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Teaching Translation vs. Training Translators

Proceedings of the Translation and Interpreting Forum Olomouc

OLOMOUC MODERN LANGUAGE SERIES VOL. 8

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Palacký University
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Teaching Translation vs. Training Translators

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Edited by Michal Kubánek, Ondřej Klabal, Ondřej Molnár

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Editors' Note

Michal Kubánek, Ondřej Klabal, Ondřej Molnár

The fifth *Translation and Interpreting Forum Olomouc* (TIFO) organised by the Translation and Interpreting Section of the Department of English and American Studies of Palacký University Olomouc, Czech Republic took place on 15–16 November 2019. The conference returned not only to the organisers' newly renovated historical premises at the Faculty of Arts, but also turned back to the first TIFO topic of translation pedagogy, this time under the slightly provoking title "Teaching Translation vs. Training Translators". As a fundamental component of its DNA, the idea of TIFO is to bring together all players in the field of cross-language communication including academics (researchers, teachers and students), professional translators and interpreters, language service providers, trade organisations and professional institutions. The diversity of views was mirrored in the two keynote speeches by *Luc van Doorslaer* (University of Tartu, KU Leuven), a distinguished scholar and the Vice President of the European Society for Translation Studies, and Chris Durban, a "high-end market" freelance translator specialising in finance, business and crisis communications. The traditional, and at the same time unique, discussion panel broadened the scope of interests even further. In addition to the keynote speakers, it featured David Mraček, a professional translator / translator and interpreter trainer, Jana Rejšková, a conference interpreter / interpreter trainer, Martin Svoboda, a professional translator / editor and Martin Štulík, a professional translator / founding partner of a translation company. A range of topics were also covered in around 40 presentations followed by lively discussions.

Translation pedagogy inevitably needs to deal with issues such as balancing the amount of theory and practice in the curriculum in general and the space devoted to the acquisition of individual translation and interpreting competences. There is also a call for reflecting on the market needs with concepts such as fitness for the market, translating into L2, the changing role of the interpreter, or technologies in the classroom and in the field. It should also be noted that obtaining a university degree does not mean the end of one's education, but the beginning of continuous professional development with its own topics and concerns.

The present volume offers a peer-reviewed selection of papers dealing with some of these topics. It opens with some thought-provoking notes by Chris Durban on the positioning of a translator on the market mainly with respect to the charged rates, provided

quality and client relationship. Based on his teaching experience, Patrick Williamson presents methods which help students acquire key translation competences and build self-confidence. Still within the field of translation competences, Viktoriya Petrova identifies the crucial ones with respect to the use of modern translation technologies to succeed on the market. Focusing on legal translation, Ondřej Klabal introduces comparative conceptual analysis as a tool for establishing conceptual equivalence and offers a set of exercises that help students master the most problematic elements of this method. Filip Krajník, Anna Mikyšková, and Pavel Drábek present a project to raise a new generation of translators for the theatre highlighting close cooperation between translators and theatre practitioners and combining the cultural and market aspects of translating. The final part of the volume consists of papers dealing with interpreting. Hana Pavlisová maps the approaches and methods used by interpreter trainers in the Czech Republic. Michal Homola and Ján Tupý examine the influence of the written text on the quality of simultaneous interpreting and present a set of exercises to master this skill. Based on his survey among asylum officers, Anastasios Ioannidis identifies their needs so that the training can be adjusted to prepare future interpreters sufficiently for work in this field.

As part of the *Olomouc Modern Language Series* (OMLS), it follows the recommendations of the Chicago Manual of Style author-date system for documentation and citation of sources, and is available in printed as well as online versions. The editors believe that the volume may help map out current trends in the training of translators and interpreters. Linking theory and practice as the general feature, the individual papers offer a range of approaches and teaching methods with some of them even containing specific exercises ready for the classroom. This makes the volume especially beneficial for translation and interpreting trainers and their students regardless of the language combination, but also for researchers in translation pedagogy.

Translation

Translation, Time, Technology —Who's Counting?

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Translators tend to be word people, not numbers people. It's understandable, but it works against us in situations like pricing and negotiations, where linguist discomfort is often palpable. Weak numeracy also means translators can be all too easily manipulated by other industry players, many of whom have their own agenda.

