms, i.e., the ones which govern "the way linguistic material is actually *distributed* throughout it [the text]" (TOURY, 2012[1995], p. 82). Restructuring is one tactic of this type, as shown in Example 36.

Example 36: Restructuring

SS: "they are immediately (0.32) interpreting my ideas so that someone else can listen straight away"

TS11: "eles têm que (1.762) traduzir imediatamente (0.866) pra que vocês possam ouvir" [they have to (1.762) translate immediately (0.866) so that you can listen]

TS12: "elas imediatamente estão interpretando as minhas ideia:::s (0.364) pra que outra pessoa consiga entender o que eu tô falando" [they immediately are interpreting my idea:::s (0.364) so that other person can understand what I'm saying]

TS13: "eles tão inter/ (0.423) interpretando imediatamente pra que alguém possa escutar" [they're int/ (0.423) interpreting immediately so that someone can listen]

TS14: "eles estão interpretando ao mesmo tempo" [they're interpreting at the same time]

TS21: "eles tão (1.34) traduzindo imediatamente as minhas ideias" [they're (1.34) translating immediately my ideas]

> *TS22: "é deve ser (1.667) interpretados (0.913) de um certo jeito" [(it) is should be (1.667) interpreted (0.913) in a certain way]*
>
> *TS23: "eles tão imediatamente interpretando as ideias que eu estou falando" [they are immediately interpreting the ideas that I'm speaking]*
>
> *TS24: "eles estão interpretan:::do (0.753) imediatamente para que outras pessoas possam entender" [they are interpre:::ting (0.753) immediately so that other people can understand]*

In the English source speech, the adverb "immediately" was uttered between the verbs "are" and "interpreting", following a grammar rule which specifies that, when there are a verb and an auxiliary in a sentence, adverbs should go in the middle of them. In Brazilian Portuguese, however, time adverbs can go before or after the verb more freely. The grammar rules for English and Brazilian Portuguese are different, and the participants followed the rule of their native language. To this end, they had to use the restructuring tactic, i.e., they had to change the sequence of source-speech elements during target-speech production. By doing so, they were guided, as stated earlier, by a matricial norm. The only exceptions in Example 36 were TS14, who replaced the adverb "immediately" with "ao mesmo tempo" ("at the same time"), while maintaining the idea of immediate action; and TS22, who replaced the adverb with "de um certo jeito" ("in a certain way"), changing the source-speech meaning.

Altogether, these findings suggest that there is an association between the tactics used by the research participants and interpreting norms. Some tactics were chosen following operational norms, both matricial and textual-linguistic norms. The students used several tactics with the aim of producing a more idiomatic target speech, seeking to reach an output of higher quality. By doing so, they were aware of the expectations of their audience, and behaved in such a way to meet these expectations. The only exception was the law of maximizing the communication impact of the speech, which did not seem to guide the employment of any of the tactics found in the data. This might be explained by the fact that the participants were translation students, and not professional interpreters, i.e., they were not aware of (or were not concerned with) the importance of keeping the pace of both target and source speeches.

4 CONCLUSION

The general objective of this MA thesis was to investigate the use of interpreting strategies by undergraduates while performing simultaneous interpreting tasks in the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair. Three specific objectives were established to accomplish this, namely:

1. To identify the most common strategies used by the students,
2. To assess whether the strategies used by the students might be related to their cognitive effort,
3. To assess whether the strategies used by the students might be related to interpreting norms.

Such objectives translated into the following research questions:

4. Which interpreting strategies were most used by the students?
5. To what extent are the strategies used by the students related to the cognitive effort expended by them?
6. To what extent are the strategies used by the students related to interpreting norms?

The results of this investigation showed that the students employed 'tactics', rather than 'strategies', when dealing with cognitive constraints and attempting to solve problems. According to Gile (2009[1995], p. 200),

> while in the TS [Translation Studies] literature, such online decisions and actions are often called 'strategies', I prefer to reserve that term for planned action with specific objectives (for instance conference preparation strategies) and to opt for 'tactics' when referring to online decisions and actions.

This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that the participants were undergraduate translation students and had no special training in simultaneous interpreting. As such, their use of 'strategies' was not planned, but rather an instinctive response to immediate problems found during the interpreting task. Therefore, their decisions, according to Gile (2009[1995], p. 200), are called 'tactics'.

Data analysis showed that the most frequently employed tactics were omission (30.9%), chunking (20.6%), morphosyntactic transformation (15.9%), and transcoding (13.4%). Three of them, i.e., chunking, transcoding, and omission, were adopted to deal with time pressure, which is a strong characteristic of simultaneous

interpreting, as interpreters must listen to the input segment, process the information, and produce the output swiftly, or otherwise they will risk losing the following segments uttered by the speaker (GILE, 2009[1995]). Consequently, these tactics can be considered specific to the simultaneous mode.

Gile's (2009[1995]) Effort Models was the background for answering the second research question. These models have been adopted by several researchers in recent years to analyze strategies employed by interpreters to deal with problem triggers (GILE, 2015), which are some conditions related to the interpreting task that may cause increased processing capacity requirements, attention management errors, or lapses of attention. Gile's (2009[1995]) models seek to identify the cognitive costs of choosing a specific way to deal with such problems. That was the reason why it was chosen as the background to analyze the data.

Among the four tactics mostly used by the students, chunking and transcoding can be considered tactics that may decrease short-term memory requirements, thereby allowing interpreters to process the incoming message without overloading their processing capacity (BARAKAT, 2018; GILE, 2009[1995]; KADER; SEUBERT, 2014; LI, 2015). They may allow interpreters to save time and attentional resources. The examples found in the data showed that participants tried to employ these tactics with these goals, and sometimes their production was an accurate rendition of the source speech. However, most of the times, probably due to the lack of training in interpreting, the cognitive constraints imposed by the task did not allow the participants to use the tactics properly. Additionally, the attempt to apply these tactics caused more problems and the students delivered incomprehensible and erroneous outputs.

Morphosyntactic transformation, in turn, is a strategy/tactic which demands a considerable amount of processing capacity (HAN; CHEN, 2016; KIRCHHOFF, 2002) because interpreters have to spend some time and processing capacity to think of the changes to be made before uttering their target speech. The findings reported in the present study exemplify this assertion. The participants production revealed that they spent a great amount of cognitive processing in segments in which they employed morphosyntactic transformations. This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that, in such segments, there was an overlapping of tactics, i.e., students tried to solve new problems that arouse from the employment of morphosyntactic transformation with other strategies/tactics.

