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REFLECTIVE ANALYSIS OF LINGUISTIC AND NON-LINGUISTIC STRATEGIES OF CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION

Master Thesis

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GLOSSARY

Communication strategies - "a mutual attempt of interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared" (Tarone, 1980:420).

Communicative competence – it refers to EFL learner's ability to apply and use grammatical rules and form correct utterances as well as know how to use these utterances appropriately.

Consecutive Interpreting – it is a mode in which interpreters begin their interpretation of a complete message after the speaker has stopped producing the source utterance.

Cortex - the outer layer of the vertebrate cerebrum.

Discourse competence - is knowing how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole.

Encoding – the first stage in the memory process, involving mental process of linking new information to existing knowledge.

Grammatical competence – it is the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication.

Interpreting competence - the switching ability between two language codes and cultural systems.

Introspection - specifically, the act or process of self-examination, or inspection of one's own thoughts and feelings; the cognition, which the mind has of its own acts and states.

Learning strategies -they "are the tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" (Oxford, 1990:1).

Linguistic Unit – one of the natural units into which linguistic messages can be analysed.

Long-Term – Memory – the phase of the memory process considered the permanent storehouse of retained information.

Mental Process – the performance of some composite cognitive activity; an operation that affects mental contents.

Monitoring – verbatim repetition of source or target language text segments in order to control and test their accurateness.

Neuroblast – a cell from which a nerve cell develops.

Neuropsychology – the branch of psychology that deals with the relationship between the nervous system, especially the brain, and cerebral or mental functions such as language, memory, and perception.

Pia mater – the fine vascular membrane that closely envelops the brain and spinal cord under the arachnoid and the dura mater.

Phenomenography – it is an area of research which focuses on identifying and describing the qualitatively different ways in which people understand phenomena in the world around them.

Proposition – a statement that affirms or denies something and is either true or false.

Rehearsal – repetition of an action so as to develop or maintain one's skill.

Retrieval – the third stage in the memory process, after encoding and storage, involving mental processes associated with bringing stored information back into consciousness.

Radial glial cells – non-neural cells that provide support and nutrition and participate in signal transmission in the neuron system.

Self-reflection - an activity in which an individual evaluates himself, his abilities, qualities and the place among others.

Sensory memory – it is person's ability to retain impressions of sensory information after the original stimulus has ceased.

Short –Term – Memory - the phase of the memory process in which stimuli that have been recognized and registered are stored are stored briefly.

Simultaneous Interpreting – it is the mode in which the interpreter renders a target language utterance as the source discourse is being produced.

Sociolinguistic competence – it is knowing hoe to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic and the relationships among the people communicating.

Source Language - language in which a text to be translated is written or in which a speech to be interpreted is spoken; the language of the original text or speech.

Source Speech – the speech to be interpreted; the original speech, as opposed to the interpreted speech.

Strategic competence - is knowing how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns , how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language.

Target Language – language into which a text is translated or a speech interpreted.

Ventricular zone – it is a part of cerebral cortex and it contains migrating neurons, radial glial cells, and a large population of cycling progenitor cells that generate newborn neurons.

Working Memory – memory for intermediate results that must be held during thinking.

ABBREVIATIONS

SL – Source Language

TL- Target Language

STM - Short-Term-Memory

LTM – Long-Term-Memory

WM - Working Memory

SM – Sensory Memory

I1 - Informant 1

I2 – Informant 2

I3 – Informant 3

I4- Informant 4

I5 – Informant 5

I6 – Informant 6

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays in the world of science and technology, in the age of globalization and international communication interpreting services become crucial. Even from ancient times interpreter's profession was viewed as demanding and challenging; interpreters were treated with mistrust and suspicion because the listeners could not verify the correctness of their rendering. Now it is emphasized that interpreting is intrinsically difficult exercise because of its spontaneity, high cognitive load and requirement of a very high standard of accuracy. Robinson (1997:27) postulates that: "interpreters do all have something of the actor in them, the mimic, the impersonator and they do develop remarkable recall skills that will enable them to remember a word that they have heard only once". The interpreter must not only convey the content of the source language (SL) message, but also the structural elements of the message that are not contained in the words: pauses, tone of voice, stress, etc.

Many definitions of interpreting do exist. Generally, interpreting can be defined as "a special type of communicative interaction which takes place when members of different language communities engage in cross-language/culture communication, using interpreters as interlingual mediators" (Kohn & Kalina, 1996:118). While Mahmoodzadeh (1992: 231) gives a more detailed definition of interpreting: "Interpreting consists of presenting in the target language, the exact meaning of what is uttered in the source language either simultaneously or consecutively, preserving the tone of the speaker (cited from Zhong, 2003). A skillful interpreter is expected to have a good short-term memory to retain what he/she has just heard and a good long-term memory to put the information into context. Another significant factor for interpreter is constant improvement of his/her interpreting skills and knowledge in different realms of science and technology. According to Morin (2005:4), "a critical phase for the interpreter is to make a self-assessment of what he just experienced while on stage for the purpose of performing better in a future interpreting assignment".

Basically, the phenomenon of consecutive interpreting has been analysed in various aspects including the processes involved in this mode of interpreting (Rozan, 1956; Kintsch & Van Dijk, 1978; Ilg, 1980; Gish, 1986; Mackintosh, 1985; Seleskovitch, 1975; Lambert, 1994; Gile, 1994), student progress and training methods (Gran and Dodds, 1989; Dollerup and Lindegaard, 1992; Gile, 1995; Cai, 2002; Garzone, 2002), interpreting quality (Kurz, 1992; Gile, 1999), interpreter's self-improvement (Leis, 2005), note-taking peculiarities (Rozan, 1956; Herbert, 1956; Jones, 2002), salient features of intonation, tonicity in interpreting (Shlesinger,1994, Collados, 2003), pauses in consecutive interpreting (Mead, 2002). Weller (1990) focused his attention on compensatory strategies employed by interpreters.

Many authors use theoretical concepts from other disciplines including linguistic and cognitive sciences (Seleskovitch, 1978; Kurz, 1996; Morser-Merser, 1994; Lambert, Liu, 2001; Setton, 2003), neuropsychology (Wei, 2002), cognitive psychology (Stenzl, 1989; Kalina, 1991; Pöhhacker, 1993), neurophysiology (Fabro and Gran, 1997). The difficulty of interpreting has always been clear, however until recently, investigators tended to ignore its actual implications in terms of the interpreter's output. Gile (2003) probably was the first who stressed in his publications a relatively high frequency of errors and omissions in the interpreting output. In order to avoid inadequacies, interpreters must constantly "upgrade themselves" (Leis, 2005:83). Furthermore, the above mentioned Morin's emphasis on the need of self-assessment reveals the growth of significance of self-reflection in the interpreting paradigm. Self-reflection can be understood as "activity in which people recapture their experience, think about it, mull it over and evaluate it " (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985:19). Obviously, it can be regarded as the precondition for the interpreter's professional development.

Reflective analysis is extensively used in the field of education, (Dewey, 1938; Brabeck, 1983; Argyris and Schon, 1983; Kolb, 1984; Marton, 1990; Silcock, 1994; Jovaiša, 1998; Mačianskienė, 2001; Baranauskienė, 2003). However, it was not used in the realm of interpreting, thus application of reflective analysis as a method of personal self-assessment and the means for personal identification of linguistic and non-linguistic strategies of consecutive interpreting is **new**.

The subject of the research is the reflective analysis of specific strategies of consecutive interpreting employed by translation students.

The aim of this work is to investigate the process and the product of interpreter's self-reflection defining linguistic and non-linguistic strategies of consecutive interpreting.

The work seeks to achieve the following **objectives**:

1. To present theories and models, which delineate the interpreting process.
2. To specify different aspects of the processes involved in the phenomenon of consecutive interpreting.
3. To prove that self-reflection in the process of consecutive interpreting serves as a precondition for the enhancement of linguistic and non-linguistic strategies.

The present research employs the following **research methods:**

1. *Descriptive - theoretical literature analysis* provided a possibility to review numerous issues concerning interpreting performance.
2. *Phenomenographical method* enabled to carry out the analysis of qualitative research, i.e. to analyze the categories into which the commentaries of the research informants were classified. The categories became clear only during the process of the conducted analysis.

3. *Triangulation (video-recording- commentary –discussion)* served its usefulness for data collection and data analysis.
4. *Statistical method* was salutary for the evaluation of the results of the empirical part of the research.
5. *Metaanalysis* enabled the author of the master thesis to interpret the results and conclusions made by other authors.

The practical value of the present research is a detailed presentation of reflective analysis of linguistic and non-linguistic strategies of consecutive interpreting. We presume that our research and the data collected might be useful for students of interpreting, interpreters as well as for teachers, lecturers and senior pupils who have classes of interpreting in order to get better understanding of the process of self-reflection as a useful tool for the enhancement of one's language skills and knowledge.

As regards the structure of this work, it consists of three parts. **The first part** of the work expounds on models and theories of the interpreting process. **The second part** of the work deals with the phenomenon of consecutive interpreting, the processes involved in it and self- reflection as a tool for improvement of one's skills. In **the third part** of this work the procedure and the results of reflective analysis are provided.

The transcribed material of translation students' self-reflection and its language micro-analysis served as the **data source** for the empirical research. Six translation students participated in the research. They performed consecutive interpreting and their performances were video-recorded. Immediately after recording informants were asked to self-reflect on what they have just experienced while interpreting. Their reflections were recorded using dictaphone and later transcribed. In total 44 sequences were commented. The author selected 205 quotes. The investigation was carried out within the structure of phenomenographic research.

1. DIFFERENT THEORIES OF THE INTERPRETING PROCESS

1.1.Trends in the Evolution of Research into Interpreting

We do not know exactly when human beings began to speak. But we can assume that language evolved at the point at which signs and gestures were no longer sufficient to meet mankind's communication needs. Thereafter, interpreters made their first steps, enabling members of different linguistic groups to talk to each other. The only extant historical evidence of interpreting is preserved on stone reliefs from ancient Egypt.

Although, interpreting has been practiced since ancient times, interpreting research is a rather young discipline. The mystery of the mental processes underlying the strange activity of speaking and listening almost at the same time were the first factors which attracted researchers' attention to interpreting. According to Gile (1994), the history of interpreting research in the West started in the early fifties. During this period the research was mainly based on personal experience without claiming any scientific validity. Despite that, some of the points are still topical. One important aspect which seems to have been obvious to the interpreting pioneers (Herbert 1952, Rozan 1956, Fukuii and Asano 1961) from the start was the need to understand the source speech beyond the words and to reach this comprehension through analysis and to interpret on that basis, rather than on the basis of linguistic correspondences. Cognitive load of interpreters was the other realm the investigations. However, the absence of references to research into psychology or linguistics in all the early writings reveals that the ideas which they discussed resulted from introspection, and were not picked up from scientific writings in the relevant disciplines. Nevertheless, this gave insights for further investigations.

In the early seventies, the movement, initially driven and inspired by Seleskovitch (1989) of ESIT (Éscole superieure d'interprètes et de traducteurs) gathered impetus, and a number of hypotheses regarding the interpreting process and the influence of other factors like the source language, noise, speed of speech delivery were formulated. But the validity of these studies is quite doubtful because there was little empirical evidence, experimental or observational, to support these hypotheses.

Eventually, in the late eighties, the voices of interpreters such as Gran (1987), Moser (1978), Gile (1980) and others, who spoke in favour of research more in line with the methods of established empirical scientific disciplines, were heard. Since then, the trend has been favourable to the use of concepts, theories and methods from other disciplines, and many studies conducted today rely on what has been developed in psychology, linguistics, neurophysiology, etc.

The researchers, educators have been interested in the process of translation trying to uncover the mystery of interpreting. As it was mentioned above, during all historical periods a number of

researchers and theorists have directly and indirectly discussed the interpreting process and have created their theories or models of interpreting process. The models provided by Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989), Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978), Moser (1978), and Gile (1992) can serve as the basis for a more precise investigation of interpreting theories, which will be discussed further.

1.2. The Interpretative Theory of Translation

In Sweden the interpretation theory of the "Paris school", whose main proponents are Seleskovitch and Lederer ESIT (1978), has had a great impact on the theoretical conception of the interpreting process and training of interpreters. The main idea behind this theory is that interpreting is based on meaning (or sense), not on words or linguistic structures. Therefore, this theory became known as the "théorie du sens" and nowadays it has been renamed to "La théorie interprètative de la traduction", the interpretative theory of translation.

In this theory it is assumed that the spoken original text (in chunks, i.e. units of meaning, of 7-8 words) is retained in short-term memory (STM) for only a few seconds, after which "cognitive complements" at work on these words transform them into meaning units. As soon as these meaning units are formed, they melt in turn into larger meaning units. It also postulates that there exist an immediate short-time memory working on predominantly phonological input with a capacity of 7-8 words which are saved for 2-3 seconds and a cognitive short-time memory that forms the base for a semantic memory where the semes reside, dissociated from their formal support.