I'm no conspiracist, but do have some numbers I'd like to share. Specifically, I want to look at how pricing, quality and client priorities fit together at the premium end of the market, and offer a take on "the future of translation" that may be of interest to (1) academics seeking roadmaps for talented students; (2) those students; and (3) professional translators concerned about making a living in the years ahead.[1]

1. Money, Money, Money

"How much should I charge?" is far and away the most common question I get from translators and students in my travels and presentations. Translator forums regularly spend days and weeks discussing rates, often bemoaning price pressures and unreasonable client demands. And while some participants there seem confident (even aggressively confident), it's not clear to me whether claims in what I call TranslatorLand accurately

1 Discussions of "translation quality" without examples quickly slide into feel-good territory and empty claims. For that reason, the appendix includes a sampler of translations typical of the technical and commercial documents that many professional translators deal with daily. If you're a word person, by all means study the translations and compare the levels of quality. But please also put on your numbers hat and review the figures at the bottom of each column.

reflect what happens when they are dealing with real clients. (I suspect many of them cave.)

More broadly, the overwhelming impression I get is that many translators (and academics) view money as somehow vulgar or shameful. Beneath us. We're intellectuals, after all, not (shudder) common, clamoring merchants; there is nobility and purity in our refusal to talk money, and accept our lot with dignity.

Alas, when innumerate translators lack explicit information about prices, they can end up combining unfounded assumptions with skewed data from industry-players-with-an-agenda to adopt pricing strategies that disserve them—and customers.

2. High(er) Prices are Good

It will not surprise you to learn my own position, which is that high(er) prices are good. I prefer them for many reasons: the more you're paid, the more seriously clients take you. They listen to your advice; they appreciate your input. You have time to do critical research and can deliver better quality work. The texts you receive to translate have generally been vetted more thoroughly, for that matter. That's all far less likely if you're earning babysitter/dogwalker wages and working in the translation equivalent of a hamster wheel.

What some translators ignore, too, is that low rates lack credibility at the high end of the market, where clients are more risk conscious than price conscious. I'll repeat that: when you charge too little, you may be unwittingly erecting a barrier between yourself and genuinely attractive clients.

All of which means that a more useful question than "How much should I charge?" is "How much *can* I charge?" Again, I've seen many translators base their quotes on a perceived "going rate" that is, in fact, well below what good clients are prepared to pay, and do so out of genuine ignorance—including scant awareness of what good clients want in terms of quality. Operating in their TranslatorLand bubble, such translators erroneously view translation agency rates as a ceiling.

3. Diversity Reigns

The key point here is that there is not a single translation market, rather a multitude of different segments, some far more attractive than others. That's easy to forget, especially when you're starting out; after all, you do see a wide variety of earnest "universal statements," e. g.:

- *"Never, never, never give in to the temptation to improve the original. If the original is vague or clumsy or just plain wrong, then a good translation will faithfully reflect*

the flaws. After all, that was how the original author wrote it." This is from a court translator; it holds true for his micro-segment, but would be professional suicide in many others.

- *"The future is for wholesalers; even retailers, at least the smaller ones, will be expunged from the market or marginalized since customers are now irreversibly accustomed to choose one-stop shops that can meet all their needs."* This is from a translation consultant to buyers of bulk translation; it reflects striking confidence in the reality of his world—and ignorance of the universe beyond.

4. Good Clients, Bad Clients

I thought of those bold but very partial statements when I read a young translator's comment on social media in spring 2019:

> "After almost 4 years as a freelance translator, I've made the decision to do something else, at least for a while. […] I love translation and it makes me really sad to leave it, even if it is temporary. I've been very lucky to be able to work in what I love […]. I'm just pretty exhausted from working constantly, only to be paid late and/or have to argue every month with companies over late payment and even being called disrespectful and ungrateful for expecting prompt payment. It's affecting my health and well-being, and I've decided to put myself first and just focus on reducing stress."

A healthy dose of hard-nosed business advice on payment practices would no doubt help this young woman, but a big part of the problem lies elsewhere: clients who are this exhausting are operating in market segments that you really don't want to be in (and surely not 3–4 years in). The question is then how to leave them behind.