Finally, omission was a tactic resorted to when the students had to deal with processing problems imposed by the great time pressure or by other cognitive demands. It was found on several occasions overlapping with generalization, approximation, paraphrase or explaining, and parallel reformulation. Thus, the percentage of omission found in the data represents 30.9% of all tactics. This result highlights the fact that the participants were untrained students and, as such, they reached the cognitive saturation level very frequently, which probably led them to omit during most of their target-speech production.

The most surprising finding is that the participants used several tactics to deal with cognitive constraints encountered during the interpreting task, even without being trained to do so (i.e., they were translation students, not interpreting students). One potential explanation is that they had some formal training in written translation, i.e., they had some knowledge about strategies applied to solve written translation problems. This knowledge was probably acquired earlier in other courses of the Undergraduate Program in Translation. A potential inference thereof is that knowledge acquired for translation purposes was instinctively used for interpreting purposes, i.e., they probably used some tactics because they extended to interpreting their knowledge about how to solve translation problems. This seems to be consistent with the notion of translation as a skill amenable to several domains, as posited by Alves and Da Silva (2021a, 2021b). This can be hypothesized based on the assertion that translation can be approached as a skill which “should allow us to understand it as an ability that pervades several tasks or activities socially described as translation or translation related” (ALVES; DA SILVA, 2021b, s.p.), with interpreting being one such example. This hypothesis, however, needs further investigation by additional studies.

In summary, more than half of the occurrences of tactics found in the data (the sum of the occurrences of omission, chunking, morphosyntactic transformation, and transcoding) was influenced by, or had an influence upon, the cognitive effort expended by the participants. The examples illustrated that the tactics identified were probably used to tackle cognitive constraints related to input listening, source-speech comprehension and analysis, and target-speech production. Finally, cognitive constraints related to the time pressure imposed by the simultaneous mode were also dealt with by using specific tactics. They sometimes eased the cognitive processing demands of the task and helped decrease the cognitive effort expended by the

students. However, in some instances they were not enough to avoid participants' cognitive overload; in fact they sometimes caused some additional problems.

The third and last research question was answered based on Garzone's (2002) description of Toury's (2012[1995]) norms, which includes Gile's (2009[1995]) laws (considered textual-linguistic norms which function at the general level). The tactics used by the participants were analyzed to identify whether the decisions made during the interpreting process were guided by norms, i.e., whether the tactics were chosen following some operational norms (matricial norms and textual-linguistic norms).

Data analysis showed that there probably is a relationship between the tactics used by the research participants and interpreting norms. The most common tactics (omission, chunking, morphosyntactic transformation, and transcoding) were chosen following operational norms, both matricial and textual-linguistic norms. In fact, the choice for other least common tactics was also guided by interpreting norms. This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that, most of the times, tactics were used by the participants with the aim of producing a more idiomatic target speech, thus reaching an output of higher quality. This indicates that the students were aware of their audience's expectations. When they turned this awareness into a strategic behavior, by employing interpreting tactics, to meet those expectations they were guided by interpreting norms.

The only norm which seemed not to be related to any of the tactics used was the law of maximizing the communication impact of the speech. The characteristics of the interpreting task's audience (the "Interpreting Foundations" course lecturer and this researcher) and the participants' profile (translation students) probably influenced this result. Since the participants were not professional interpreters interpreting for a real audience, they were not aware of the importance of synchronicity between source and target speeches, considering the audience's reactions to it, a factor which mostly influences the actions guided by this norm.

The most remarkable limitation of this study lies on the difficulties of identifying the tactics. As mentioned in Section 1, not all tactics can be accurately and reliably identified, as their definitions vary across scholars and only the ones which leave traces in the target speech can be identified. Besides, this identification is subjected to the researchers' experience and consequently to their ability to infer tactics uses. This identification could have been improved if the study had also included

a retrospective verb protocol in its methodology. By stating what their thoughts were during target-speech production, the participants could have helped in this identification. Additionally, as stated by Gile (2009[1995]), phenomena such as cognitive effort are difficult to observe and measure (usually depending on indirect methods, dummy variables, or proxies), which represents one of the major challenges in applying the Effort Models in the analysis of interpreting research data.

Another source of weakness in this study is the difficulty in assessing whether a behavior is guided by norms or not, due to the difficulty in distinguishing what is an individual preference and what is a general group behavior, as pointed out by Shlesinger (1989). Finally, the participants are undergraduate translation students; therefore, findings are restricted to this demographic, i.e., they cannot be generalized either to professional interpreters or to intermediate-advanced interpreting students.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the results of the present research can be used to describe the interpreting process in the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair, which, up to this MA thesis publication date, has never been done. They can be used, in Brazil, by interpreting trainers in interpreting classes, as well as by professional interpreters, to better understand how to tackle problems that may arise specifically when interpreting speeches in this language pair.

This study lays the ground for future research into expertise trajectory. As proposed by Lajoie (2003, p. 21), “trajectories or paths toward expertise are domain specific and must be first documented and then used within instructional contexts to promote knowledge transitions.” The findings may contribute to this documentation and be a starting point for longitudinal studies (ALVES; DA SILVA, 2021), which could investigate transition points where instruction may be needed to promote competence changes in different learning contexts (LAJOIE, 2003). Moreover, future research could also investigate how the students’ employment of tactics may indicate which participant may be more apt to enter an interpreter training program. In other words, the present data and findings may be used as a reference to investigate and formulate aptitude tests to be answered by people interested in starting in the interpreting profession.

In addition, further research could investigate strategy and tactic use by professional interpreters in the English-Brazilian Portuguese language pair. Studies have investigated this use by signed language interpreters (BARBOSA, 2020) when interpreting from/into Brazilian Portuguese. However, to the best of the author’s knowledge, there are not studies involving Brazilian Portuguese and another oral

language. Furthermore, some studies have investigated and compared strategy use by interpreting students and professional interpreters (MOSER-MERCER, 2015); the present research has made its contribution to the study of students, and this could be repeated by using professionals as participants.