Thus, according to this theory the interpreting process consists of three phases, which are graphically presented in Figure 1:

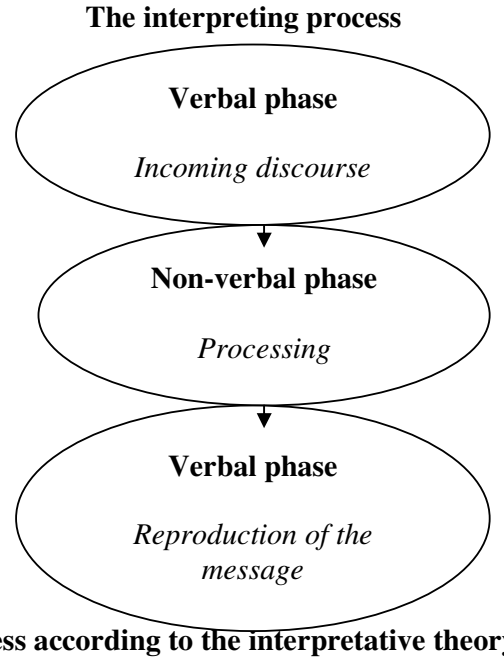

Figure 1. The interpreting process according to the interpretative theory of translation

The first verbal phase is the source language message, which is presented to the interpreter only once. In the non-verbal phase the verbal input is split into meaning units which melt together with previous knowledge and enters the cognitive memory, thereby losing their verbal form by transforming into ideas. Seleskovitch (1977) pointed out that "the translation process appears to be not a direct conversion of the linguistic meaning of the source language (SL) to the target language (TL) but a conversion from source language to sense, the intermediate link being non-verbal thought which, once consciously grasped, can then be expressed in any language regardless of the words used in the original language" (cited from Gile, 1994:2).

According to this theory, the interpreter transforms the input speech into chunks of pure meaning, forgetting the original words used. These deverbalized chunks are subsequently combined with both immediate and global context before the output or reproduction phase. But the theory does not propose a concrete mechanism to explain how it actually functions in the process of interpreting. Therefore, Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) model for discourse comprehension and production could fill the information gap in the meaning formation process.

1.3. The Kintsch and van Dijk's Model of Discourse Comprehension and Production Applied to the Interpreting Process

The model, which was developed in 1978, is a semantic processing model characterizing comprehension and production. Therefore, it covers the three phases identified above (verbal, non-verbal, verbal phases) and it specifies three sets of operation:

0) organization of the text into a coherent whole;
0) condensing the full meaning of the text into its gist;
0) generation of a new text from the memory traces of the comprehension process.

The model also posits the organization of semantic structures on a number of levels, from microstructures to successive levels of macro-structures. According to Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978 : 365), "the model assumes that the surface structure of a discourse is interpreted as a set of propositions (cited from Mackintosh, 1985:39). Some of the propositions are present in the surface structure and others are inferred. The latter is done on the basis of prior knowledge, stored in long-term memory (LTM). According to the model, the propositions formed in such way, called micropropositions, are processed by a working memory (WM) to establish coherence with the propositions already stored in STM. The authors emphasize that: "the short-term memory capacity is about five propositions and it acts as a buffer while the working memory searches for argument overlap between incoming propositions and those, which already are in short-term memory. In the

absence of overlap, the working memory then searches for long-term memory. If argument overlap is established, the propositions in working memory enter short-term memory" (ibid). Accepted and stored micropropositions constitute the microstructures of the model. The latter are processed into macrostructures by application of the macro-rules:

1) Deletion
2) Generalization
3) Construction

Deletion consists in throwing away less relevant information, *generalization* proceeds by replacing specific statements with more general ones and *construction* works by producing new statements which contain an inference not explicit in the original utterance. In production inverse processes also operate: the deletion rule is replaced by an addition rule; generalization by particularization; construction by specification.

It is generally agreed that in consecutive interpreting, the interpreter notes down the essential features of the message and its structure and, when called upon to interpret, reconstitutes the speech from the notes. Mackintosh (1985:40) postulates that "schematic notation of the semantic features of the discourse results from the application of the macro -rules to the micropropositions of the original message, and that the interpreter's notes reproduce the resultant macropropositions". The process of memory search necessary to identify argument overlap and co-reference for the purpose of comprehension are essential in consecutive interpreting.

To conclude, the model offers a theoretical description of the processes of comprehension and production and possible explanations of errors and omissions. The particular value of this model is that it provides a set of mapping rules which link the stages in the process and explain why certain phenomena occur. For instance, the failure to delete information that is irrelevant to the next macrostructural level will produce a distortion in emphasis; a failure to generalize will disrupt the processes of cohesion etc. In the following subsection the description of the application of speech comprehension model in the process of interpreting will be presented.

.

1.4. Information –Processing Model of Interpreting

In 1978 Moser developed an information-processing model of interpreting based on Massaro's model of speech comprehension, and basically traced the flow of information from the perception of sound patterns to feature detection to words, phrases and to higher level units in successive steps. Moser (1978:353) defines the Massaro's (1975) model as: "an attempt to describe the temporal flow of auditory information, beginning with the acoustic signal(…) that arrives at the ear of the listener and ending with some form of mental representation of the message in the mind of

the listener" (cited from Mackintosh, 1985:38). She takes this model and includes the third specific to interpreting phase, which is reproduction of the message in the TL. According to the model, the phonological input is chunked into information segments (comparable to the model presented by Seleskovitch and Lederer), at which point the verbal characteristics are lost and processing is seen as an essential semantic operation involving memory search of the conceptual base and the activation of conceptual relations. It also discusses different levels of memory and addresses the important question of how syntactic and semantic information is organized and accessed. Moser (1978) refers to Shank (1972) and his suggestion that "people have a common conceptual base which is independent of language and his premise that in order to translate, a person will invoke mapping rules for a given language and apply them to that base" (cited from Mackintosh, 1985:38). Production, i.e. the third phase, is seen as a process in which concepts, organized around the verb, are combined and output goes forward according to the syntactic rules of the TL.

However, this relatively detailed information - processing model does not incorporate elements to account for difficulties interpreters encounter in their understanding the source speech or reproducing the target speech, or strategies they use to overcome them.

The presented models lack empirical studies from other disciplines. Neither of them takes up the question of added processual load on the interpreters as they have to work with two languages, i.e. two lexicons, two syntactic and two stylistic systems. Gile (1991) may have been the first who encompassed these informants and devoted serious theoretical thoughts to the issue of cognitive load of interpreters. His ideas will be briefly discussed in the following section.

1.5. The *Effort Models* for Interpreting

Gile (1991) considers that both simultaneous and consecutive interpreting taxes cognitive operations which easily saturate available processing capacity and causes weaknesses in the interpreter's output. He emphasizes the difficulties and efforts involved in interpreting tasks and strategies needed to overcome them, observing that many failures occur in the absence of any visible difficulty. He proposes his *Effort Models* for interpreting and states that" The *Effort Models* are designed to help interpreters understand the difficulties of interpreting and select appropriate strategies and tactics (1992:19). They are based on the concept of Processing Capacity and on the fact that "some mental operations in interpreting require much Processing Capacity" (cited from Zhong, 2003:1). According to the author, STM plays an essential part in the process of interpreting. Gile projected *Effort Models* for simultaneous and consecutive interpreting. As in this work we concentrate on consecutive interpreting, only one model will be presented.

The phases involved in the Consecutive Interpreting process – Listening and Reformulation phases– are depicted in Figure 2.

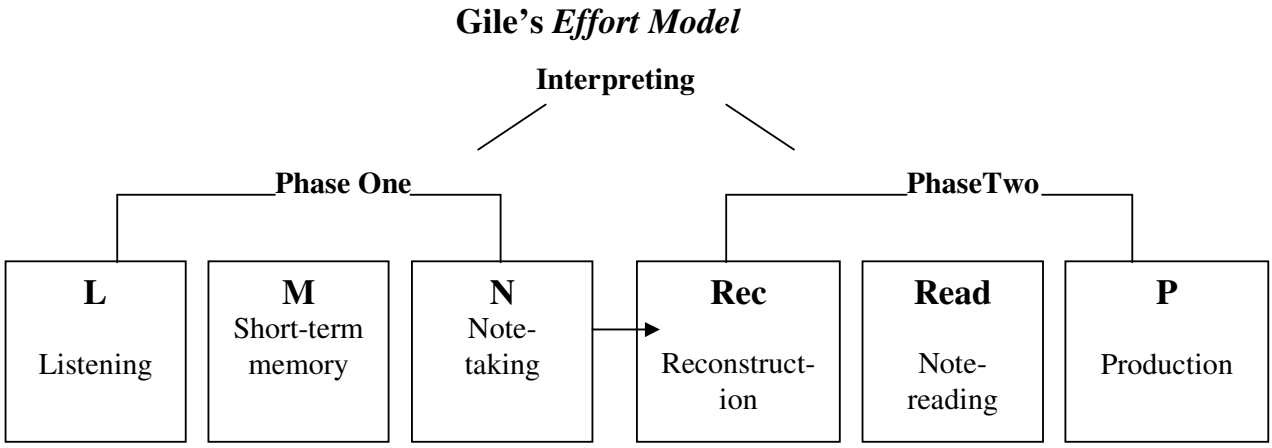

Figure 2. Phases of Consecutive Interpreting

In accordance with the model, consecutive interpreting consists of two phases. In phase One, the interpreter's attention is shared between listening and analyzing the source language speech, STM, which is required between the time information is heard and the time it is written down in the notes, note-taking. Phase Two can be called reformulation. In this Phase of consecutive interpreting firstly, a Note-Reading Effort is required to understand and sometimes decipher the notes; secondly, a long-term Memory Effort is necessary for retrieving information stored in LTM and reconstructing the content of the speech and finally, a Production effort is used for producing the TL speech.

According to this capacity management model, total capacity has to be shared strategically between listening, memorizing and production effort. Interpreting quality is liable to deteriorate as the interpreter's capacity for one of the mentioned efforts decreases when one of the other efforts requires attention. Such constraints on overall capacity are bound to effect other components of the process and will thus have a bearing on the quality of the target speech. He postulates that in consecutive interpreting most strategies have a strong cognitive-load management and are related either to note-taking and note-reading, or to target speech reformulation. While listening interpreters have to decide what to take down in their notes and how. They also have to devote some attention to the writing process itself. The author states that separation between the listening phase and the reformulation phase leaves reformulation free of heavy time constraints. Finally, Gile (1991) attributed most of the errors, omissions and other weaknesses in interpreting output to failure to meet the conditions due to capacity overload or poor capacity management. Language problems in the mastery of TL are linked to processing capacity saturation and/or wrong decision making.

This model has become a popular framework for both theoretical work and empirical research on cognitive aspects of interpreting. The analysis of the interpreting process from neuropsychological perspective, which will be briefly described in the following section, will provide a highly technical sub-field of cognition.

1.6. The Neuropsychological Basis of Interpreting

In neuropsychological terms, interpreting can be viewed as "an operation related to the development and function of the neural structure" (Wei, 2002:1). Most of the brain's functions depend on remarkably precise interconnections among its 100 billion neurons, and the activity of interpreting is not an exception. Essentially, the interpreting process has three stages: receiving the utterances, switching the utterances, and delivering the utterances.

At the first stage, when the interpreter receives the utterance in the SL, the information signal stimulates a correlated area in the cortex. According to Bear & Connors & Paradiso (2001), "as the audio stimuli evoke increased brain activity in the striate cortex and the extrastriate cortex, the nuclei of the cells start to proliferate, the nucleus of the cell migrates upward from the ventricular surface toward the pial surface. Then the cell's DNA is copied. Then the nucleus containing two complete copies of the genetic instruction, settles back to the ventricular surface and the cell retracts its tentacle from the pial surface" (cited from Wei, 2002:2).

At the second stage the SL utterance is matched with the stored signal in the TL. While the brain activities dramatically increase during this crucial transitional process, the regional blood flow accelerates. As a result, Mark (2001) states that "many daughter cells migrate by slithering along thin fibers that radiate from ventricular zone toward the pia mater. The immature neurons, called neuroblasts, follow this radial path from the ventricular zone toward the surface of the brain. When the cortical assembly is complete, the radial glial cells suspend their radial processes" (cited from Wei, 2002:3). However, one-third of the neuroblasts wander horizontally on their way to the cortex. Nevertheless, this is the period of fastest cell transfer due to the intensified exchanges and increased brain activities.

At the final stage, the transferred TL utterance will be delivered based on the form of cell differentiation in the relevant cortex. As neurons differentiate, they extend axons that must find their appropriate targets. Consequently, the pathway formation in the central nervous system occurs in three phases: pathway selection, target selection, and address selection. Each of the three phases of pathway formation depend critically on communication between cells. This communication occurs in several ways: direct cell-to-cell contact, contact between cells and the extracellular secretion of other

cells, and communication between cells over a distance via chemicals. As the pathways develop, the neurons also begin to communicate via action potentials and synaptic transmission.

Based on this biological process, a more comprehensible mental structure can be built.