5. Time to Raise the Bar

In a recent discussion among translators on Twitter, a split appeared. On one side were boosters eager to raise depressed T&I practitioners' spirits with hugs and love and heart-warming expressions of mutual admiration. While generally optimistic, I take a different view: I am acutely aware of a high-end market that is crying out for talent, but to break into it we all need less gushing and happy talk. Instead, translators must take a hard look in the mirror, and make a more critical assessment of exactly what they are producing/clients are getting.

Since my own work includes revision on behalf of demanding clients, I can confirm that there is a lot of "drift" out there in TranslatorLand, from unsubstantiated claims of

expertise to complaints about customers to indignation—but often in a vacuum. And that lots of the work delivered is only marginally better than current MT.

What can we say about this example?

French original	Translator A	Translator B
Ces compétences en matière de sécurité reposent sur : notre maîtrise des différentes technologies au cœur du système ferroviaire et de leur renouvellement au fil du temps ;l'importance que nous accordons à la maîtrise des facteurs organisationnels et humains ; un management des risques fondé sur l'analyse d'évènements redoutés pour identifier les processus préventifs à mettre en place ;l'expérience issue de notre propre programme de transformation et de management de la sécurité (ARCENCIEL), qui a permis de diminuer de 30% le nombre d'évènements sécurité remarquables en l'espace de trois ans ;	These safety skills are based on: our mastery of the various technologies at the heart of the rail system and their renewal over time; the importance we attach to mastering organizational and human factors; risk management based on the analysis of feared events to identify the preventive processes to be implemented; and the experience gained from our own safety transformation and management programme (ARCENCIEL), which has made it possible to reduce the number of remarkable safety events by 30% over the past three years;	Why should you choose [Company name] for your safety needs? Because we know key rail technologies inside out, and we understand how they've evolved over time. Because we recognize that human and organizational factors are critically important. Because we study adverse events to identify where processes need to be improved to minimize safety risk. And because we practise what we preach: we've cut the number of major safety events by 30% in three years through ARCENCIEL, our in-house safety programme.
	Translator paid €0.12–0.13	*Translator paid €0.65/word*

Table 1: "Safety performance"; © C. Durban 2019

Let's note that Translator B's work (above) is by no means "transcreation"—it is an example of sound technical translation. In my appendices you'll find other such examples, including several illustrating an eerie similarity between slapdash human translation and machine output. Those translators are not in a good place; whether they will manage to find and retain clients when cheaper, faster PEMT is more widely available is an open question. For me, the answer hinges on their ability and willingness to improve existing skills enough to move up to the high end of the market.

6. Bulk > Added Value > Premium

This, then, is what I see as a critical issue: as technology improves, genuinely expert practitioners should be doing everything they can to position themselves higher up the food chain.

In other writing, I've referred to *bulk markets* (high volumes, texts with short shelf life, prices low, quality less important) where MT is already used for most work. Then comes *added value* segments, where quality is more important than in bulk, but budgets are under severe price pressure and the role of PEMT is on the rise. And finally there are *premium markets*, where deadlines can be tight but quality is key, underpinned by subject-matter expertise. Prices here are attractive, and risk—perceived or genuine—is a determining factor. As Kevin Hendzel has written, "*At the premium end of the market, the cost of failure is dramatically higher than the cost of performance."*

So that's the challenge, keeping firmly in mind that the riskier the situation/problem you're tackling, the higher your reward (intellectual satisfaction, social recognition, remuneration)—which brings us back to numbers and counting, and to the examples in my appendix.

7. The Buck Stops with You

When the translators I revise (or buy "mystery shopper" texts from) are challenged on the quality of the work they deliver, they generally respond with comments that confirm their non-engagement with the customer's real aims. They say, for example:

- "The source text was poor"
- "It's good enough; hey, they don't need Shakespeare"
- "Well, that's what the French said."
- "Well, it's better than [names notoriously incompetent/unskilled rival]"
- "Well, for what they were paying, what did they expect?"
- "I've been doing this for 18 years."