Finally, this study represents a contribution to Cognitive Interpreting Studies, as it explores cognitive processes involved in simultaneous interpreting tasks in a language pair (English- Brazilian Portuguese) that remains unexplored to date. It may give insights into how cognitive constraints specific to this language pair may be solved by professionals and interpreters-to-be.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Source Speech: Translation vs Interpreting, by Tobby Screech

well good afternoon ladies and gentlemen (0.6) I've been asked to say a few words about interpreting as a career (0.893) and the first thing you have to sought out (0.388) is that interpreters are not translators (1.033) what I mean by that is that (0.327) a translator (0.38) reads and writes (0.96) whereas an interpreter (0.56) listens and speaks (1.1) so an inter/ a translator will receive a document read it through (0.362) type up (0.477) a translation (0.3) it's very good if you need a precise translation perhaps a legal contract every word must be correct (1.056) but it takes a long time (0.856) what an interpreter does is immediately (0.673) tell you what the other person is saying (0.862) that means of course it's very good for meetings conferences where you don't want to wait three days to read a translation (0.632) it does mean though that the interpreter can never be quiet as precise (0.34) as a translator and in fact that's part of the fun of interpreting (0.482) it's very creative (0.695) you often find that you have to reconstruct what the speaker is saying you don't go through word by word (0.575) you might find yourself (0.319) telling their story (0.54) or making their argument in a completely different way (0.341) using different sentences and different words (0.307) to make (0.307) the same point (1.676) you might also sometimes find yourself (0.393) adding some cultural information (0.493) the speaker might say something which everyone understands in their culture (0.874) but for your listeners to understand you might quickly have to add a couple of cultural points (3.012) basically there are two main kinds of interpretation (1.025) consecutive and simultaneous (0.962) simultaneous interpretation is what you can see people doing here (0.453) in the rooms behind me (0.916) while I'm speaking (0.3) they are immediately (0.32) interpreting my ideas so that someone else can listen straight away (2.437) it’s very good for a meeting or a conference (1.775) consecutive is what you do if you haven't got all this technology (0.5) you're perhaps working 'round a farm (0.333) or you're just meeting in a small room somewhere (1.121) the speaker speaks for a few minutes (0.367) and the interpreter takes notes (0.729) and then the speaker stops (0.593) and the interpreter gives an interpretation (0.327) of what they said (0.893) and then the speaker starts again and so on (1.407) the problem with consecutive interpretation of course is it is much slower (0.442) so most people prefer to use simultaneous interpreters (0.313) when they've got the technology to do it (2.136) so what kind of person wants to be an interpreter (1.468) well it's people who like the stress the excitement of interpreting it's you there you're in the hot seat (0.452) you have got to understand what the other person is saying (0.307) and interpret it straight away (1.288) it's very different (0.314) from translation (0.51) translator you get a document and you've got time to look up the vocabulary or to think of (0.336) just the right word the perfect word to translate the word in the original (0.671) translation appeals to people who are thorough (0.432) who like to be careful (1.395) although it's important to remember that translators very often have to work (0.653) under time pressure as well (1.6) interpreting appeals much more to people (0.347) who enjoy the adrenaline (0.36) of having to get it right now without waiting (2.468) some people find that rather frustrating (0.479) a translator at the end of the day has a nice document they've checked it through they've done it well it's perfect they can send it off (0.42) to their customer (1.159) an interpreter at the end of the day has nothing (1.06) the conference is finished you go home (1.115) I personally like that (0.413) I don't take my work home (0.677) some people find it frustrating (1.175) another aspect of interpreting is we tend to travel a lot (0.427) meetings don't take place (0.41) outside your house (0.394) you might find yourself traveling all around Europe (0.59) or all around the world (0.714) well some people love that (0.552) other people don't (0.711) but you're not going to scape it if you're an interpreter (1.7) probably the best thing about interpreting is what I just said it's exciting it's creative (0.352) there's lots of adrenaline (0.488) lots of enjoyable (0.334) pressure on you (2.42) another advantage is quite often you're going to interesting conferences very va:::ried conferences meeting lots of people you might meet all kinds of VIPs (0.534) who you otherwise only see on television (1.207) or you might find yourself going 'round a farm (0.574) or going 'round a factory places that you would never have seen (0.425) if you weren't an interpreter (1.581) you might find yourself in some big castle somewhere (0.595) or going to a fancy dinner (0.736) where you will be eaten the same fancy food as the delegates (0.34) which is a nice advantage

Appendix 2

Target Speech: Participant TS11

(1.487) bom boa tarde senhoras e senhores (1.393) eu vo:::u dizer algumas palavras sobre interpretação como uma carreira (1.269) a primeira coisa que cêis tem que saber é que interpre/ (0.54) intérpretes não são tradutores (0.597) o que eu quero dizer é que um tradutor (0.706) ahn lê e escreve enquanto um intérprete (0.489) ouve e fala (1.478) então um (1.149) tradutor vai receber um documento (1.374) ler fazer a leitura (0.972) e bolar uma tradução é muito bom pra quando cê precisa fazer uma (0.414) tradução correta (0.504) como (0.316) num documento legal (4.284) ahn o que o intérprete precisa (0.68) fazer é dizer (0.673) na hora o que (1.688) ele tá ouvindo (0.373) e traduzir (0.776) é muito bom pra conferências e encontros (2.822) eh difícil porque// (2.649) bom é um processo muito criativo (1.464) cê tem que reconstruir o que a pessoa tá dizendo (0.729) você não vai (2.399) traduzir palavra por palavra (0.563) às vezes você vai tá contando uma história de uma história (1.047) de uma forma completamente diferente com palavras diferentes (0.501) pra (0.34) fa/ falar a mesma coisa (2.193) muitas vezes cê vai acabar (2.416) adicio/ acabar adicionando (2.307) ahm referências culturais da sua (0.72) da sua cultura pra// (3.866) basicamente tem dois tipos (0.97) de interpretação consecutiva e simultânea (0.834) a simultânea (0.487) é o (0.66) que você pode ver as pessoas fazendo aqui na sala atrás de mim (1.259) enquanto eu tô diz/ falando eles têm que (1.762) traduzir imediatamente (0.866) pra que vocês possam ouvir (0.85) é muito bom pra um (0.748) pra uma reunião ou uma conferência (2.656) a consecutiva é o que você pode fazer (1.052) quando (1.164) você não tem essa tecnologia (0.46) quando cê tá numa reunião pequena ou (0.552) pelo telefone (1.666) o falante vai falar (1.088) e o intérprete vai anotar e depois (0.407) ele vai (0.812) fa/ o falante vai fazer uma pausa (0.72) e o intérprete vai continuar (6.893) então ahn (4.3) então que tipo de pessoa vai querer ser um intérprete (0.68) então (0.74) são as pessoas que gostam do estresse (0.394) da da adrenalina (1.747) então você tem que entender o que a pessoa tá dizendo (0.48) e interpretar (0.889) na hora (1.1) é bem diferente da tradução (1.453) na tradução você vai ter tempo pra (1.287) olhar e encontrar a palavra certa e// (1.261) pra poder traduzir a palavra do original (2.574) transla/ (0.447) a tradução é pra gente que::: (1.222) gosta de faze:::r certinho::: (1.422) na hora apesar de ter também uma pressão de tempo (2.349) a::: interpretação é pra gente que (0.333) gosta mais da adrenalina::: (0.588) quer faze:::r o negócio agora sem ter que esperar (0.737) algumas pessoas acham isso muito frustrante (9.24) na tradução você vai ter (1.45) um trabalho e vai acabar enviando (1.327) ele no fina:::l (0.812) pra um cliente na::: (0.393) interpretação cê não vai te:::r nada pra levar pra casa então (0.824) se/ seu trabalho acaba ali (0.68) na hora que a reunião acaba (1.613) e::: muitas vezes cê vai (0.407) ter que::: (0.628) acabar viajando porque::: (0.778) a interpretação (0.989) é um trabalho que cê vai fazer fora de casa (0.656) algumas pessoas gostam outras não (3.611) provavelmente a::: (0.393) melhor coisa da interpretação::: (1.192) é esse processo criativo a adrenalina (0.7) essa pressão que::: (1.26) pode ser (0.74) boa (2.747) às vezes cê vai acabar indo pra::: (1.7) umas conferências bem interessantes conhecendo gente importante que cê só veria na televisão (0.739) ou às vezes cê vai pra um lugar muito diferente como uma fazenda ou uma::: (0.865) fábrica (1.962) que você nunca veria normalmente (1.936) ou às vezes cê vai tá numa festa ou numa// (1.269) comendo num restaurante caro comendo a mesma coisa que o:::s convidados