Mental Structure Mechanism

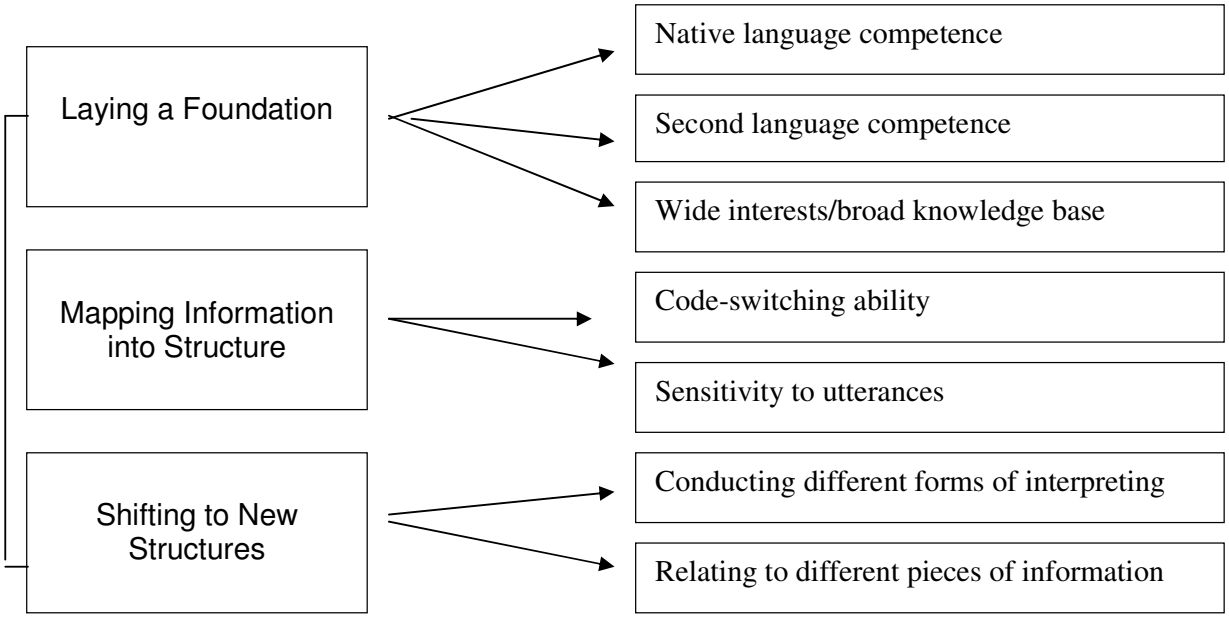

Figure 3. Graphical illustration of the mental structure mechanism

Generally speaking, "information remains irrelevant to anyone until it is received by a "structured mind" for a certain purpose" (Wei, 2002:2). He states that there are three main components in the mental structure mechanism: laying a foundation, mapping information onto the structure, and shifting to a new structure. A more detailed composition of these components is presented in Figure 3.

Laying a Foundation component is very important. Everybody understands the need for interpreters to be competent in TL, but their native language competence is sometimes neglected. Meanwhile, interpreter's interest in a wide range of issues such as politics, finance, education, culture, environment etc. should be constantly broadened, which is the precondition for achieving interpreting competence. The competence in both languages may not necessarily be translated into interpreting competence, which is essentially the switching ability between two language codes and cultural systems. Moreover, sensitivity to utterances can make a difference in interpreting results and can be trained. Finally, different forms and types of interpreting require different terminologies,

sentence or even thinking patterns and ways of expressions. A competent interpreter should be able to shift skillfully from one structure to another, while conveying coherent and related information.

The presented theories revealed that research into interpreting process has significantly developed (cf. Seleskovitch' and her followers' theories with Gile's models). The first theories are very schematic and lack information from other disciplines (psychology, cognitive sciences). While the last two models/theories are interdisciplinary and provide comprehensive information. Most generally, the presented theories and models revealed that studies in interpreting have always been closely related to the underlying model of language and language processing.

The neuropsychological evidence and the established mental structure have equipped us with a better understanding of the interpreting process. To fully explain and implement this process of building mental structures requires precise research. Therefore, in further sections we will concentrate on other important areas of the interpreting activity: long term and short term memory in consecutive interpreting, the factors influencing the quality of consecutive interpreting; likewise attention, strategic dimensions etc.

2. CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING AS A PHENOMENON

2.1. Consecutive Interpreting in Relation to Simultaneous Interpreting

The modes of interpreting have evolved through time. Modes of interpreting refer to the way in which interpreting is offered. In ancient Greek and Romania interpreting services were widely used, which then comprised only consecutive, whispered interpreting and less frequently used sight translation. In whispered interpreting the interpreter sits or stands next to the small intended audience and interprets simultaneously in a whisper. Sight translation is described as “the rendering of material written in one language into spoken speech in another language” (Erickson, 2006:2). This mode is a true and accurate verbal translation of written material into the spoken form. Simultaneous interpreting developed in the years between the two world wars. Nowadays consecutive and simultaneous interpreting are defined as classical types of professional conference interpreting.

In consecutive interpreting, interpreters provide a target language version after having listened to the entire source discourse or segments of approximately 3 and 12 minutes in length. According to Gile, “consecutive interpreting is a true and accurate interpretation of one language to another, spoken in brief sound bits successively, without omissions or embellishments” (1999:2). Interpreters may base their rendering entirely on their memory although in practice it rarely occurs, as memorizing capacity is finite and after a few rounds fatigue forces them to resort to strategies that could relieve the burden on their memory. These normally take the forms of notes. Different

interpreters apply highly individualized note-taking systems, depending on personal preference. In consecutive interpreting a very high standard of accuracy prevails. The interpreter must not only convey the content of the source language message, but he/she must also convey structural elements of that message which are not contained in the words: pauses, tone of voice, stress etc.

In simultaneous interpreting, the interpreter renders a target language utterance as the source discourse is being produced. The time lag between a stretch of source discourse and the target language rendering may range from a few words to several sentences. Kohn and Kalina state that it depends on such factors as: ”language pair, processing direction, cognitive processing load, memory capacity, fatigue and interpreting strategy” (1996:119). Compared to consecutive interpreting, the rendering in the target language tends to be more surface-oriented, sometimes even word for word, and it also tends to be more deficient as far as grammatical structure is concerned and less fluent as regards presentational aspects.

On the one hand, at their roots both modes stem from the same set of cognitive processes. According to Seleskovitch (1978), “an interpreter working in the simultaneous mode uses the same strategies, dropping form, analyzing the message for meaning, and developing a linguistically equivalent reformulation as does the interpreter working consecutively” (cited from Santiago, 2006:5). Furthermore, the goal is the same for both interpreters - to deliver an accurate and equivalent target text. In the interpreting society accuracy usually relates to the context of the text while equivalence relates to the ability of the target text to convey the register, affect, and style of the source text. On the other hand, these two modes are distinct and they differ in several ways. The main differences are presented in Table 1.

The Differences between Simultaneous and Consecutive Interpreting

Differential feature	***Simultaneous Interpreting***	***Consecutive Interpreting***
Time lag between the original speech delivery and interpretation	It has “continuous flow”, i.e. the interpreter renders interpretation while still receiving the source utterance.	It has stop-and-go rhythm, i.e. the interpreter begins the interpretation after the speaker has stopped producing the source utterance.

The role of long-term memory and short-term memory	Information is stored in short-term memory, the duration of which is only up to 30 seconds.	The role of long-term memory is as much important as short-term memory because interpreters must remember long segments of information (usually up to 15 minutes).
Quality of output delivery	Just several seconds could be devoted for monitoring the output. Heavier time pressure, but no interruption; it is easier to follow the flow of speech.	More time can be devoted for monitoring the output. Interpreters can pace themselves. Greater accuracy and equivalence, but the whole procedure slows the meeting (conference) down.
Note-taking	This strategy usually is not employed, except some exceptional cases when interpreters put down several figures.	It is a part of the process of this mode of interpreting. Interpreters must be able to take notes during the listening phase. Notes are as memory aids to reconstruct the message.
Special equipment	Sound-proof booth, headsets, a special transmitter etc.	No specialized equipment is needed.

Table 1. Differential features of simultaneous and consecutive interpreting

The primary difference between consecutive and simultaneous interpreting lies in the time lapse between the delivery of the speaker's message and the beginning of the interpretation. It is also interesting to note that in the interpreting realm a claim that simultaneous interpreting is just an 'accelerated consecutive' exists. For instance, Herbert (1956) considers it to be the case, Gile (1996) also states that such idea is frequently met among Conference Interpreting training specialists in Western Europe, however the author himself provides evidence that it is not really the truth. On the basis of his "Effort Models", as they are known in literature, he points out the differences between simultaneous and consecutive interpreting. Firstly, genuine differences arise from the role played by long-term memory in the consecutive interpreting, but not in simultaneous one, and from the simultaneous presence of the two languages in the interpreter's short – term memory in the simultaneous mode, but not in the consecutive one. While speaking, the interpreter can devote more attention to monitoring his/her output in consecutive than in simultaneous interpreting. Moreover, in

simultaneous interpreting, target speech production occurs under heavier time pressure than in consecutive, where the interpreter can pace him/herself. In consecutive, while listening, interpreters have to decide what to take down in their notes and how. They also have to devote some attention to the writing process itself. These operations are not found in simultaneous interpreting.

As it was mentioned above, interpreter's goal is always to produce the most accurate and equivalent target text. To achieve this goal, the most efficient mode of interpreting is applied in each situation and it is obvious that consecutive interpreting is not always possible. Situations where one speaker maintains the floor, with little or no interaction with the audience and situations where there is a rapid turn taking among interlocutors may require the interpreter to work simultaneously.

Conference interpreting, i.e. interpreting in a conference environment, may be simultaneous or consecutive, although the advent of multi-lingual meeting has seen a massive drop in the use of consecutive interpreting over the last 20 years.

In general, consecutive interpreting can be employed successfully in *one-on-one interactions*. They often allow for more structured turn taking behaviour than large group situations. Specifically, there are two types of interpreted situations that require consecutive interpreting rather than simultaneous. These are *legal* and *medical interactions*. In these situations accuracy and equivalence are of the utmost priority and as it was mentioned, consecutive interpreting provides greater accuracy and equivalence than simultaneous does. Palma (1995:25) points out: "the density and complexity of witness testimony requires the interpreter to work consecutively, and to be aware of how long a chunk they can manage effectively". He also notes that "especially during expert witness testimony, where the language used can be highly technical and is more likely to use complex sentence constructions; a segment of text that is short in duration may be extremely dense in terms of the content and complexity of ideas. In this case the consecutive mode has the added advantage of allowing the interpreter to ask the speaker to pause so that the interpreter may deliver the message" (ibid.). In the case of medical interpreting accuracy and equivalence are also at a premium due to the possible consequences of a misdiagnosis. These interactions may be filled with medical jargon or explanations of bodily systems that may be particularly dense for the interpreter.

To conclude, consecutive and simultaneous interpreting are distinct modes. Consecutive interpreting calls for excellent short-term and long-term memory, note-taking skills, a grasp of subtle nuances in both languages, and a mastery of speaking styles. While in simultaneous interpreting, two languages are processed at the same time in working memory and the interpreter speaks virtually at the same time as the speaker. It is usually done without omissions or embellishments. In fact, because of the time allowed for comprehension and analysis of the source text, consecutive interpretations offer greater accuracy and equivalence than simultaneous interpretations do.

2.2. Interpreting Process as a Part of Thinking Process

Interpreting, whether done simultaneously or consecutively, is a mental activity. Gile (1995a: 97) emphasizes that "the memory effort is assumed to stem from the need to store the words of a proposition unit the hearer receives the end of that proposition". Obviously, memory plays an essential role in the interpreting process and memory skills are very significant for every interpreter.

"Memory is the generative, interactive, ongoing mental process of retaining and recalling knowledge or experiences" (Hermann, Raybeck & Gutman, 1993: 2). The memory system is located in the brain stem, at the top of the spinal cord. Different parts of the brain perform different functions. Because the memory system is made of brain tissue, memory performance is directly affected by the state of individual's brain. Poor health, fatigue, malnourishment, and substance abuse can all lead to lousy memory performance. There are three components of memory: sensory memory (SM), short – term memory (STM), and long – term memory (LTM). SM corresponds approximately to the initial moment that an item is perceived. Some of this information in the sensory area proceeds to the sensory store, which is referred to STM. According to Zhong (2003: 3), "the idea of STM simply means that you are retaining information for a short period of time without creating the neural mechanisms for later recall". The main functions of STM is to hold and manipulate information while it is used for some cognitive activities (storing, but also reasoning, calculating, etc.). In this case, it is said that STM acts as a working memory. The working memory (WM) can simply be defined as "temporary storage of information that is being processed" (Baddeley, 1987:34). WM is frequently used as a synonym for STM but, in fact, it is defined not in terms of duration, but rather in terms of purpose.

"LTM occurs when you have created neural pathways for storing ideas and information which can then be recalled weeks, months, or even years later" (Zhong, 2003:3). Therefore, LTM can be defined as a learning process. It is essentially an important part of the interpreter's acquisition of knowledge, because as it was mentioned above, information stored in LTM may last from minutes to weeks, months or even an entire life. While the duration of STM is very short, particularly, it is up to 30 seconds.

According to Hermann, Raybeck and Gutman (1993), the human memory system is composed of four functional components: senses, working memory, long-term memory, and central processor, which are graphically presented in Figure 4.