If you ever find yourself using this type of excuse in response to client criticism, you have voted yourself off Premium Market Island. Clearly we are talking about different quality bars, different engagement levels, different skills—and different prices, too. Not to mention a much greater investment in the time needed to understand, translate, fine-tune, revise and proofread.

8. Finding Good Clients

Returning, now, to the young(ish) translators in our audience—how do you avoid slithering down that slippery slope of low-risk, low-pay work? How do you identify and connect with good—even excellent—clients?

Since few translators (also: not that many agencies, and even fewer academics/ researchers) appear to venture into high-end ClientLand, I'm happy to offer some earnest suggestions based on my own experience and discussions with other practitioners (and with frustrated clients). High on my list is awareness of the difference between TranslatorLand, ClientLand and TranslatorTrainingLand, which can be bubbles unto themselves.

But even those translators who make an effort to venture out into new territory need to be aware of the differences between good clients and less desirable ones. My own experience of good clients include:

- They hang out in different places within ClientLand
- They have different priorities & concerns (including a keen awareness of risk)
- They have a different relationship with suppliers of intellectual services (mutual trust is very important)
- They tend to have higher budgets, and set a higher bar (specialization, writing, etc.)

9. What Does This Mean for Translators?

- To have any chance of connecting with good clients, you must venture out of TranslatorLand.
- You'll have to pick up good-client habits/behaviors/language; join their tribe (and leave bad-client habits & language behind).
- You'll have to learn to appreciate risk (even: embrace it, and use it in your negotiations with the customers you target).
- You need to play a long game, and reflect this in your prices. Remember, a good match means a client for a decade or more.
- You need to track client industries and players very carefully (timing, events, priorities).
- Low prices (your end) are a disqualifier, as is poor work.

Above all, high-end translation starts with "what is it for?"—what's the big picture, the little picture, the mid-focus picture. If you, as translator, don't know the explicit and implicit purpose of your text, it's up to you to find out. It's your job. And being prepared to dig in and do the work is your first step on the way to identifying and moving into the premium market.

Appendix: Sample Translations

Source text	DeepL MT	Human translator A	Human translator B
CONCEPTION DE GRAPHIQUES D'OCCUPATION DES VOIES EN PRÉ-OPÉRATIONNEL Déterminer le placement des trains dans une gare est un savoir-faire d'expert. Chaque jour, les possibilités sont immenses pour affecter l'ensemble des trains à des itinéraires de la gare. L'agent se doit aussi de considérer des contraintes d'infrastructure, d'exploitation ou d'escale. Notre solution a pour but de l'aider dans sa tâche, afin d'assurer une répartition optimale de la capacité. Notre solution est également un outil d'étude qui permet de simuler rapidement divers scénarios de travaux et d'évaluer leur impact sur la capacité en gare.	**DESIGN OF TRACK OCCUPANCY GRAPHS IN PRE-OPERATIONAL MODE** Determining the placement of trains in a station is an expert skill. Every day, the possibilities are immense to assign all trains to station routes. The agent must also consider infrastructure, operational or stopover constraints. Our solution aims to help them in their task, in order to ensure an optimal distribution of capacity. Our solution is also a study tool that allows you to quickly simulate various work scenarios and evaluate their impact on station capacity.	**DESIGN OF TRACK OCCUPATION GRAPHS AT A PRE-OPERATIONAL STAGE** Defining the positioning of trains in a station requires the know-how of an expert. Each day, the possibilities to allocate a path to each train in a station are vast. The operator must also take into account the infrastructure, operations and customer service constraints. Our solution aims at helping the scheduling experts with their tasks, in order to guarantee an optimal distribution of capacity. Our solution is also a study tool which enables a quick simulation of various work scenarios and an assessment of their impact on the station's capacity.	**FASTER, EASIER TRACK OCCUPANCY GRAPHICS WITH OpenGOV** It takes an expert to position trains in a railway station. Day after day, trains must be assigned to the station's itineraries, and the number of possible options is overwhelming—especially when existing infrastructure, operations and station dwell time are factored in. OpenGOV makes this complex job easier so you can focus on optimizing capacity. You can also use it to quickly simulate a wide range of potential works and evaluate their impact on station capacity.
	MT: free & instantaneous	*Est. €0.14/word*	*€0.60/word*