Appendix 3

Target Speech: Participant TS12

(1.893) boa tarde senhor e senhoras (3.569) eu gostaria de falar algumas coisas sobre a interpretação como uma carre:::ira (2.818) a primeiramente os intérpretes não são tradutores (2.392) enquanto o tradutor (0.453) lê (0.58) e escreve (0.373) o intérprete (0.393) ouve (0.627) e fala (0.911) então o intérprete (2.267) diferente do tradutor não recebe um docume:::nto (2.013) a tradução é muito boa quando você precisa de::: um contrato lega:::l (0.58) alguma coisa pra você::: (0.807) escrever agora e o intérprete tem que falar imediatamente o que a outra pessoa tá falando (1.189) isso quer dizer que é muito bom pra reuniões e conferências (1.473) você não precisa esperar três dias pra ler (0.667) a tra:::dução (1.378) ma/ mas por isso o intérprete não é tão (0.387) preciso como (0.431) o tradutor e isso é muito legal porque o intérprete tem que ser criativo reconstruir (0.7) o que a outra pessoa tá falando você não vai falar palavra por palavra (1.367) você vai fala:::r (0.487) uma história (0.42) de uma forma diferente (0.42) e:::m frases diferentes com palavras difere:::ntes pra (0.983) chegar ao mesmo ponto (2.767) e às vezes o intérprete pode se::: encontrar adicionando alguma:::s (0.66) aspectos cultura:::is pra que o público ente:::nda (0.66) o que o::: (0.353) a pessoa tá querendo falar (1.095) basicamente existem dois tipos de interpretação (1.41) a interpretação consecutiva e a interpretação simultânea enquanto a simultânea (0.513) é o que você vê está vendo o que as pessoas estão fazendo nessa sala aqui atrás de mim enquanto eu estou falando e elas imediatamente estão interpretando as minhas ideia:::s (0.364) pra que outra pessoa consiga entender o que eu tô falando (1.521) é muito bo:::m pra reuniões e conferências (1.178) já a consecutiva é o que você fa:::z se você não tem toda essa tecnologia (1.663) ou às vezes você tá numa fazenda o:::u em algum quarto pequeno uma sala pequena (1.62) o::: intérprete faz algumas no:::tas enquanto a pessoa está fala:::ndo aí a pessoa pára de falar e o intérprete (0.68) fala de novo (1.847) o problema da tra/ interpretação consecutiva (0.56) é porque é mu:::ito mais devaga:::r (0.427) por isso que muitas pessoas preferem a interpretação simultânea quando elas têm a tecnologia pra fazer isso (2.742) então qual tipo de pessoa::: gostaria de ser um intérprete (5.493) eh muitas coisas acontecem que:::// (4.221) um estresse então a pessoa não quer ser um intérprete porque:::// (0.494) o tradutor (0.446) pega um docume:::nto tem tempo pra olhar o vocabulá:::rio (0.36) procurar a palavra ce:::rta pra colocar no pra traduzi:::r pra colocar igual o original enquanto// (1.153) por isso que as pes/ essas pessoas gostam as pessoas que gostam de ser cuidadosas gostam mais da tradução (4.992) e é mais// o intérprete// (1.0) a interpretação gost/ as pessoas que gostam de interpretação são as aquelas pessoas que gostam de adrenalina que que que tem que interpretar no momento (0.585) algumas pessoas (0.32) acham que a::: (0.327) que::: isso é muito frustrante porque o tradutor (0.66) ao final do di:::a tem um traba:::lho um docume:::nto que::: (0.671) que ele vai mandar pro (0.73) cliente agora o intérprete não tem nada disso a conferência acaba e você vai pra casa (0.415) eu gosto muito disso (0.727) eu não gosto de levar trabalho pra casa (0.713) algumas pessoas acham isso frustrante (0.905) outro aspecto da interpretação:::o (0.513) é que nó:::s temos que trabalhar bastante (0.356) as reun/ reuniões não são dentro da sua casa entã:::o eu tive oportunidade de trabalhar pela Euro/ toda a Euro:::pa ou pelo mundo inte:::iro algumas pessoas gostam disso outras não (0.536) mas você não vai escapar disso se você for um intérprete (5.665) provavelmente a coisa mais legal sobre interpretação é que::: (2.591) eh bem criativo (4.251) é muito bom também poder i:::r (0.818) em conferências difere:::ntes (0.336) você pode ir em algum lugares que você conhece pessoas VIPs pessoas que você conhece na televisão (0.324) ou (1.375) você pode i:::r (0.434) numa fábrica e conhecer pessoas que você não (0.683) conheceria se você não fo:::sse um intérprete (1.356) você po/ poderia também i:::r num jantar chique comer comidas chiques que que também é um boa de uma vanta/ (1.221) vantagem