Human Memory System

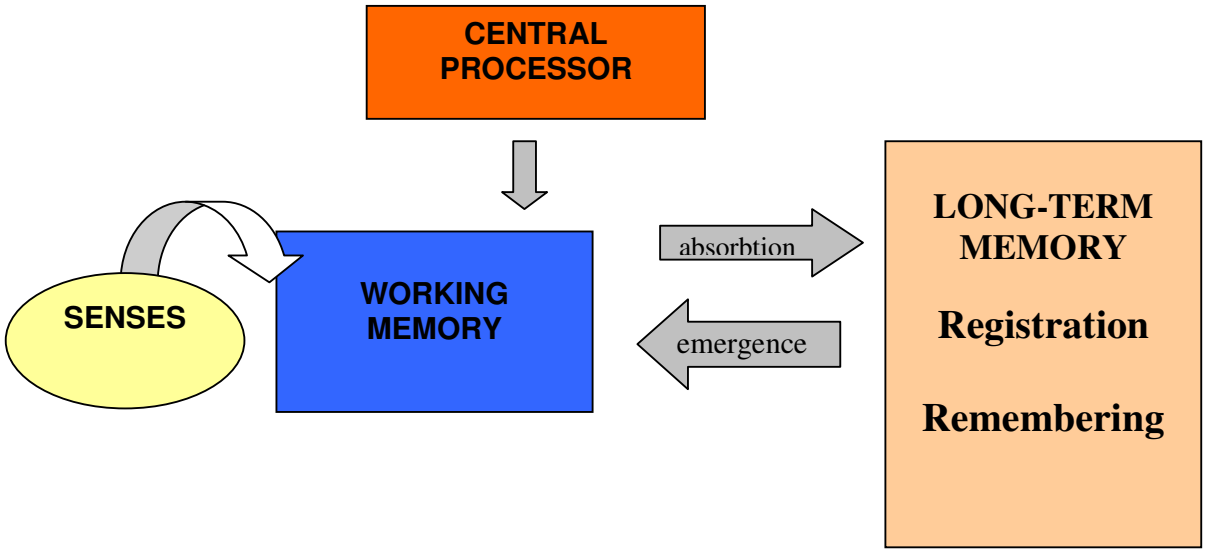

Figure 4. Human memory system according to Hermann, Raybeck and Gutman (1993:8)

In accordance with the model, information is picked up through the senses and is transmitted between WM and the senses. The central processor controls the amount of attention given to the contents of WM. Information may move between the central processor and WM. Both new perceptions and memories that have been remembered can be stored in WM. Unless it is attended to, information in WM fades in about one minute. The process of absorption moves information from working to long-term memory. The process of emergence involves remembering information in LTM and moving it into WM. Registration is the process by which information is stored in LTM. Remembering occurs when stored information has been sufficiently stimulated by new information related to it; the memory then emerges into WM. LTM strategies rely on three critical skills: rewording (putting the information in one's own words), organizing, and reducing the amount of material to be remembered.

Sometimes memory fails to work properly and according to Hermann, Raybeck and Gutman, it does it in one of three ways: “it can fail to register something initially in memory; it can fail to retain over time that which was successfully registered; or it can fail to remember something, despite successful registration and attention (1993: 7). The former is often referred as pseudo – forgetting because the information was never really known.

According to the above mentioned authors, the most important aspect of the memory system for improving memory performance is the process of attention. The likelihood that information in WM will be absorbed or lead certain traces to emerge from LTM depends on how intensely a person pays attention to the information in WM. "A good memory requires an ability to set a high level of attention for all memory tasks and to control the distribution of attention" (ibid). The accuracy and efficiency of ones memory system - for both WM and LTM - depends critically on how well his/her manipulations meet the attentional needs of particular memory tasks. Different tasks have different attentional needs because each task challenges a person in different ways.

Evidently, interpreting process is based on mental processes by which information is moved from one memory type to another. As in consecutive interpreting STM is as much important as LTM, therefore usual information processes, which encompass attention, rehearsal, encoding, and retrieval (proposed by Hermann, Raybeck and Gutman, 1993) can also be applied for the information processing in the interpreting process. The model of such information processing is illustrated in Figure 5.

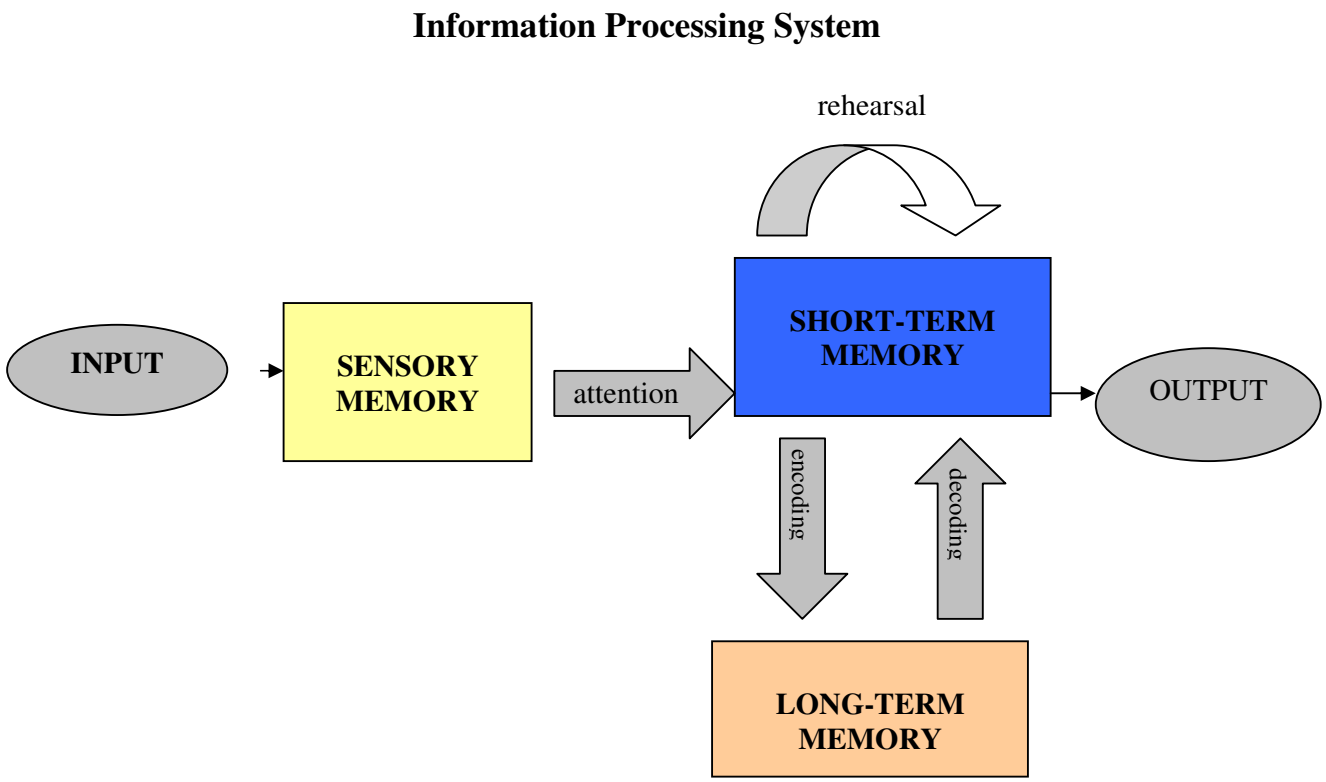

Figure 5. The model of the information processing system according to Hermann, Raybeck and Gutman (1993:15)

Firstly, the ability to pay attention is crucial to memory tasks because it is the process by which information is moved from SM to STM. In interpreting it takes only some seconds and if adequate attention is not paid, the information soon disappears.

Rehearsal involves working or doing something with a new information. One must maintain attention through rehearsal to store information in STM. The length of time information is held in STM is proportional to the amount that can be stored and the quality of the memory. *Encoding* is the process of linking new information to existing knowledge in order to make it more meaningful. Information is thus transferred from STM to LTM. In the process of consecutive interpreting it takes place during presentation of the source material. According to Zhong (2003:3), "there is probably up to 15 minutes (depending on the speaker's segments) for the interpreter to encode and then store the information". As a supplement to the memory, the notes can be taken. Finally, *retrieval* is the process of moving information from LTM to STM, it involves accessing and recovering stored information. During the interpreting activity retrieval of information coincides with decoding the information into the TL. According to Seleskovitch (1991:7), "the notes help the interpreter retrieve the message from their LTM and consist of symbols, arrows, and key words". She also states that only meaningful segments can be placed into LTM and retrieved later. Evidently, a chunk of information must be understood in order to be meaningful.

To sum up, with a well trained memory, especially STM, interpreters are actually equipped with an effective tool for the encoding and decoding information as well as the ability to apply appropriate strategies in every situation (business meetings, contract exchanges, commercial discussions, court hearing).

The strategic dimensions of interpreting, including the quality of interpreting, interpreter's as an individual's role in the interpreting process will be discussed further.

2.3. Strategic Dimensions of Consecutive Interpreting

In order to cope with manifold difficulties inherent in interpreting, interpreters attempt to convert their knowledge into strategic action. According to Kohn and Kalina (1996), these difficulties and corresponding strategic processes can be identified with reference to the following determining factors of interpreting: " the communicative transfer relation between source and target discourse; the sequential organization of source and target discourse production and source discourse complexity – content and/or linguistic representation" (1996: 126). Therefore, interpreters have to

learn and be able, as Nida (1976:58) puts it (with translation in mind), “to express their own creativity through someone else’s creation”. And strategic processes are the tools for interpreters to cope with the multidimensional problems they encounter.

The notion of strategy originated in military science and denotes the wide-ranging preliminary planning of a war including all essential military as well as non-military factors. In a metaphorical sense, the notion of strategy is used in various disciplines, such as economics, psychology, and political science; it is also used in non-technical, colloquial language. In literature, interpreting strategies are often referred to and associated with methods, techniques, procedures and types.

Before going further, it is necessary to define the term *strategy* itself since it seems that different researchers and practitioners of interpreting use it in different senses. Basically, “strategy is a carefully devised plan of action to achieve a goal” (Cambridge Learner’s Dictionary, 2001:631). This particular definition was used by Morin to refer to *interpreting strategies*, which he claims is a "code of conduct’ for interpreters (2005:2). From experiential perspective it can be observed that both interpreters and foreign language speakers have much in common when speaking about foreign language production. Both interpreters and foreign language speakers resort to strategies when facing difficulties in their performance task. Interpreters and learners undergo the same process of trying to improve their performance. Both mentioned groups are not able to understand language that contains lexicon and structures a little beyond their current level. In fact, they often use more than their linguistic competence to help them understand: they use context, their knowledge of the world and any type of extralinguistic information. In attempting to reveal the challenge facing an interpreter during the process of performance, which is similar in many ways to the challenge facing a foreign language speaker during a difficult conversation task, as Weller (1990) states: “one (an interpreter) never knows what is waiting around the bend when one accepts a commitment to interpret. It is precisely this professional challenge, a type of linguistic and emotional roller coaster, that keeps the interpreter on his toes. Experienced interpreters do not only know more vocabulary, how to better control their voice etc., but they have more strategies for dealing with the unknown features of source message” (cited from Khanji and El-Shiyab, 2000: 549). In fact, as far as foreign language learners and interpreters can be considered of having similar status in foreign language production, EFL learning strategies can serve as mutually beneficial strategies for both learners and interpreters.

Learning strategies are “tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” (Oxford, 1990: 1). Oxford sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence. Communicative competence is defined as “competence or ability to communicate. It concerns both spoken or written language and all four language skills” (i.e. listening, reading, speaking, and writing (authors comment)) (Oxford, 1990:7). She also provides a comprehensive, four-part definition of

communicative competence, which includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. “Grammatical competence is the degree to which the language user has mastered linguistic code, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling, and word formation. Sociolinguistic competence is the extent to which utterances can be used or understood appropriately in various social contexts. Discourse competence is the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought, above the level of the single sentence. Strategic competence is the ability to use strategies like gestures or talking around an unknown word in order to overcome limitations in language knowledge” (Oxford, 1990:7). The author divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into 6 groups. Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies is shown in Figure 6.

Language Learning Strategies

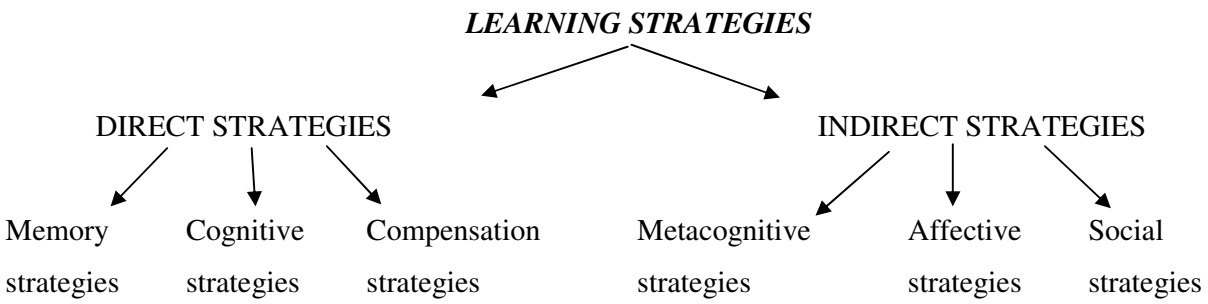

Figure 6. Diagram of the Strategy System: Overview (Oxford, 1990:16)

In Oxford's system, the first major class, ***direct*** strategies is “like a Performer in a stage play, working with the language itself in a variety of specific tasks and situations” (Oxford, 1990: 14). The direct class is composed of *memory* strategies for remembering, storage and retrieving of the information, *cognitive* strategies for understanding and producing the language, and *compensation* strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication. The second major strategy class –***indirect*** *strategies* are used for general management of learning. This class is made up of *metacognitive* (“beyond the cognitive”) strategies, which help learners to regulate their learning; *affective* strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while *social* strategies lead to increased interaction with the TL speakers. To sum up, direct and indirect strategies support each other and each strategy group is capable of connecting with and assisting every other strategy group.