Table 2: "Technical translation"; © C. Durban 2019

Source: CSR report (excerpt)	**DeepL**	**Google Translate**	**"5 euros" website**	**Professional human translator w/reviser**
Ainsi, en prenant en compte les enjeux liés au plastique, l'entreprise offre un avantage compétitif aux marques qui déploient des modèles novateurs en matière d'emballages.	Thus, by taking into account the challenges related to plastics, the company offers a competitive advantage to brands that deploy innovative packaging models.	Thus, taking into account the issues related to plastic, the Company offers a competitive advantage to brands that deploy innovative models in packaging.	Thus, by taking into account plastic issues, the company offers a competitive advantage to brands deploying innovative packaging models.	By tackling the issue of plastic waste and pollution head-on, our company is giving those brands that adopt pioneering approaches to packaging a genuine competitive edge.
	Free, instantaneous	*Free, instantaneous*	*€5.81, 20 min. Our supplier "Cassandra" claims she used no translation tools.*	*Part of a 7,500-word job, representing approx 30 hours' work. Total budget: €4500.*

Table 3: "Plastics and pollution text"; © C. Durban 2019

Source: minutes of a meeting of urban planners	**DeepL**	**Google Translate (neural)**	**Skilled human translator**
Se pose également la question du sens de produire de l'intensité en périphérie, et de manière sous-jacente à animer l'espace public à côté d'un équipement de destination susceptible de catalyser toutes les fonctions d'animation.	There is also the question of the meaning of producing intensity in the periphery, and in an underlying way to animate public space alongside a destination equipment that can catalyse all animation functions.	There is also the question of the meaning of generating intensity in the periphery, and so underlying animate public space next destination equipment capable of catalyzing all the animation features.	Another question: does it make sense to create "intensity"—a vibrant urban area—on the outskirts of a major city? And if we go a level deeper, does it make sense to promote activity in a public space right next to a destination facility that is likely to generate its own activity?
	Free, instantaneous	*Free, instantaneous*	*€0.75/word, approx. 200 w/hour.*

Table 4: "Minutes of a meeting"; © C. Durban 2019

The Translating Facilitator: an Empowerment Approach

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Abstract: Translating and language training interlock in many ways, notably the learning pathway and communicative and task-based methods. Key aspects involve student interaction and self-enabling, and an environment to recontextualize knowledge and broaden skills. I look at creating learner empowerment so trainees obtain the agency and confidence to be fully-fledged translators rapidly. In detail, the underlying principles and conditions are required to create class cohesion and reflect learning approaches, and the means of building background knowledge: role play + blocks + scaffolds. This is followed by a review of transmission vs situated learning, via two sample lessons. The former approach has its limits: learners must not be just passive recipients of the trainer's know-how. For the latter, group work uses the abilities of its members to produce the best translation done under the circumstances and constraints. They learn other ways of thinking in a given situation; other ways of completing the task.

Keywords: Empowerment, agency, situated, training, task-based, facilitation

1. Translation Learning

Many models have been proposed to characterise the components that make up an effective training approach but, in my view, the following premise is key: "learning is a dynamic, interactive process based on learner empowerment" (Kiraly 2014, 17). There are a number of steps required to achieve this goal. These involve the application of foreign-language learning methods, which often converge with techniques used for

translating training, notably Kiraly's social constructivist approach and its associated notion of "scaffolding". These means share underlying principles in terms of facilitating, on three levels.

Firstly, the learning pathway, especially with regard to the Monitor Theory, which "hypothesizes that adults have two independent systems for developing ability in second languages, subconscious language acquisition and conscious language learning, and that these systems are interrelated in a definite way: subconscious acquisition appears to be far more important" (Krashen 1981, 1). Drawing on Boekaerts' cognitive model of language, Kiraly also explores this difference between the subconscious workspace in translating and the controlled processor centre (Kiraly 1995, 104). This is crucial for the facilitator, especially in applying communicative and task-based approaches.