Appendix 4

Target Speech: Participant TS13

(1.633) boa noite senhores e senho:::ras (0.413) e:::u gostaria de falar um pouco sobre interpretação como carreira (1.244) a primeira coisa que eu queria ressaltar é que intérpretes não são tradutores (1.333) o que eu quero dizer com isso é que um tradutor lê (0.526) e escreve enquanto e intérprete escreve (0.471) não (0.336) escuta (1.248) e fala (1.168) um tradutor (0.308) recebe um documento pra::: escrever uma tradução (0.595) é muito bom se você quis/ precisar de um tradução (1.157) precisa porque toda todas as palavras precisam estar certas (0.734) o que um tra/ um intérprete faz (1.756) é que um tra/ intérprete fa/ (0.81) fala exatamente o que a pessoa está dizendo (0.838) é muito bom pra (0.47) enco:::ntros conferências (0.406) que você não pode ler a tradução (1.939) isso significa que o::: intérprete não é (0.9) preciso igual um tradustor tradutor (2.15) uma coisa engraçada é que o intérprete é é muito::: (0.631) criativo (1.085) você não vai palavra por palavra você::: (0.972) vai se encontra:::r (0.598) dizen/ contando uma história (0.812) totalmente diferente do que a pessoa está falando (0.793) com palavras diferentes e sentenças diferentes pra falar a mesma coisa (1.236) cê tamé:::m (0.682) pode encontra:::r (1.208) se encontrar (2.168) traduzindo pra uma palav/ pra uma cultura completamente diferente (2.016) cê pode:::// (5.536) existem basicamente du:::as (0.955) dois tipos de interpretação consecutiva e simultânea (2.385) ah interpretação simultânea é o que vocês podem ver aqui (0.532) atrás de mim (0.972) enquanto eu estou falando eles tão inter/ (0.423) interpretando imediatamente pra que alguém possa escutar (2.621) é muito bom pra uma conferência ou um encontro (2.368) a interpretação consecutiva é o que você tem (0.879) se você não tem tec/ tecnologia (0.302) por exemplo numa far/ numa::: faze:::nda (3.076) o::: falante fala por alguns minutos (0.988) enquanto o intérprete f/ (0.964) fala depois (1.018) dele (0.577) e depois ele co/ o falante fala novamente e o intérprete fala de novo (4.516) a interpretação consecutiva é muito mais devagar por isso que as pessoas preferem a interpretação simultânea (2.135) que tipo de pessoa quer ser um intérprete (2.523) bom as pessoas que gostam de estresse (1.236) e adrenalina (1.332) que é você que tem que entender o quê que a outra pessoa está falando (3.404) é muito diferente da tradução (0.618) tradução cê tem um docume:::nto (0.34) você tem um tempo pra olhar um vocabulário (1.035) você pode pensar numa palavra certinha pra traduzi:::r (0.535) o que você quis dizer (4.076) a tradução é pra pessoa que quer que gosta de ser cuidadosa (1.791) é importante lembrar que o os tradutores normalmente não (0.772) têm que tra/ (0.592) também tra/ trabalham sob pressão (3.575) os intérpretes pre/ gostam de adrenalina pra (0.388) ter isso nesse momento agora (2.817) algumas pessoas podem achar isso frustrante porque o tradutor no final do dia tem o teu trabalho pronto (2.583) o intérprete não tem nada no fim do dia (0.717) a conferência acabou e você pode ir embora (2.49) eu pessoalmente gosto disso porque eu não levo meu trabalho pra casa mas algumas pessoas acham isso frustrante (4.092) outra característica do intérprete é que nós viajamos muito (0.933) você não fica muito em casa você pode viajar pela Europa o:::u ao redor do mundo (0.633) algumas pessoas amam e outras não (0.6) mas você não vai escapar disso se você se você for um intérprete (3.323) a melhor coisa sobre ser um intérprete (0.48) é provavelmente a criatividade (2.188) a adrenalina e a alegri:::a que você tem sob pressão (4.097) outro aspecto é que você pode ir pra conferências (0.44) muito interessantes você pode encon/ (2.004) eh conhecer (0.408) pessoas importa:::ntes (0.869) ou você pode ir pra uma fazenda (0.625) ou uma fábrica (0.304) lugares que você nunca imaginou estar estar indo (2.664) pode estar em um caste:::lo (0.484) ou em um (0.36) jantar chique (3.481) comendo a mesma coisa que os outros

Appendix 5

Target Speech: Participant TS14

(0.56) boa no:::ite senhoras e senhores (1.48) pediram que eu falasse um pouco sobre a carreira de intérprete (1.22) primeira coisa (1.555) a::: saber é que intérpretes não são tra/ tradutores (0.746) o que eu quero dizer é que um tradutor lê e escre/ escreve (0.904) enquanto um intérprete (0.7) escuta e fala (2.604) então um in/ um::: tradutor receberá um papel (0.922) trabalhará com isso (3.326) é muito bom por exemplo para um::: documento (3.793) o que o intérprete um intérprete faz (0.46) é traduzir falar exatamente o que uma pessoa falou neste exato momento (0.68) ótimo para reuniõ:::es conferências (5.429) isso quer dizer que o o intérprete ne:::m sempre será tão preciso quanto um::: tradutor (1.823) mas é uma profissão em que você tem que ser muito criativo você tem que reconstruir o que o in/ o (0.883) o palestrante falou você não vai palavra por palavra (3.8) você pode usar diferente frases diferente palavras pra expressar a mesma opinião (3.835) você pode muitas vezes adicionar alguma alguns fatores culturais (0.707) para que todos entendem na nas na cultura (0.592) dessa pessoa o que (0.48) o palestrante quis dizer (5.453) há du:::as formas principais de interpretação (0.34) a consecutiva e a simultânea (1.627) simultânea (0.46) é o que você pode ver as pessoas fazendo aqui nas cabines enquanto eu falo eles estão interpretando ao mesmo tempo (5.72) é muito bom para uma reunião ou uma conferência (1.81) a interpretação consecutiva (0.43) é o que você terá que fazer caso não tenha toda essa tecnologia como as cabines (0.427) pode ser ótima para uma reunião (0.427) fechada por exemplo (1.865) o palestrante vai falar por alguns momen/ minutos e o intérprete terá um tempo em seguida para interpretar (2.352) então o falante fala novamente e o processo se repete (2.918) o problema da interpretação consecutiva é que ela é mais lenta (0.4) por isso as pessoas preferem a interpretação simultânea (2.23) então que tipo de pessoa (0.347) gos/ gostaria de ser um um intérprete (1.335) são as pessoas que gostam do estresse (2.78) você precisa entender o que a outra pessoa está falando (0.64) e interpretar no mesmo momento (1.113) é muito diferente da tradução (0.971) o tradutor (0.329) tem o documento tem tempo para pensar no vocabulá:::rio (0.433) pensar na::: (0.692) palavra perfeita para traduzir (1.344) o original (3.783) tradução é ótima para pessoas que gostam de ser mais cuidadosas (2.923) mas é bom lembrar que os tradutores muitas vezes têm que trabalhar sobre um prazo apertado também (4.214) interpretação é ótima para as pessoas que (0.405) gostam da adrenalina de ter que fazer aquilo naquele mesmo momento (3.16) um tradutor no final do dia tem um (0.313) tem um serviço que ele terminou (0.564) e vai se satisfazer em enviar aquilo para o (0.347) para o seu cliente (0.373) já o intérprete não tem nada (0.973) a conferência termina e ele vai pra casa (2.793) eu eu pessoalmente gosto disso de não ter um serviço pra levar pra casa outros acham frustrante (1.84) outro aspecto é que os intérpretes têm que viajar muito (0.593) cê não vai trabalhar a::: (0.711) na sua cidade muitas vezes cê vai (0.711) para vários lugares do mundo (1.927) alguns amam outros não (1.167) mas não tem como escapar disso (4.86) como eu disse (1.063) é muito criativo e excitante tem muita adrenalina (0.827) e muita pressão (4.964) outra vantagem é de poder presenciar várias conferências interessante conhecer pessoas importa:::ntes que você não teria oportunidade de conhecer em outras ocasiões (1.893) ou você pode simplesmente (0.433) indo a uma (0.644) acabar indo a uma fazenda ou ir a qualquer outro lugar que você não conheceria em outras situações (1.971) pode acabar indo a um jantar (2.118) que você onde você (0.422) em que você co:::merá (0.513) comidas que você não comeria outros lugares