Communicative competence is a significant component in all processes concerning foreign language production, including interpreting, and language learning strategies can be successfully applied in the realm of interpreting. In addition, as interpreting is one of the ways of communication, communication strategies, which can be defined as "a mutual attempt of interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared" (Tarone, 1980:420), are also employed by interpreters. In language production, *achievement* strategies are used by the foreign language speakers when facing communication problems. Achievement strategies are also used to compensate for insufficient means when confronting a problem and making an effort to retrieve the required linguistic items. *Reduction* strategies are defined as "attempts to avoid a communicative problem without being able to develop an alternative plan, and this may result in changing the original communicative goal (Khanji, El-Shiyab, 2000:550). Faerch and Kasper (1980) were the first to use the term *compensation* strategies for achievement strategies. They define compensatory strategies as "potentially conscious plans for solving what an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (1980:92). *Consequently, the term 'compensation strategies' will be used in the research to combine and apply both achievement and reduction strategies to describe the collected data*. It is worth mentioning that compensation strategies constitute a subset of communication strategies.

Along the same lines, Tarone (1980) claims that there are strategies intended to overcome the differences between the learner's and the native speaker's linguistic knowledge as well as strategies that are applied when there does not seem to be any solution to the problem. The author presents taxonomy, which consists of five main categories: *avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime.* In *avoidance strategies* the learner decides not to say anything in order to avoid communication problems. There are two possibilities, topic avoidance where the problem is avoided and message abandonment, where the speaker begins to refer to an object but renounces because it is too complicated. Besides Tarone's "topic avoidance' and "message abandonment", Faerch and Kasper (1983) include *meaning replacement,* which is considered to be functional reduction, as in the following example:

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Nevertheless <u>only about 20 per cent</u> of our daily experience is registered, and of that only a tiny proportion is loaded into long- term -memory.	Tačiau tik .. (<u>nedaug procentų) - ne tik maža dalis</u> informacijos perkeliama į ilgalaikę atmintį.(I 3)

The use of this strategy implies a more general reference to the subject.

According to Tarone (1980), *paraphrase* means "the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction, in situations where the appropriate form or construction is not known or not yet stable" (cited from Flyman, 1997:3).

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Every time his wife walks into the room he throws his arms around her as if he has not seen her for years, even though she has only been gone for a few minutes.	Kiekvieną kartą jo žmonai įėjus į kambarį, jis apkabina ją taip lyg būtų nematęs labai labai ilgai, nepaisant to, jog jis tai darė prieš keletą minučių.(I 1)

Paraphrase is divided into 1) *approximation, 2) word coinage* (i.e. the construction of a new word) and 3) *circumlocution* (i.e. verbalism*).* Correspondingly, Faerch and Kasper (1983) presented "generalization", "paraphrase" and "word coinage", which correspond approximately to Tarone's "approximation", "circumlocution" and "word coinage" respectively.

1) Approximation

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Like any other nervous condition it hardly exists in the summer holiday.	Ši problema, kaip ir dauguma panašių problemų, vasaros laikotarpiu išnyksta**.** (I 6)

2) Word coinage

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
….children are becoming computer addicts.	….vaikai tampa kompiuterio aukomis.(I 6)

3) Circumlocution

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Non-declarative memory includes knowledge of general things, how to ride a bicycle, how to behave and so on.	Ne deklaratyvioji atmintis susijusi su veiksmais, pavyzdžiui tokiais kaip važiuoti dviračiu ar bendrauti, t.y. ji susijusi su bendrais dalykais, žiniomis apie bendrus dalykus. (I 4)

Conscious transfer involves translating word for word from the native language, literal translation, or the use of a native language term, language switch. As in the following example, no changes were made while interpreting:

SL text (English)	TL (Lithuanian) version
Normal, healthy people can improve their memories very easily.	Normalūs, sveiki žmonės gali lengvai pagerinti savo atmintį. (I 4)

In *appeal for assistance* the learner asks for the correct term, whilst *mime* is the use of non-verbal strategies (gestures etc.). Other authors, such as Bialystock 1990, Poulisse 1990 etc. proposed other taxonomies, but they, as Kellerman (1991) claims "basically demonstrate the same underlying cognitive processes and should therefore not be classified as different strategies" (cited from Flyman, 1997: 3). These strategies are defined differently, but they correspond to the same strategy groups.

Morin (2005) presents strategies for interpreters based on his personal observations and experience. According to the author, "an interpreter has to equip himself beforehand with linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and interpreting skills to be well prepared while on stage where he has full self-confidence to improvise and make adaptations according to the actual conditions he is facing on stage; then he steps back to assess his performance before stepping up on stage again for another assignment" (Morin, 2005:2). He proposes strategies before, while and after performing interpreting work on stage. Before an interpreter's performance on stage he/she should "equip himself/herself with some linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and skills as a part of strategies he has to take into account" (2005: 3). First of all, the interpreter should have linguistic knowledge of both SL and TL. He should be psychologically prepared to interpret. As Morin claims "the interpreter must have I-can-do-it feeling" (Morin, 2005:3) and be self-confident. The interpreter must have cross–field understanding, i.e. to make an effort to broaden his/her knowledge concerning different fields of science. Interpreters need to have an excellent knowledge and awareness of cultural characteristics and of differences between two cultures. Correspondingly, Kohn and Kalina (1996) claim that "interpreters have to decide on the spot whether and to what extent they are able to mediate between the two cultures. This may involve verbalization of elements which it is unnecessary to verbalise in the source discourse culture, corresponding to a strategy of elaboration. It may also take the form of a deletion if an element verbalized in the source discourse culture is redundant or not acceptable in the target discourse culture or it has not even an approximate equivalent there" (1996:128). And finally, according to Morin (2005), the interpreters must be logistically prepared.

Morin's suggested strategies while on stage comprise non-linguistic strategies, such as: *keeping eye-contact with the audience*, *speaking in such voice pitch and manner that could ensure that the message is understood by the audience*; *full concentration while listening*, *no psychological burden*. Linguistic strategies are the following: *selecting the appropriate language* and *acceptable forms of addressing*, *putting down some particular points*; etc. Along the same lines, Kohn and

Kalina (ibid) highlight interpreters' ability to take notes. Generally, *note-taking* is performed during the listening phase in order to be better prepared for the production phase. Notes usually are taken in target language, although this is not essential. Interpreters must have stenographer's pad and they "should write only on one side of the sheets, which must be clipped at the top, so that they could be turned quickly and easily" (Rozan, 1956:123). Notes should be written in large characters and one single sentence can even occupy one sheet. Notes are taken strategically, i.e. the interpreter only puts down what he/she presumes not to be able to retrieve from memory during subsequent production. In cases where the source discourse has strong cohesive ties and is unambiguous linguistically, a few well- chosen notes may be sufficient as retrieval cues to reactivate a complex frame, schema etc. In the event of weak cohesion, however, very precise note – taking is necessary. The first thing to be noted should be the main ideas, first because they are the most significant elements of a speech, and secondly because they are the pillars of its structure. It is also important to note systematically the links between the different ideas as well as to divide them very clearly. As far as verbs are concerned, there are two basic things which must appear in notes: verb tenses and modal verbs because their semantic role in the sentence is always of paramount importance. As Jones (2001:69) suggests "to indicate tense add '*ll*' for the future and '*d*' for the past". Other fundamental data are numbers, dates and proper names, which must be noted accurately. Notes should reflect the structure of a speech clearly so as to help interpreters reproduce that structure in their interpretation. Abbreviations and symbols have to be unequivocal, in the sense that their meaning must be immediately clear. They must be logical, "they should have an intrinsic connotative function for the interpreter who uses them: they must be symbols, not signs; they should make up an organic system" (Jones, 2001: 85). Any notion that is likely to occur often in an interpreter's work should have its corresponding abbreviation or symbol. Every interpreter creates his/her own symbols, which could be rather limited or very long, according to personal criteria.

Finally, a critical phase for the interpreter, according to the author, 'is to make a self – reflection of what he just experienced for the purpose of performing better in a future interpreting assignment" (Morin, 2005: 4). He suggests to record, if it is possible, the interpreting process and later play back the recording to evaluate what happened on stage. The interpreter should recall and note some particular statements, terms, cultural aspects that he/she omitted, skipped or misunderstood during interpreting. This is a salutary strategy to learn new things, which might be encountered in next assignment. The more detailed description of the phenomenon of self reflection will be discussed in the following subsection (subsection 2.3.1.).

In short, Oxford's (1990) classification of foreign language learning strategies and taxonomies of communication strategies (Tarone's (1980), Faerch and Kasper's (1983) taxonomies) can be perceived as a theoretical framework for the identification and reflective investigation of direct and

indirect strategies of interpreting. In fact, reflective model of interpreting strategies based on linguistic and non-linguistic readiness of cross cultural and cross-field understanding of interpreted text as well as on self-assessment of personal interpretation can be treated as experimental theory of interpreting process.

The synthesis of the above mentioned theories (*Morin's experimental model, Oxford's classification of foreign language learning strategies, the taxonomies of communication strategies*) further will be treated as the basis for the development of the scheme of interpreting strategies employed by translation students. Graphical presentation of the strategies, which will be applied for the analysis of interpretation data, is presented in Figure 7.

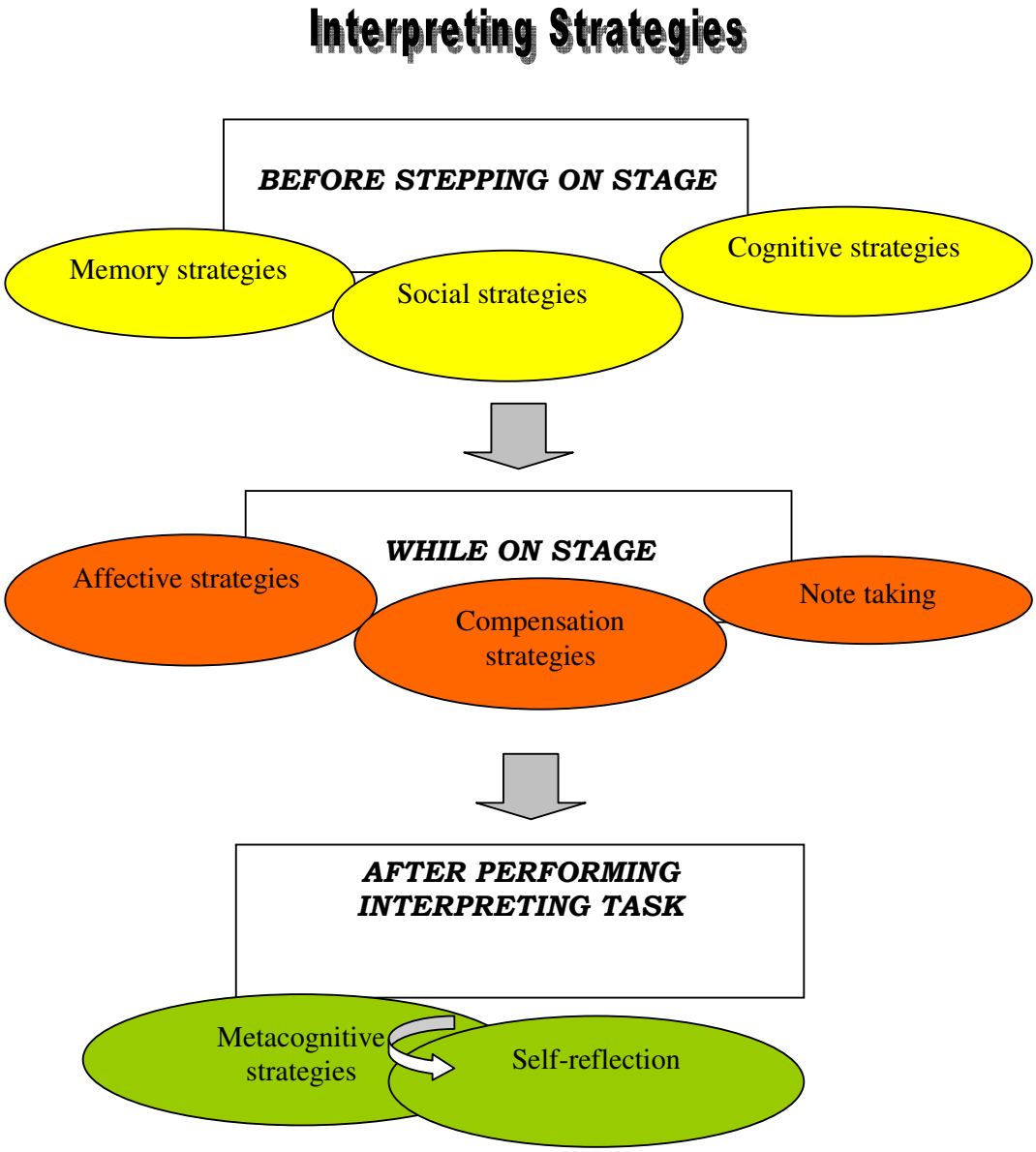

Figure 7. Diagram of the strategies employed by the interpreters.

The initial phase is preparation for the interpreting task, i.e. before stepping on stage the interpreter must be ready for the work he/she is going to perform. *Memory* strategies, *cognitive* strategies and *social* strategies are the tools to achieve adequate linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and skills. The following memory strategies: *learning new words by placing them into a context, grouping them, applying images and sounds using semantic mapping, reviewing, using mechanical techniques* help the learners and interpreters to train their memory and be ready for storing and later retrieving the new information. Cognitive strategies such as: *analysing expressions, analysing contrastively, practising (i.e. repeating, recombining, practising naturalistically –in natural, realistic settings), summarising, transferring* are salutary for every interpreter for the development of their linguistic awareness. Social strategies such as: *cooperating with proficient users of TL, asking for clarification and verification* are basically intended for the enhancement of cultural understanding. In fact, every interpreter must keep on improving his/her linguistic knowledge of both SL and TL all the time. No doubt that adequate linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and skills have impact on psychological readiness of the interpreter because when the interpreter does not hesitate and is self-confident, he/she performs better on stage.