Secondly, through providing the structure (building blocks, scaffolding) for trainees to explore, test and refine their skills, then to acquire confidence in their methods, ability and agency as a translator, and thus stand on their own feet. The environment and class configuration also have to be optimised so the learners can use creativity to shape compelling translations and to solve problems through divergent thinking. However, as we shall see, the facilitator has to bear in mind what Howard Gardner refers to as multiple intelligences (intrapersonal, interpersonal, kinaesthetic, etc.; Maltby et al. 2010, 300) in order to understand the students' learning abilities, and thus apply appropriate approaches to encompass the broad range of learners.

Thirdly, as qualified translators are embedded in a complex professional environment, learners must gain a "profound awareness of their responsibility as active participants in a communicative process" (Kiraly 2014, 12–13). Translators serve a key but underestimated role that can affect, via the calibre of their translation, the degree of success or risk mitigation of the translated product. The trainer has to apply principles inherent in cognitive apprenticeship which "supports learning in a domain by enabling students to acquire, develop, and use cognitive tools in authentic domain activity" (Brown et al. 1989, 13). In other words, by immersinge the learners in professional contexts so they acquire this knowledge through interplay and observation of fellow learners.

The ideas I present below are based on my own experience in teaching and practicing translation. My course does not include any decontextualized theory components, even though I engage briefly with learners on the subject of such theory, nor does it combine academic learning per se with the authentic tasks. At one point, I created a task adapted from a case study based on Vinay and Darbelnet's model (Munday 2016, 64–67), but did not use it as I felt it was too weighted to the controlled processor aspect of learning and less applicable to my environment and objectives. Overall, I apply a contextualised teaching and learning (CTL) approach in which I discuss strategies that

link foundational skills and occupational content, while "focusing teaching and learning squarely on concrete applications in a specific context that is of interest to the student" (Mazzeo 2008, 3). I might qualify the latter quote by saying that the context is not merely 'of interest', in my view, but 'essential' to the learners' potential future career path, especially in my field of financial services.

1.1 Language Teaching Methods Applicable to Translating Training

"Translation skills are related to language skills, so translation instruction stands to benefit a lot from the insights of foreign language learning and teaching" (Kiraly 1995, 20). Many of the qualities needed for a successful outcome are common to both fields and interact to create a constructive learning experience; using the target language only during the course is essential in this respect. The table below presents, in my view, some of the main language-learning methods that converge with approaches used in translating training.

Learning Methods	
• **Audio lingual and structural methods** help provide 'building blocks' of terminology.	
• **Creativity:** learner autonomy and behaviourist components essential. Establish good communication, be aware of atmosphere, and adapt material accordingly.	
• **Communicative approach:** Learn by having to communicate real meaning. Natural language acquisition strategies.	• **Task-based language teaching.** Students work together on real-world tasks. Positive in motivating student learning.
• **Action-based approach:** Communication as a social activity that allows specific tasks to be accomplished. Students are active participants in learning process. Engage learners in meaningful, challenging, communication that aims for identifiable and practical results.	

Figure 1: Overview of learning methods (author, INTESOL Teach Abroad, CEFR)

The facilitator can apply audio lingual and structural methods systematically to inform and provide the foundations learners can build on. That said, the latter have to be judicious and select the 'right' word for each context and register, and constantly reinforce their acquisition in order to iron out translation errors. The communicative approach and task-based teaching are also, in my view, keystones in translation learning. The former places the emphasis on the role played by the communicative notion of

language function and communicative competence (Bnini 2016, 87) as translation is a matter of mediation and must be viewed as such. The latter because "students should acquire translation skills whenever possible by using them in situations that simulate real translation contexts" (Kiraly 1995, 34) under professional conditions: peer correction, time and formatting constraints, and the like. Moreover, as Gideon Toury stated back in 1984: "the greater the variety of situations a translator is put into, the greater the range and flexibility of his ability to perform" (Pym et al. 2008, 305). The action-based approach encapsulates this approach. Learners are social actors who must perform certain tasks "in a given context and environment, within a particular field of action" (Council of Europe 2001, 15). A Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press., 15), and development of autonomy is governed by learner involvement, reflection, and appropriate target language use (Little 2006).