Appendix 6

Target Speech: Participant TS21

(2.193) uma boa tarde senhoras e senho:::res (0.339) gostaria de dizer algumas palavras sobre::: interpretação como profissão (0.966) primeiramente (0.884) intérpretes não são tradutores o que quero dizer (0.53) é que um tradutor (0.65) lê e escreve (0.427) enquanto que um intérprete (0.477) ouve (0.3) e (0.567) fala (1.949) um tradutor recebe um documento (2.073) digita o documento// (1.78) é::: preciso ter uma tradução preci:::sa (0.556) cada palavra deve ser (0.827) corre/ deve estar correta o que leva tempo (1.181) na interpretação (0.36) o intérprete diz imediatamente o que o orador diz (0.638) o que quer dizer que é (0.58) muito bom para reunião::: reuniõ:::es conferê:::ncias (0.585) que não é preciso esperar três dias para a tradução (3.0) como::: o intérprete ser tão preciso quanto o tradutor e que é parte da (0.42) diversão em ser um intérprete (0.373) é preciso ser criati:::vo é preciso reconstruir o que o orador di:::z e não palavra por palavra (2.14) é preciso dizer uma pala/ uma história (1.33) dizendo::: com diferentes pala:::vras e faze:::r (1.793) passar a mesma ideia (1.5) é preciso às vezes a/ é adiciona:::r (0.882) elemento cultural (1.017) que é::: compreensível em uma cultu:::ra (7.02) basicamente há dois dois tipos duas modalidades de interpretação consecutiva e int/ simultânea (0.887) é o que as pessoas fazem aqui atrás (1.02) enqua:::nto eu digo (0.747) eles tão (1.34) traduzindo imediatamente as minhas ideias (4.613) eh uma bro/ boa opção pra reuniões e conferências (0.92) consecutiva é realizar é uma opção quando não se tem acesso a equipame:::nto (0.813) ou em salas peque:::nas (1.5) o orado:::r (0.98) diz por alguns minu:::tos o intérprete fa:::z anotações (5.447) o orador pausa e o intérprete (0.647) diz// (6.157) eh às vezes é preferível da interpretação pela velocidade// (1.351) é que tipo de pessoa deseja ser um intérprete (0.841) pessoas que gostam do::: (0.85) da pressã:::o (0.925) da profissã:::o (1.308) é necessário entender o que a pessoa está dizendo interpretar (1.056) imediatamente é bem diferente de tradução (0.347) você (0.827) você te:::m tempo (2.798) eh tem recu:::rsos para (0.575) conseguir (0.427) com precisão a palavra (0.567) em::: interpretação (1.419) é preciso ter cuidado (1.22) e é importante (0.347) lembrar (3.4) tradutores também trabalham sob pressão de tempo (3.573) interpretação é pra pros que gostam mais da adre/ adrenalina (3.057) algumas pessoa:::s (0.38) acham frustrante (2.113) a tradução no final do di:::a (0.47) tem o docume:::nto pro:::nto pra enviar pro clie:::nte (0.32) e o intérprete (0.44) não tem nada (1.383) a conferência acaba você vai pra casa (0.927) eu pessoalmente gosto muito não levo trabalho para casa (0.453) algumas pessoas (0.873) acham frustrante outro aspecto da interpretação (0.46) é que você viaja muito (0.425) reuniã:::os// (2.497) você trabalha (0.417) pela Euro:::pa pelo mundo (0.975) e algumas pessoas amam isso outras não (1.783) mas não há escapatória se você é um intérprete (0.967) provavelmente a melhor coisa (1.4) da interpretação (2.792) é criativo envolve criatividade pressã:::o (2.947) outra::: (1.016) vantagem (1.88) você vai a muitas conferê:::ncias conhece outras pesso:::as conhece (0.367) todo tipo de pesso:::as (6.633) ou lugares que você nunca esteve (0.925) ou viu com com/ como intérprete (1.425) pode ir a algum castelo (0.56) ou um belo jantar (4.107) o que é uma grande vantagem