The second, while on stage phase, is the most demanding and challenging. Now the interpreter must be able to use all his/her skills and knowledge as well as to employ the most suitable strategies in order to reach satisfactory results. It is impossible to overstate the importance of the affective factors influencing the process of interpreting. Self-esteem is one of the primary affective elements. It is a self-judgement of worth or value, based on the feeling of efficacy. The latter is reflected in attitudes, which influence interpreter's motivation. Self-encouragement strategies (*making positive statements, rewarding oneself, taking risks wisely)* are powerful tools to improve attitudes and motivation and can also indirectly reduce performance anxiety and tension. A certain amount of anxiety sometimes is helpful but too much anxiety blocks language production. Anxiety reducing strategies like *laughter* and *deep breathing* are therefore necessary. In addition*, listening to bodily signals* is an especially significant strategies for discovering and controlling anxiety. Only emotional steadiness guarantees successful performance.

Compensation strategies enable interpreters to overcome language boundaries, to get out from a difficult situation. These strategies allow interpreters to produce TL message without sufficient knowledge. Interpreters usually resort to *approximation* strategy when there is no time for details or they don't know some meanings of the words but from the context are able to guess, therefore less precise meaning is given. Below are some examples from the data of empirical investigation:

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Yet this man, formerly a highly –talented	Kadaise jis buvo talentingas muzikantas ir

musician is still able to play the piano and conduct a choir through a long and complicated concert piece.	vis dar gali diriguoti chorui ilgų koncertų metu. (I 1)
Crosswords, scrabble and quizzes all help to keep the mind in shape.	Kryžiažodžiai, įvairūs kitokie intelektą gerinantys pratimai padeda gerinti atminties veiklą. (I 4).

Avoidance (or *skipping*) strategy is used when interpreters avoid words or expressions for many reasons: incomprehensible input, don't know the meaning, the interpreters lags behind the speaker or decides that this particular information is not necessary.

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Up to one in ten youngsters – over half a million are affected.	Vienas iš 10 vaikų tampa priklausomi. (I 3)
The brain can record more than 86 billion bits of information every day and our memories can probably hold trillion bits in a lifetime.	Žmogaus smegenys gali užfiksuoti apie 86 bilijonus bitų informacijos. (I 4)

Circumlocution strategy is a paraphrasing using your own words trying to convey the meaning.

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Most of the images and ideas that pass through our minds during a day are held for only 25 to 30 seconds.	Daugelis dalykų, tokių kaip idėjos, mintys, vaizdai, įvairūs vaizdiniai praskriejantys mūsų mintimis per dieną išlieka atmintyje tik apie 25-30 sekundžių. (I 4)

Conscious transfer means that interpreter was able to translate word for word, very precisely.

SL text (English)	**TL (Lithuanian) version**
Someone with amnesia will almost always remember how to ride a bike, but may well forget her own name.	Žmogus sergantis amnezija visada prisimins kaip važiuoti dviračiu, tačiau lengvai pamirš savo vardą. (I 1)

All the above mentioned strategies, as well as non-linguistic strategies (*mime, gestures*) are the most frequently used tools by the interpreters while performing on stage. Particularly, in consecutive interpreting *note taking* strategy is of high importance. As it was already mentioned, notes are taken strategically (arrows, key words, various slashes etc). Jones (2002) provides a number of techniques of note-taking. The words can be abbreviated, as Jones suggests "write some of the first and last letters rather than trying to write as many letters as possible from the start onwards, for instance, *C-tee – Committee* etc. (2002: 86). In order to emphasize a word it can be underlined. Example:

"(The study) is interesting": int-g

"(The study) is very interesting": int-g (Jones, 2002:88).

The three symbols below are also extremely useful.

= the same goes for, one might say the same of; to convey the idea of equality or correspondence.

in + in addition, furthermore, if we also take account of; to convey the idea of additional precision

↗ this symbol denotes increase (ibid).

To explain the whole procedure, let us take an example: "Over the course of 1954, prices rose, although not to the same extent as income, thus the population's net income increased." The notes can be as follows:

54, prices ↗

but -------no **=** ↗ *income*

so --- Pop ↗

Word for word on the first line: Over the course of 1954, prices rose,

Word for word on the second line: although not to the same extent as income,

Word for word on the third line: thus the population's net income increased. (Jones, 2002:89).

Evidently, the main use of notes is to relieve memory. Undoubtedly, every interpreter usually has individual techniques how to do that.

Finally, after performing interpreting work, interpreters should evaluate their performance. Metacognitive strategies like *arranging and planning activities, considering the purpose* help interpreters to arrange their work in efficient, effective way. *Self- monitoring* and *self-evaluation* lead to better understanding of the current situation, future perspectives and progress. For example, *"I succeed this time, yes, I'm satisfied"* (I 2); "*I would evaluate my interpretation as quite good*" (I 4); "*I should be more attentive and provide more details next time"* (I 1). Self-reflection can also be treated as a metacognitive strategy, which enables a person to recapture his/her experience, think about it, evaluate and enhance the skills or knowledge he/she realises is not yet adequate. The phenomenon of self-reflection is described in the following subsection.

2.3.1. Interpreter's Self-reflection as the Means of Improving the Process and the Strategies of Consecutive Interpreting

An individual is "a unique and complex system consisting of many somatic, physiological and psychical features" {authors translation}, Jacikevičius, 1995:31). One of the greatest capacities in which a man has been said to differ fundamentally from animals is that of possessing self-conscious or reflective knowledge of himself as a thinker. The concepts of reflection and self-reflection derive from the times of Socrates who propagated the idea of thinking about one's own cognition. The concept of reflection has many meanings, including the following: to have an inner mental image, to think, to form a personal understanding, to learn from personal experience and to think critically. Dewey (1933) claims that "reflective thinking is a part of the critical thinking process referring specifically to the process of analyzing and making judgment about what has happened" (1933:102). He defines reflective thought as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it tends" (1933:118). Reflective thinking from the philosophical perspective is a thorough consideration of all of one's thoughts, the implications of one's frame of reference on those thoughts, and all alternatives to one's thoughts. Reflective thinking is what allows an individual to have some self-control and command over his/her own thinking and beliefs instead of being entirely socially constructed.

Self-reflection is described as an activity in which "an individual evaluates himself, his abilities, qualities and the place among others (Psichologijos žodynas (1993:263, {authors translation}.Through reflection one becomes aware of one's own knowledge or cognitive strategies. When an individual experiences something, he does not experience isolated properties of an object, but he experiences these properties (functional and valuational) simultaneously and interprets their significance. Thus, experience consists of all special thoughts, memories, emotions, expectations, which elicit in them. To be effective, reflection should be a continuous cycle in which experience and reflection on this experience are inextricably linked. Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) state that reflection involves "returning to the experience, attending to the feelings and re-evaluating the experience based on current knowledge and intent, and integrating this new knowledge into your conceptual framework" (1985: 26). Reflection goes beyond just describing what one does, to thinking about why he/she does things and to whether they have gone as intended, why one thinks they have worked well, and how they might be done differently next time.

Reflection is a cyclical stage process. Many reflection oriented models have been proposed by different authors, likewise: Schön's model of reflective practice, 1983; Gibb's reflective cycle, 1988; John's model for structured reflection, 1994; Atkins and Murphy' s stage model of reflection,

1994, etc. They serve as metacognitive tools. All models share variation of three main stages: experience, a critical analysis of the situation or new knowledge gained and development of new perspectives and strategies to be applied in the future. Reflection is an active mental activity, which is presented in Gibb's (1988) reflective cycle in the following sequence: **Description** (what has happened?).– **Feelings** (What did you feel or think at that moment?) **– Evaluation** (positive and negative aspects of this experience) – **Analysis** (What have you learnt from the situation?) – **Conclusion** (What else could be done in this situation?) – **Action plan** (if this happens again, what will you do?) (cited from Baranauskienė, 2003:41).

Reflective thinking is practised in such domains as psychology, education, philosophy. In the realm of interpreting reflection and self-reflection are not usually applied, although such considerations already exist. Morin (2005) emphasizes the need to assess one's performance of interpreting task for the purpose of performing better in a future interpreting assignment. "The interpreter should be proud of and satisfied with the mission he has just completed successfully, although he might have some regrets about missing some important points due to lack of knowledge and unforeseen interference" (Morin, 2005:5). Thus, both positive and negative experiences should be analysed during the process of reflection. Interpreters should asses their work in order to ensure that their performance will be improved, i.e. to understand why an interpreting activity was productive or non-productive.

To conclude, self-reflection is a useful strategy to learn new things that might appear in future performances. In addition, it is a precondition for life-long self-development in the facet of consecutive interpreting. In the present research it serves as an instrument for the empiricalinvestigation, which is carried out within the framework of phenomenography - a purely qualitative research approach, which seeks to delineate and comprehend how people conceive, experience, perceive different aspects of the world (the process of consecutive interpreting, in particular).

3. EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF INTERPRETING STRATEGIES BASED ON REFLECTIVE ANALYSIS

3.1. The Research Setting and Informants

This study was conducted with a group of translation students at the Faculty of Humanities, Šiauliai University, during the period from December 2006 to January 2007.

The group of the translation students comprised **six** students studying translation/interpreting as a part of master degree studies. Their age ranged from 23 to 30 years old. All informants were native speakers of Lithuanian, with advanced level of English. Even though the informants did not practice consecutive interpreting professionally, they had a high level of proficiency in English as a result of the studies at university.

3.2. Experimental Conditions

The informants were familiar with the first task to be performed (i.e. consecutive interpreting). They were asked to interpret the unknown text from English into Lithuanian. One student was reading the text in certain segments, while the other was performing consecutive interpreting. Their performances were video-recorded. Video-recording lasted from 15 to 20 minutes. The purpose of video-recording was to accumulate enough empirical material for the phenomenographic research as well as to provide the informants with the possibilities to reflect on their interpreting performance.

Immediately after recording, the informants were asked to describe what had happened in the filmed sequence, i.e. they had to self-reflect on what they have just experienced when interpreting, what strategies they used, what they felt. Prior to this research the students were informed that the aim of the study was not to evaluate their interpreting output. The essence of the investigation was to analyse respondents' ability to assess their own performance. Therefore, while watching the recorded material they could choose the sequences they wanted to comment upon and determine the length of their commentaries. In order to stimulate the respondent's thinking about the performed interpreting task a semistructured interview was conducted. Three questions were provided for the students:

- Comment on what is going on in the sequences you are now viewing?
- Why did you interpret in a particular way?
- How do you assess your personal performance?

The questions had to encourage the participants to reflect on their experiences of consecutive interpreting. In total 44 sequences were commented.

The reflections were recorded using a dictaphone and later they were transcribed in order to conduct the micro-analysis of the content of their self-reflection. As a result, the transcribed material and its language micro –analysis served as data source for the empirical investigation.

3.3.Text-type

Two texts were selected because during the research one student was reading the text and the other one was interpreting it consecutively. After they finished, they had to change their roles and the one who previously was the reader of the text now had to interpret, but not the text he had read.

Taking into account the informants' heterogenous competence in foreign language, it was difficult to find adequate texts for interpreting. Two texts were chosen, one of them is entitled 'Danger when a computer becomes your best friend', the other one - 'How to boost your memory'. They both are extracts from articles from *Best* magazine. The articles were reproduced in *First Certificate Gold* by Burgess and Acklam (1996 p. 48, 68). These texts were chosen because we felt that these were the areas that would not be completely unfamiliar to the informants. Both themes are rather relevant nowadays. Consequently, most informants should have had at least some of the background knowledge required for interpreting in these particular discourses.

The texts were abbreviated, but the syntax remained unchanged. The texts included syntactic subtleties, numbers, names, the interpreting of which provided interesting material for the investigation. The texts are provided in Annexes.

3.4. Methodological Remarks

The whole procedure of this particular research was briefly described in section 3.2. The study is carried out within the structure of phenomenographic research. In general terms, phenomenography is based on the assumption that "the conceptions of a single object differ among people. Differences in conceptions are explained by the fact that different people have different experiences due to their relations to the world" (Alexandersson, 1994:3). Phenomenography is a research approach that was originally developed by a Sweden research group in University of Gothenburg. Marton (1970) and his colleagues (Säljö,1975; Dahlgren, 1980; Svensson and Theman 1983) undertook a pioneering work that led to the establishment of this research approach and later a large number of academics around the world became interested in their way of doing research. Phenomenography is interested in the content of thinking, which is described in terms of what is perceived and thought about. An effort is made to uncover all the understandings people have of specific phenomena and to classify them into conceptual categories. Marton (1981) claims that "the point of departure in phenomenography is always relational. We deal with the relation between the individual and some specified aspect of the world <..>, we try to describe an aspect of the world as it appears to the individual. This means that we adopt an experiential perspective. We do not try to

describe things as they are, nor do we discuss whether or not things can be described as "they are", we try to characterize how things appear to people" (Marton, 1986:33). Phenomenographers categorize their respondent's descriptions, and these categorizations are the primary results of phenomenographic research. The original findings of the categories are considered to be a kind of *new discovery* because differently from other research methods, in particular content analysis, the categories into which the utterances are sorted are not determined in advance. Phenomenographic kind of analysis is "dialectical in the sense that meanings are developed in the process of bringing quotes together and comparing them" (Marton, 1986:43).