2. Applied Translating Facilitation

I will initially provide some background. I teach translation of financial and economic texts from French to English for year 2 of a master's in translation. The students are a mix of bilingual French mother tongue speakers and native English-language speakers who live in France, hence there is some linguistic interference. The majority of the learners have a three-language combination. Teaching the building blocks of terminology and giving an overview of financial markets and the business world establishes the initial rapport with the learners. The students' cultural, personal and professional experience must be acknowledged and brought to bear in the learning approach, as does their own knowledge, which I recontextualise so they acquire confidence in their ability.

Each trainer at ESIT is free to design the course as he or she sees fit. The learners themselves are grounded in the Interpretive Theory of Translation (ITT) approach and introduced to Skopos theory, but I do not present any decontextualized theoretical aspects. My personal goal for the course is to help the students move along the road toward empowerment, as translation learners initially, then as nascent translation professionals. I share and try to instil my knowledge of the profession, while providing guidance to assist the learners in their understanding of the translator's tasks, and exploring translation strategies for given texts. My approach evolves as a function of the interaction that takes place within the class.

	Class A	Class B
Time of class	17:15 to 18:45	19:00 to 20:30
No. of students	20	6
Female/male	15 women/5 men	3 women/3 men
Proficiency in target language	15 French mother tongue Four English native speakers	Five French mother tongue One English native speaker
Other languages	Italian (4), Spanish (7), German (2)	Spanish (1), German (4)
Learners' approach	Lively and interactive	Studious, intrapersonal dominant

Table 1: Key data on the sample classes (author)

2.1 The Environment

The facilitator's line of attack to building the environment, and hence empowerment, can best be illustrated as follows. Let's first divide the class up into two 'umbrella' learning approach groups, namely those who are:

1) Lively and interactive. Learners with an audio-visual and kinaesthetic approach, and open to social interaction. Creativity seems the path to take, but this requires structure.
2) Quieter, less responsive, intrapersonal dominant. The prescriptive approach appears to have more effect, but the learners also need the leeway to express their agency.

These ancillary factors have to be taken into account regarding the approach to take:

1) The configuration of the class: the students select their seats as they wish and when they arrive. However, the placing of medium-level interactors; strong self-enabled learners and low-level interactors plays a major role in how well the trainer can empower the students by using the more self-enabled, who often sit at the front, to increase interaction from less confident students, lead discussion and govern relations within groups.
2) The time of the class: the earlier the class, the more open the students and trainer are to interactive approaches. The later the class, the more responsive both parties are to in-depth explanatory tasks.

3) The professional/personal culture and knowledge learners bring to the class. The more inherent knowledge they have, the stronger their agency or perceived agency, or to put it another way the more they are empowered to challenge, rightly or wrongly, the trainer.
4) The proportion (in my case) of target-language learners compared to source-language speakers. A high proportion of the former could make the latter too self-conscious to contribute, or merely monopolise the time.

2.2 The Knowledge

My lesson plan design draws on language-teaching techniques and a building block approach, to provide learners with background and cornerstones for the subject in question. Key techniques used at the outset involve discussion around a Wordle to present the crucial aspects of translation, and creating role play situations with the students (open class) where we build the fictional case of a business they can relate their knowledge to (e.g. selling a can of coke) and in which they can invest and then buy and sell said shares (the notion of the stock market). These are concepts that involve their own experiences and actions in relation to others. "By picking up learners' ideas, recontextualizing them, and reinserting them into the classroom discourse, teachers can provide students with valuable alternative perspectives on knowledge they already had" (Kiraly 2014, 39). In this way they discover they do know about the simple mechanics of business and finance, and acquire a layer of confidence in approaching what may appear a daunting subject.

In summary, I create a basis for their learning, i.e., "substantial support for knowledge construction early in the course", including ways to assimilate the structural and creative skills required, and "gradually relinquish control over the learning environment to the students themselves" (Kiraly 2014, 68). I reduce the trainer focus and increase student-to-student work as the course progresses, so the learners become more self-enabled. In other words, there is a move from transmission to situated work. I provide a more minimal structure later on while encouraging learners to build their own viable interpretations, in a framework characterized by spontaneity and constant reinforcement so they do not lose sight of the key aspects of high-quality translation.