Appendix 7

Target Speech: Participant TS22

(1.34) boa ta:::rde senhoras e senho:::res vou dizer algumas palavras sobre interpretação como carreira (1.133) a primeira::: coisa::: (0.367) é que o:::s (0.86) que os intérpretes não são tradutores o que o:::// (1.113) o tradutor ele escreve e lê enquanto o::: (0.873) intérprete ele lê e fala (1.393) o::: tradutor recebe um docume:::nto e:::le (1.0) tradu:::z (0.3) e::: é bom se quando você precisa de uma tradução precisa tipo um contrato (0.633) todas as palavras precisam estar certas (0.507) mas leva um::: certo tempo (0.433) o que o intérprete faz é::: (1.12) falar imediatamente o que a outra pessoa quer dizer (0.4) quer dizer (0.553) é muito bom pra::: conferê:::ncias (4.073) não significa que o intérprete pode ser (0.58) tão preciso quanto um::: tra/ (0.367) tradutor (1.38) esse é faz partir da fama do::: intérprete é::: bem criativo (0.807) você tem que reconstruir o que o::: speaker tá falando (0.433) você não vai palavra por palavra você pode se encontrar falando contando histó:::rias (3.747) usando fra:::ses e palavras difere:::ntes (0.573) pra fazer o mesmo ponto (1.967) você pode::: se encontrar em::: (1.427) em alguma:::s situações cultura:::is (4.58) você teve que::: você tem::: que falar algumas coisas culturais (1.72) basicamente tem (0.407) ti/ dois tipos de interpretação (0.393) consecutiva e simultânea (1.373) a simultâ:::nea (0.46) é::: o que as pessoas estão at/ tão fazendo atrás de mim aqui (0.627) o que esto:::u falando (0.406) é deve ser (1.667) interpretados (0.913) de um certo jeito (1.7) é muito bom para::: uma conferência (1.3) a consecutiva é o que você fa:::z (0.527) se você não tem toda essa tecnologia (2.06) é ou se você tá numa::: (0.86) numa conferência numa sala menor (0.96) o intérprete tira notas e depois o speaker fa:::la e o intérprete::: (0.44) faz sua::: interpretação do que ele di:::sse (0.68) e depois o speaker volta (1.639) o problema com a interpretação consecutiva (0.62) é porque é muito::: mais devagar (0.8) do que a a simultânea (5.267) o que qual pessoa (0.353) que pretende ser um intérprete são as pessoas que gostam do (0.44) da animação e do estresse::: de da interpretação (1.48) você tem que entender o que a outra pessoa diz (0.3) e interpretar interpretar logo atrás (0.647) é bem difere:::nte da tradução (0.487) porque a tradução você tem tempo pra faze:::r (0.633) tem tempo pra pesquisa:::r (0.42) e pra es/ e pra achar a a a palavra perfeita (3.187) a tradução é pra pessoas que gostam de ser ma:::is (0.733) mais cuidado:::sas (1.507) do da mesma forma os tradutores também trabalham (0.427) em s/ é sob pressão (1.408) a interpretação é pra (0.407) pra pessoas que gostam de adrenali:::na e pras pessoas que gostam de fazer tudo agora (1.853) algumas palavras acham algumas pessoas acham que a::: (0.527) a interpretação:::o é (0.487) é frustrante eles// (3.46) o intérprete::: não tem nada (1.62) a conferência::: acaba e você vai pra casa (0.48) eu go/ pessoalmente gosto disso (0.787) eu não levo meu trabalho pra casa mas algumas pessoas acham frustrante (1.147) outro aspecto::: (0.353) é porque nós nós traveja/ nó:::s viajamos muito (0.689) vamos pra vários lugares fora de ca:::sa (1.713) ou pra Euro:::pa ou::: e outras partes do mundo muitas pessoas gostam e outras não (0.653) mas você não pode escapar disso se você é um intérprete (1.527) a melhor coisa de ser um intérprete (1.1) é a::: c/ é ser criativo::: é a::: (1.327) é a adrenalina é a pressão (2.467) a outra::: vanta:::gem é porque nós vamos pra conferências bem interessantes (0.862) e conhecemos pessoas no:::vas pessoas VIPs que você (0.56) pode ver na televisão (0.9) ou você pode::: se encontrar em::: (0.7) em faze:::ndas fábricas ou pe/ lugares que você nã:::o se nunca se imaginou indo como um intérprete (0.86) pode ir em::: (1.24) em algum jantar chique também

Appendix 8

Target Speech: Participant TS23

(1.7) boa tarde senhoras e senho:::res (0.69) gostaria de conversar so:::bre (0.517) interpretação enquanto carreira (0.333) e a primeira coisa que você precisa entender (0.483) é que::: intérpretes não são tradutores (0.59) o que eu quero dizer com isso é que::: um tradutor (0.667) lê e escreve (0.308) enquanto um um intérprete (0.733) ouve e fala (2.68) então o tradutor vai receber um docume:::nto ler ele inteiro (0.793) e::: fazer sua tradução é muito bom se você precisa de uma tradução (0.875) mais exata talvez de um contrato (0.574) legal toda palavra precisa estar certa (0.585) mas demora muito tempo (1.262) o que o intérprete faz é imediatamente te dizer o que a outra pessoa disse (0.892) isso quer dizer que é muito bom pra::: (0.997) enco:::ntros conferências (0.453) nas coisas que cê não quer esperar três dias pra ler uma tradução (0.911) mas também quer dize:::r que o intérprete nunca vai ser (0.427) tão exato quanto um (0.46) um tradutor (0.425) e isso é parte da da diversão de ser intérprete (0.635) é muito criativo (1.033) você sem:::pre vê que precisa reestruturar (0.542) o que o inter/ o o que o conferencista tá falando (1.289) você precisa dize:::r o que o confer/ o conferencista tá dizendo (0.908) com::: palavras difere:::ntes de um jeito diferente pra fazer pra chegar ao mesmo lugar dizer a mesma coisa (1.517) você também::: (0.6) vai ver que precisa::: (1.183) lidar bem com o aspecto cultural (0.489) porque você precisa entregar a mensagem pros seus ouvintes (1.156) com o que ele quer dizer mas com::: a sua cultura (2.35) basicamente há duas modalidades de interpretação (0.492) simultânea (0.671) e consecutiva simultânea é o que você vê (0.436) os::: intérpretes fazendo aqui atrás de mim (1.287) enquanto eu estou diz/ falando eles tão imediatamente interpretando as ideias que eu estou falando (0.55) pra que vocês me entendam (1.426) agora (0.5) é muito bom pra::: encontros e conferências (2.3) a interpretação consecutiva é o que você faz quando cê não tem toda essa tecnologia talvez você tá andando por uma faze:::nda (0.871) ou se encontrando numa sala pequena em algum lugar (2.992) o::: interlocutor fala por um por um momen/ por um tempo (0.66) pára o intérprete::: (2.089) dá uma interpretação sobre o que ele disse então interlocutor volta a falar (0.542) e por aí vai (1.08) o problema com::: (0.482) a interpretação consecutiva é que é muito mais devagar e por isso::: a maioria das pessoas prefere::: (0.347) a interpretação simultânea quando eles têm a tecnologia pra pra realizá-la (0.696) então que tipo de pessoa gostaria de ser intérprete (1.05) geralmente são pessoas que gostam do estresse::: e da empolgação (2.356) daquela situação é você que tá naquele lugar você que tem que entender o que o o que o (0.598) o conferencista tá dizendo e você que tem que f/ que tem que reproduzir (0.529) no mesmo tempo (1.596) é muito diferente da tradução o tradutor recebe o documento ele tem tempo ele tem tempo pra olhar o vocabulário tem tempo pra pensar (1.017) na palavra certa pra colocar ali naquele lugar (0.658) os tradutores são pessoas muito precisas muito cuidadosa (0.779) mas é muito importante lembrar que tradutores (0.826) na maior parte das vezes também têm que trabalhar com::: prazos (0.307) bem difíceis (1.457) os intérpretes são pessoas que gostam de::: da adrenalina de ter que reproduzir aquilo de maneira correta (0.448) agora imediatamente (0.493) algumas pessoas acham isso frustrante que::: (0.417) um tradutor::: (0.78) no final do dia tem um documento bonitinho que eles fizeram (0.917) e que vão enviar pro cliente enquanto o cliente enquanto o intérprete perdão (1.194) quando acaba a conferência não tem na:::da pra levar pra casa (1.353) eu pessoalmente gosto disso eu não levo trabalho pra casa (0.762) mas algumas pessoas acham isso frustrante (0.608) outro aspecto interessante da da interpretação (0.383) é que a gente tem que viajar muito (2.303) os encontros não acontecem dentro da sua casa (0.367) você tem que ir pra::: diversos lugares do mundo (0.748) algumas pessoas adoram isso outras::: não gostam mas você não vai conseguir escapar disso se for um intérprete (1.488) talvez a melhor coisa em ser um um (0.387) intérprete é que é s/ que é criati:::vo e é empolgante e tem muita adrenalina (6.105) outra coisa interessante é que às vezes nós vamos pra::: (0.502) conferências muito::: (0.607) varia:::das e conhecemos pessoas importantes às vezes (0.34) pessoas que estão na televisão sempre (0.68) ou então às vezes estare:::mos andando (0.534) por uma fazen:::da ou::: por uma fábrica que::: (0.825) se não fôssemos intérpretes não conheceríamos (0.842) ou talvez até em algum castelo em algum lugar::: (0.402) ou num jantar de ga:::la (1.68) e você vai comer a mesma comida::: (0.678) boa que::: (0.58) os::: (1.933) participantes