Exact techniques for phenomenographic research are not specified because "there are different sources of information by means of which we may gain an understanding of how people conceive of various aspects of their world" (Marton, 1986:42). However, interviewing is a primary and most frequent methodology employed for phenomenographic data collection. The nature of questions and the manner of asking are crucial aspects of the method. The questions should be as open-ended as possible, so that the informants could choose the dimensions of the question they want to respond. The interviews are transcribed and the transcripts are the data for the further analysis. The result of the analysis is the quotes which are selected from all the interviews. The quotes form the data pool or base. According to Marton, "each quote has two contexts in relation to which it has been interpreted: first, the interview from which it was taken, and second, the "pool of meaning" to which it belongs" (1986: 43). In short, the quotes are arranged and rearranged and finally set up into categories. The latter are differentiated one from another on the grounds of their differences and defined in terms of key meanings.

Phenomenographic research enabled to carry out a purely qualitative research, which helped to define linguistic and non-linguistic strategies employed by the students during the process of consecutive interpreting.

3.5. Data Analysis

In this section the data which was collected during sociolinguistic investigation (reflective analysis) is described. The categories are identified and illustrated by the quotes from the transcriptions of translation students' reflective analysis.

The author thoroughly read the transcribed material of the informants' self-reflection and tried to perceive towards what the interpreters direct their thinking. While reading the author selected the quotes reflecting different modes of thinking. The data was arranged, the quotes were sorted into piles and all marginal cases were examined, and finally informants' utterances were brought together into categories on the basis of their similarities and according to the methodological requirements of

phenomenographic research. The categories were revised, modified and generalised. Evidently, the categories into which the utterances were sorted out were not determined in advance. They were developed in the process of comparing the quotes, finding semantically coinsiding key words that allowed to put the quotes into one category.

As it was briefly discussed in section 3.2., the informants commented 44 sequences. The commented sequences were grouped. Every single differentiated piece of comment is called a "quote". In total 205 quotes were recorded. The selected quotes were divided into four qualitative categories:

Interpreters' thinking was oriented towards:

A Knowledge/abilities

B Strategies

C Mistakes and their reasons

D Self-Assessment

Their statistical analysis is presented in the tables below.

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(statistical category 1)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	5
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	10
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	5
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	8
	Total number of quotes	28

Table 2. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 1.*

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(statistical category 2)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	12
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	24
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	10
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	20
	Total number of quotes	66

Table 3. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 2* .

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(statistical category 3)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	0
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	10
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	6
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	6
	Total number of quotes	22

Table 4. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 3.*

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(statistical category 4)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	2
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	20
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	8
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	5
	Total number of quotes	35

Table 5. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 4.*

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(statistical category 5)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	3
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	10
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	7
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	6
	Total number of quotes	26

Table 6. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 5.*

Expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories
(*statistical category 6*)

	Main qualitative categories	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities	4
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	9
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	7
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	8
	Total number of quotes	28

Table 7. Statistical data of qualitative categories of *Informant 6.*

General statistical expression of the content and typology of qualitative categories

	Main qualitative categories	Statistical category 1	Statistical category 2	Statistical category 3	Statistical category 4	Statistical category 5	Statistical category 6	Number of quotes
A	Thinking oriented towards knowledge/ abilities	5	12	0	2	3	4	26
B	Thinking oriented towards strategies	10	24	10	20	10	9	83
C	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	5	10	6	8	7	7	43
D	Thinking oriented towards self-assessment	8	20	6	5	6	8	53
	Total number of quotes	28	66	22	31	26	28	205

Table 8. Statistical data of qualitative categories of all *Informants.*

In further subsections all four categories (thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities; thinking oriented towards strategies; thinking oriented towards mistakes/their reasons/ thinking oriented towards self-assessment) will be explained and illustrated.

3.5.1.Interpretation of Qualitative Category A – Thinking Oriented towards Knowledge/abilities

The quotes which were allocated to this category embodied some kind of *Informants'* knowledge or ability or the lack of it. They are based on Devenport and Prusak's (1998:5) definition of knowledge, which is defined as " a fluid mix of framed experience, contextual information, values and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information'. In general terms, ability is "the quality of being able to do something; it is acquired skill or talent" (Cambridge Learner's Dictionary, 2001:597).

This category consists of only 26 quotes. The majority of the quotes express negative feelings, i.e. they are related to the lack of some kind of knowledge or ability. All informants, mostly *Informant* 2, commented on their knowledge and abilities and emphasized that they were not aware of the meanings of some words and that their ability to concentrate and stay attentive for a longer period was not sufficiently developed. Elaborate presentation of the category is provided in table 9.

Statistic expression of the category

	Thinking oriented towards:	Quotes	Number of quotes
1.	knowledge	'I didn't know how to translate this information', I didn't know the meanings of some important words'; I have never encountered such words'; 'I didn't know their exact meanings'; 'these were unknown words'.	6
2.	abilities	'I didn't remember other information'; I was not always able to catch up with the speaker'; I couldn't remember the sequence of the sentences'; I've got confused and was not able to follow'; I just lack concentration; ' I wasn't so fast in taking notes'; 'I managed to follow the structure'; I managed to take notes'; 'I couldn't retain what these words mean'; 'psychologically I was not able to interpret'; 'I forgot'; 'managed to mention a number of details'; 'I didn't remember the meaning of some words', "I couldn't relax and	20

		concentrate'; 'I forgot the numbers' etc.	
	Total number of quotes		26

Table 9. Illustration of category A – Thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities.

Obviously, the lack of knowledge and abilities is highly related to memory. Interpreters pointed out their inability to retrieve information they heard. Therefore, we may draw a conclusion that they themselves became aware that their memories are not trained enough. They highlighted their inability to concentrate on the content of SL speech which reveals that they are not prepared for the work they are going to perform, i.e. as it was discussed in section 2.3. and presented in Figure 7, their preparation stage for interpreting performance (the usage of memory strategies, social strategies and cognitive categories) is not fully implemented. As a result, knowledge and abilities strongly correlate with the strategies interpreters use, especially strategies for overcoming knowledge gaps in particular situations.

3.5.2. Interpretation of Qualitative Category B- Thinking oriented towards Strategies

'Thinking oriented towards strategies' is the most significant category of our research, as we aimed to investigate linguistic and non-linguistic strategies employed by interpreters based on their own reflection on this phenomenon.

While analysing the quotes the author selected the ones, which expressed some kind of action related to the reproduction of the original message. Informants conveyed much information about the changes they made and the actions they performed during interpreting, i.e. they commented on the strategic actions they performed. Strategy is considered to be a 'code of conduct', according to Morin (2005:2). 83 quotes were attributed to this category. In some cases the informants provided the evaluation of some strategic actions they performed, but they are not considered as quotes and are taken only as supplements for the explanation of the quotes. Some strategies were named, for instance, *approximation, paraphrase* and *omission. Note taking* was mentioned almost in all commentaries, particularly because it is a distinct strategy mostly used in consecutive interpreting. In fact, all informants provided evaluative comments on this strategy. Interpreters paid more attention to linguistic strategies, although some non-linguistic strategies were pointed out as well. Table 10 illustrates category B more precisely.

Statistic expression of the category

	Thinking oriented towards interpreting strategies	Quotes	Number of quotes
1.	Linguistic strategies	'I skipped some words'; Some meanings are not so precise'; I simply paraphrase in many cases'; I tried to take notes'; I improvise due to the previous information'; I shortened everything'; I said only the main idea'; I started to explain"; "I created some facts just relating it to already known information'; 'Tried to say everything in some sentences'; I left them untranslated'; 'I wrote only key words'; I use the context to get out from such situations'; 'I paraphrased the message'; 'I skipped words and even the whole sentences'; 'I search for the shorter way to reveal the meaning'; I render only the main information'; 'I marked the figures '; I missed quite a number of details'; 'I deleted words'; 'I tried to compress the utterance'; ' generalised'; 'I try to remember and say it in may own words'; 'I practically omitted quite a large unit'; 'Explained in other words'; the information is shortened and generalised'; more abstract information'; 'I compressed the whole text'; 'I conveyed everything in only some sentences' etc.	69
2.	Non-linguistic strategies	'I use body language trying to explain the meaning'; 'I always try to keep eye contact'; 'I began to gesticulate with hands'; 'I avoid eye contact with the public'; 'No facial expressions revealing that I missed some information'; 'gesticulate quite much'; 'hand movements help to explain'; 'my body and face don't reveal that I don't know or missed something' etc.	10
3.	Affective strategies	'I say to myself: "it's ok, relax"'; 'The main thing is to calm myself down- I say everything will be ok and will finish soon'; 'Psychological problems'; My fear to stay in front';	4
	Total number of quotes		83

Table 10. Illustration of category B – Thinking oriented towards strategies.

In accordance with selected quotes, the strategies of interpreting were identified. Firstly, certain types of *compensation* strategies were detected, all of which provided data regarding interpretation quality, as well as the reasons that underlie them. Informants' self reflection revealed that time constraints, the nature of the input they received during the interpreting process, also their own linguistic and extralinguistic strengths and weaknesses may have led them to resort to some kind of strategies. These types of strategies were identified according to typologies which were presented in theoretical part (section 2.3. and namely description of the second- 'while on stage' phase).

In the analysis of the data of self reflection of 6 student interpreters, a total number of 60 instances of compensation strategies were recorded. The four most frequently used strategies were the following: skipping (34%), circumlocution (or paraphrase) (28%), approximation (20%), comprehension omissions (18%). Table 11 shows the type, number and frequency of compensation strategies employed by student interpreters.

Types, numbers and frequency of compensation strategies employed by interpreters

Strategy type	Number of Strategies Used by Individual Interpreters						Total Number of Each Strategy	Frequency
	I 1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6		
Skipping	1	5	2	7	2	3	20	34%
Circumlocution	3	7	1	5	1	0	17	28%
Approximation	1	2	2	2	3	2	12	20%
Comprehension Omissions	2	4	0	2	1	2	11	18%
Total								100%

Table 11. Usage of compensation strategies based on translation students' self-reflection analysis.

Skipping was the most widely utilized strategy among the other types of strategies. It accounted for 34% of instances of strategies used. According to informants' reflections, this strategy was employed when they avoided some information for many possible reasons: incomprehensible input; they were lagging behind the speaker; unknown words etc. All these are possible reasons for using a skipping strategy. In fact, this strategy can be classified as reduction type of strategy because student interpreters who employed it attempted to do away with a lexical problem facing them during the interpreting process and it sometimes resulted in inaccurate interpretation.

Circumlocution was the second most frequently used strategy, accounting for 28% of the cases. Student interpreters employed this strategy when they attempted to solve the problem directly by developing an alternative and successful plan and explaining everything in their own words rather than by reducing the content of their intended message. The meaning was precisely expressed, therefore this strategy can be considered as achievement strategy.

Student interpreters resorted to *approximation* strategy apparently when there was no time for details. Student interpreters in this case attempted to reconstruct the optimal meaning by giving less precise meaning of an expression in the TL instead of the required lexical expression in the FL. Consequently, approximation is another type of achievement strategy because in most cases semantic components were preserved and the meaning was nor distorted.

Unlike the skipping strategy, the application of *comprehension omissions* as a strategy was used when the informants themselves noticed hat they have omitted "larger units" of the text. The most frequent explanation given by the student interpreters was that they were not able to catch up with the speaker and, therefore were unable to figure out the meaning of these "larger units". In some cases interpreters initially made an attempt to start interpreting units of the text, which caused comprehension problems, but then gave up and stopped in the middle of the sentence. The same as *skipping* ,comprehension omissions are also an example of reduction strategy. It accounted for 18% of the cases.

In conclusion, interpreters themselves observed that the usage of avoidance (reduction) strategies like skipping and comprehension omissions have negative impact on the interpretation quality. It means that ***student interpreters' linguistic competence is not sufficiently developed and it does not enable them to process either incomprehensible message or information load satisfactorily***. These problems are closely related to interpreters' knowledge, abilities and psychological preparation. A very small number of affective strategies (only 4) used by interpreters reveals that they have not enough information of how to reduce fear, concentrate and be attentive. Only two informants mentioned the ways they try to calm themselves down.

The use of reduction strategies is also related to the ability to take notes. Note-taking is a part of the process of consecutive interpreting, because in this mode of interpreting it serves as the supplement for interpreters when they have to remember large units of the text. However, the ability to write down and listen to the forth coming information simultaneously is not an easy task. To perform it requires special skills. In our research, this strategy was used 9 times, but according to informants' commentaries they did not succeed because listening and taking notes at the same 'distributed attention'. It may be presumed that their knowledge and skills must be improved in order to employ this strategy successfully in the future.

As far as non-linguistic strategies are concerned, it would be logical to conclude that student interpreters do not pay much attention to their gestures, mime while interpreting. They are more concentrated on the quality of output rather than on how it is produced visually. In fact, gestures are only found accompanied by an oral explanation. It simply helps to reveal information. Figure 8. presents the frequency of all the above mentioned strategies employed by student interpreters.

Strategies used in the process of interpreting

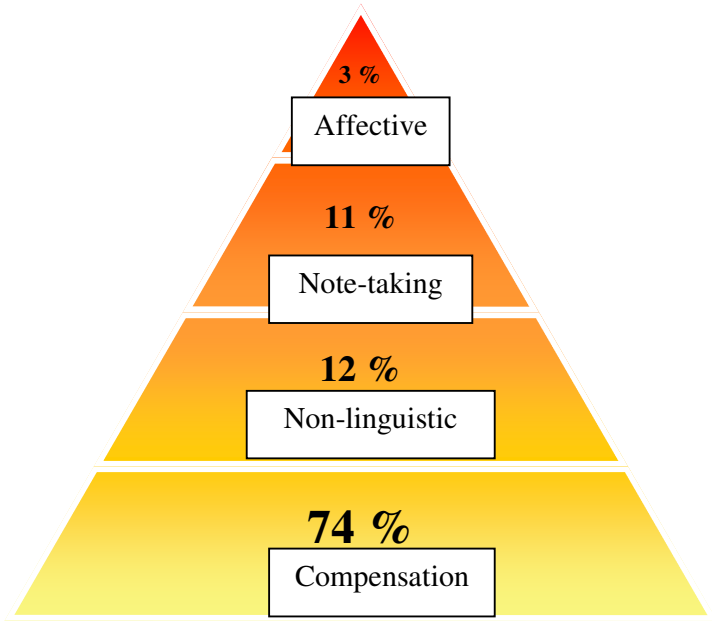

Figure 8. Strategies employed by student interpreters while performing interpreting task.

To sum up, informants usually resort to *compensation* strategies. Non-linguistic strategies only accompany linguistic ones. Note – taking is not applied effectively because of the lack of skills. Affective strategies are very rarely used. As the most widely observed compensation strategy is skipping, it is evident that interpreters lack some skills, abilities, they have knowledge gaps and simply are not fully prepared for the task they are going to perform.

3.5.3.Interpretation of Qualitative Category C –Thinking Oriented towards Mistakes and their Reasons

Generally, Cambridge Learner's Dictionary (2001:415) defines *mistake* as:

1. Something that you do or think which is wrong;

2. an apprehending wrongly;
3. deficient knowledge.

All the parts of the definition are relevant to the selection of the quotes that belong to this category. During the process of self-reflection respondents pointed out some failures, inaccuracies or something that should have been done in other way and in some cases tried to explain the reasons of such misconceptions. On such bases the utterances were brought together into category C.

Statistic expression of the category

	Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons	Quotes	Number of quotes
	Misconception, inaccuracy	'I mixed billions and trillions'; 'the main reason is overload of information'; ' I missed so many facts'; 'I don't pay much attention to the sequence'; 'I paid too much attention to one word'; 'the meaning was a little bit changed'; 'not according to the rules of the Lithuanian language'; "I didn't pay attention to the pitch of my voice'; Sentences are chopped and sound uncertain'; I didn't mention the numbers'; I showed negative emotions'; I was not ready to write them down'; 'unnatural formulations'; 'I changed the meaning of the phrase'; ' I hesitate'; 'expressions are clumsy'; etc.	43
	Total number of quotes		43

Table 12. Illustration of category C – Thinking oriented towards mistakes and their reasons.

This category consists of 43 quotes. Informants noticed that something was wrong in the work they performed, most often they spoke about *the change of the meaning of some parts of the text* and that *some information* (most frequently figures and names) *was not mentioned* or that they produced *inaccurate information*.

This category has strong links with other categories and it was difficult to decide which quotes should be attributed to it. The distinct feature is that the quotes, which are brought together into this category, all bear some kind of informants' awareness that particular things should have

been done differently and that they made a mistake choosing the way of action. Evidently, these quotes express negative emotions and feelings, but the fact that informants were self-critical and did not avoid speaking about one's own failures reveals their sincerity and cognition that only critical thinking of your own work is a precondition for a personal and professional development .

3.5.4.Interpretation of Qualitative Category D – Thinking Oriented towards Self-assessment

While analysing informants' utterances, 53 quotes were allocated to this category. The selection of quotes was based on such criteria like:

- long commentaries with explanations;
- the analysis of feelings and values;
- the commentaries with words "I think, I noticed, I realised";
- commentaries that revealed some kind of assessment of the process or the quality.

They were also chosen on the grounds of Morin's (2005:5) definition of self-assessment, which is defined as "continuing process through which a person evaluates the effectiveness of his performance and determines what improvements are required". Qualitative interpreting process and output are impossible without reflective thinking which is divided into *reflection- in –action* and *reflection-on –action* (the distinction is provided by Schon, 1983:49-50). The latter comes distinctively after the action. Reflection – in –action involves looking at one's experiences, connecting them with one's feelings and attending them to theories. Evidently, interpreters always have to think things through because every case is unique. According to Hatton and Smith (1995), this type of reflection is achieved gradually, i.e. passing the following stages:

1. *"Technical stage – evaluation of the adequacy of skills and capabilities used for a particular task; direct decisions;*
2. *Descriptive stage –analysis of one's activities and decisions; giving reasons for activities taken;*
3. *Dialogic stage –speaking with personal self; exploring alternative solutions;*
4. *Critical stage – thinking about the effects of one's actions upon others"* (cited from Baranauskienė, 2003:50 [authors translation].

Statistic expression of the category

	Thinking oriented to self-assessment	Quotes	Number of quotes
1.	Technical reflection	'I should admit that not so bad'; 'I suppose it was quite normal, not so much misleading'; In general interpretation is quite good'; 'I would evaluate my translation as quite good'; 'actually not good at all'; 'It's good that I'm fluent'; " It could be better'; 'It's good that I was more relaxed' etc.	13
2.	Descriptive Reflection	'Well, I don't like how I interpreted, somehow when I listened everything was clear, but when I started to interpret I've got confused..'; 'Not bad, I see that I found a right way and explained it other words quite successful'; 'I omitted it, of course, it's not good, but I couldn't even explain in my own words, I couldn't get from the context'; 'but I don't consider it to be good because during such interpretations it is easier to be accurate, but I didn't succeed this time, except some places..'; 'I think I forgot to mention the numbers because I didn't write them down and for this reason my interpretation is not accurate'; 'not bad, if evaluating the whole interpretation, but it should be more precise, more fluent, to be closer to the original..' etc.	32
3.	Dialogic reflection	'Next time I have to concentrate my attention better if I want my interpretation to be more accurate and fluent'; 'I should provide more details and pay more attention to note-taking next time'; 'I should really practice and find the ways how to overcome stage fright maybe I should practice more to speak in front of the audience'.	3
4.	Critical reflection	'I even twisted the sense of facts, what I really shouldn't, thanks God, nobody's life depended on my translation'; 'No doubt, the quality of translation suffered and listeners received inaccurate information'; 'My interpretation could mislead the listeners, but I believe that the information I omitted was not so important for them, I hope so, otherwise I would blame myself for that'; 'not bad actually, but if there were more details and the same structure of the sentences as of the source message, I would say I've done a great job, but it's impossible to translate everything'; It shouldn't be so abbreviated because I didn't reveal even the main information'. not bad actually, but if there were more details and the same structure of the sentences as of the source message, I would say I've done a great job';	5
Total number of quotes			53

Table 13. Illustration of category D – Thinking oriented to self-assessment (reflection)

Technical reflection is declarative and superficial in nature. It is based on empirical theories, which do not concentrate on critical thinking and interpretation of one's own activity. Technical reflection is expressed in the commentaries of all informants. They are able to notice and make quick decisions on what was good or bad. It reveals that during the studies, translation students were taught to combine theory and practice.

Most often respondents were able not only to state that something was wrong or good, but they were able to analyse and evaluate their activities and explain why particular action was taken. Descriptive reflection is a higher level of reflection than technical one and the research results convey that informants try not only to assess their performance, but also provide the reasons for the particular choice they made. On the contrary, a small number of quotes that reveal dialogic and critical reflection let us conclude that respondents need more practice in order to achieve the highest level of reflection and be able not only to recapture one's experience, feelings, evaluate them but also to find alternative solutions and see the goals and practices of one's profession as problematic, taking into consideration social, cultural and even political aspects.

3.6. The Findings of the Empirical Investigation

1. Though the research aimed to identify only linguistic and non-linguistic strategies employed by translation students in consecutive interpreting, during the analysis of the transcripts of their self-reflection it became obvious that three more categories could be distinguished (thinking oriented towards knowledge/abilities, thinking oriented towards mistakes/their reasons, thinking oriented towards self-assessment).
2. Time constraints, the nature of the input translation students received during the interpreting process, together with their own linguistic and extralinguistic strengths and weaknesses are some of the variables which have led the informants to resort to either successful or unsuccessful strategies. Regrettably, the later ones were used more frequently as *skipping* and *comprehension omission* strategies, which are considered as reduction strategies, accounted for 52% of the instances of strategies used.
3. It was revealed that student interpreters do not have note-taking skills. They all emphasized their inability to listen and write at the same time. They do not have their own system of note-taking techniques. This could be explained by the fact that the students did not have such curriculum during their studies , therefore they did not have enough knowledge about it.

4. It is interesting to note that respondents did not comment on the verbal pauses. They did not notice when they said *um, ah, uh* or so called bridge words like *and, but* etc. Verbal pauses are usually made while one's brain is searching for the next words to say and the mouth keeps on going and blurts out meaningless extra syllables. In contrast to informants, the author while watching the videotape counted 32 noticeable verbal pauses, most frequently *um.* This fact conveys that respondents were not very careful while watching the videotape and during the assessment of their output they did not consider the fact that verbal pauses are distracting, as a result, verbal pauses have negative impact on the interpreted text and the process of perception is distorted.
5. It was revealed that insufficient psychological readiness is one of the most influencing factors of unsuccessful performance of consecutive interpreting task. Psychological burdens like stage fear, angst, and lack of concentration or attention , which are the consequence of the former ones, are the main weaknesses of informants.
6. The research reveals that successful performance of consecutive interpreting depends not only on the actions taken during the process of interpreting but also on the preparation for it.
7. The analysis and the categorisation of the utterances revealed that respondents' reflective thinking skills are not sufficiently developed and self-reflection must be practiced more often.
8. The informants themselves emphasized that "self-reflection is very useful because you can see your weaknesses and strengths and can improve something next time" (I 1).

CONCLUSIONS

1. The analysis of theories and models of the process of consecutive interpreting revealed that research into interpreting process has significantly developed. It has become interdisciplinary and shares information from other disciplines like: psychology, cognitive sciences, neurophysiology. In general terms, the whole process of consecutive interpreting is broken into three stages: understanding, analysing and re-expressing. Attention is paid to active listening, the identification of the main ideas, the use of short –term as well as long-term memories and note taking techniques.
2. The studies of the phenomenon of consecutive interpreting yield general insights into language processing, into aspects of the mental processes of speech reception and speech production as well as the strategic actions employed by interpreters.
3. The strategies for the interpreters can be divided into three general groups: before stepping on stage (memory strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies), while on stage (affective strategies, compensation strategies, note –taking) and after performing interpreting task on stage (metacognitive strategies, self-reflection).
4. The analysis of the process and the product of self-reflection proves that self-reflection serves as a precondition for the synthesis of theory and practice, enhancement of ones' linguistic and non-linguistic strategies of consecutive interpreting and the development of reflective thinking skills.
5. The investigation of the product of self-reflection conveyed that translation students' thinking was oriented not only towards strategic actions they performed but also towards knowledge/abilities, mistakes/their reasons and self-assessment.

Further research on self-reflection in the process of interpreting needs to be carried out. Investigations of such kind may be performed along the following lines: self-reflection on the strategies employed by the students and professional interpreters could be compared, the interpreting from and into mother tongue could be produced; similar research could be carried out taking into consideration simultaneous interpreting.

SUMMARY

Reflektyvioji lingvistinių ir ne lingvistinių nuosekliojo vertimo žodžiu strategijų analizė: sociolingvistinis tyrimas

Glaudus tarptautinis ir tarpkultūrinis šalių bendravimas sukuria palankias sąlygas teikti vertimo žodžiu paslaugas. Nuoseklusis vertimas neužleidžia savo pozicijų sinchroniniam vertimui ir vis dar yra plačiai naudojamas. Pamažu pasigirsta nuomonių, kad svarbi vertimo žodžiu dalis yra savirefleksijos procesas, įgalinantis vertėją atkurti, apmąstyti ir įvertinti atliktą darbą, įžvelgti savo silpnąsias bei stipriąsias puses bei kito vertimo proceso metu išvengti klaidų bei nuolat tobulėti.

Šio darbo tikslas – ištirti vertėjo žodžiu savirefleksijos procesą ir rezultatą, identifikuojantį lingvistines ir ne lingvistines nuosekliojo vertimo žodžiu strategijas.

Mokslinio darbo pirmoje dalyje pateikiama teorinė medžiaga apie sukurtus nuosekliojo vertimo žodžiu proceso modelius bei teorijas, apie nuosekliojo vertimo ypatybes, mąstymo procesus, jau minėtą savirefleksijos procesą. Pristatomos strategijų klasifikacijos bei jų samprata nuosekliojo vertimo žodžiu procese.

Antroje darbo dalyje aprašoma fenomenografinio tyrimo eiga ir analizuojami rezultatai. Analizės metu išaiškėjo, kad vertimo studentų mąstymas nukreiptas ne tik į strategijas bet ir į žinias/gebėjimus, klaidas/jų priežastis bei savianalizę. Dažniausiai naudotos kompensacinės strategijos, iš kurių - praleidimo strategija sudaro 34 % ir perifrazė - 28 %. Ne lingvistinės strategijos tik akompanuoja lingvistinėms strategijoms.

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