Appendix 9

Target Speech: Participant TS24

(1.86) boa tarde senhoras e senhores (2.287) gostaria de falar sobre a carreira de interpretação (1.46) algo que vocês devem sabe:::r (0.353) é que intérpretes não são tradutores (2.54) o que eu quero dizer é que (0.313) um tradutor lê escreve (0.52) enquanto um intérprete ouve e fala (2.9) então um tradutor recev/ recebe um documento lê (0.447) e faz a tradução (1.073) é muito bom se você precisa de uma tradução precisa como um::: contrato (0.7) todas as palavras devem ser corretas (0.747) mas leva tempo (2.127) enqua:::nto o intérprete (0.347) te diz imediatamente o que a outra pessoa está fala:::ndo (1.813) isso quer dizer que é muito bom pra reuniõ:::es conferê:::ncias e você não precisa (0.313) esperar três dias pra tradução (1.947) mas também significa que o intérprete não consegue ser tão::: preciso quanto o tradutor (0.847) na verdade faz parte da diversão (3.187) você precisa reconstrui:::r (0.473) o que o orador está falan:::do você não::: (0.533) fala palavra por palavra (3.753) você di:::z (0.6) você reproduz o que ele di:::z em palavras diferentes (0.487) você não usa as mesmas palavras pra fazer o mesmo argumento (2.033) às vezes é necessário vo/ você adiciona:::r elementos culturais (1.327) o que o orador disse naquela cultura (2.34) para que você::: possa para que os delegados possam entender você precisa adicionar alguns elementos culturais (1.253) basicamente existem duas modalidades de interpretação (0.84) consecutiva e simultânea (1.66) simultânea é o que você vê o que as pessoas atrás de mim estão fazendo (0.653) enquanto eu estou falando (0.647) eles estão interpretan:::do (0.753) imediatamente para que outras pessoas possam entender (3.233) é muito bom pra reuniões e conferências (4.587) a consecutiva é o que você faz se você não tiver essa tecnologia (0.98) se a reunião for num::: (1.04) num lugar menor (2.613) o orador fala (0.433) o intérprete (0.3) toma notas o orador pára (0.513) e o interpreta/ e o intérprete (0.387) repassa o que ele ouviu e o orador recomeça e assim vai (1.913) o problema da interpretação::: consecuti:::va// (6.253) é melhor usar a simultâ:::nea (6.52) porque as pessoas gostam de interpretação as pessoas gostam da estre/ do estresse e da emoção (0.887) você precisa entender o que a pessoa está dizendo (0.753) e interpreta:::r na mesma hora (2.133) é bem diferente da tradução (1.84) tradução você tem tempo pra pesquisar o vocabulário (0.933) você::: pensa qual é a palavra::: exata pra fazer a tradução (3.813) tradução é melhor pra pessoas que gostam de ser cuidadosas (4.44) tradutores geralmente trabalham com a pressão do tempo (3.173) a interpretação é melhor pra pessoas que gostam da adrenalina (1.407) e não precisam esperar (2.215) algumas pessoas acham frustrante (3.9) a tradução::: você vê (0.627) tá feita por feita e você manda pro seu cliente (1.053) a interpretação não tem nada disso (1.0) a interpretação termina e você vai pra casa (2.213) eu gosto disso eu não gosto de levar trabalho pra casa outras pessoas acham frustrante (3.161) outro aspecto da interpretação é que você viaja muito (3.513) você viaja bastante pra fazer interpretações (0.433) pelo mundo (0.727) algumas pessoas amam outras não (2.073) mas você não vai escapar disso se for um intérprete (1.96) talvez a melhor a melhor coisa da interpretação (2.433) é a adrenalina (0.56) é a sensação boa (1.071) é a pressão em você (2.793) outra vantagem (0.68) é que você va:::i (0.373) pra pra conferências interessantes (0.6) conhece pesso:::as (0.433) pessoas importantes (0.367) pessoas que você talvez não::: só conheceriam pela televisão (4.433) e você pode ir em lugares que você talvez não conheceria se você não fosse um intérprete (1.667) talvez em algum castelo enorme em algum lugar ou ir a um jantar chique (1.727) e pode experimentar a comida chique que a os delegados també:::m (0.313) estão experimentando