3. Comparison of Two Approaches

3.1 The Transmission Approach: The Financial Markets Text

This class follows the rationale in which the trainer stands at the front of the class and faces rows of students "distributing knowledge and eliciting displays of knowledge and knowledge gaps from the students. The students attempt to discover and reproduce the correct solutions as defined by the teacher" (Kiraly 2014, 52). My example lesson

consists of teacher-oriented full-class work with student participation. I start by introducing the main objective with regard to translation errors by means of a Dante quote. "Midway this life we are bound upon, I entered a dark wood…" The point I want to get across is the positioning of adverbs and adverb phrases (manner, place, time, etc.), which is crucial to reformulation and clarity in translation.

This prompts a form of cooperative argumentative dialogue between trainer and learners to stimulate critical thinking and to draw out ideas. The existing concepts may be expounded, modified or recast with a series of target texts. It often moves into territory for which I am not completely prepared, and learners contribute knowledge that gives me and the class a different viewpoint. I guide the discussion towards learning conclusions, by setting out or eliciting multiple perspectives, for which there may be a uniform set of answers depending on the register and purpose of the text. This may be counter-productive if the class is slow to interact, or lacks knowledge. But the more learners there are with a strong level of prior knowledge, which provides a sound foundation for working on the problem areas raised, the more class participation increases and acquisition is facilitated. I proceed in a similar fashion for other points, with trainer-centred board work, then hand back the corrected translations (one-to-one focus, but expounding aloud on other points so the class benefits), and encourage the learners to cast a critical eye on a model target text, so they see how their work compares, and if the model could be improved or contains mistakes. Trainees should reflect on the material and not merely be passive recipients of the trainer's knowledge, be it advice on translating, subject competence, or grammatical expertise.

There is a strong tendency to control the learning process but this does provide a start to demonstrating to trainees that their agency in the translating process and their sense of responsibility toward their own learning and their future profession is of vital importance. By this I mean acquiring the foundational skills of a translator, in the former case, and the knowledge that the translator plays a key role in terms of the value added they provide for the author and client, in the latter. The lesson could also involve a collaborative pair work exercise where learners exchange ideas on potential translation problems and solutions, then present their results to the class for input and discussion. However, the range of such learning activities is limited and the lack of real-life situations in which learners can apply knowledge becomes a handicap: learners may become inactive and feel disenfranchised. The facilitator needs to focus on the fact that "learning is a personal but social process that results when individuals cooperate to construct shared understandings and knowledge" (Johnson et al. 1991, 11). Such a constructivist approach is a step towards empowerment.

3.2 Situated Learning: Under Pressure

> True collaboration in the classroom does not mean having learners do translations individually in the company of peers. It means sharing responsibility for empowering the entire group as emergent professionals. […]. Interdependence fosters and teaches responsibility, while individual accountability ensures that each student is contributing to the common goals of the group as well as acquiring the necessary social and translational skills to work professionally upon completing the programme. (Kiraly 2014, 67)

The situation is as follows

You are a team of translators and you are asked at 8 am to translate a one-page comment (614 words), for the 'morning fax'. The text is given in a French template and has to be transferred to an English template, which is blank bar some tables and three section headings (The facts, Our analysis, Conclusion & Action). The text consists of ten short paragraphs.

The task is to translate the French text and insert the English translation into the blank document, then publish it electronically using a proprietary system. **The document cannot be published if it exceeds one page.**

The normal practice for the team, given that as many comments as possible have to be translated within an hour (9 am deadline), is to divide the text up into fairly equal sections then one person (akin to a project manager) reassembles it, sends it to the author for a check, and simultaneously publishes it. You need a computer, access to Wi-Fi, and scissors.

Figure 2: Instructions for the situated learning task (author).

I employed the following approach for Class A, which worked effectively. However, as we shall see this had to be adapted for Class B, in view of their inherent dynamic as a single group of five.

The first step was to give the instructions and allow time for the physical arrangement of the class to be set up. In this case, they reorganised themselves to form three groups of five, and place the desks in a rectangular shape. They then selected a project manager, to collate the translated segments in the master document later on, and divided up and allocated the text. I set the deadline to put the text together at 18:20 (class ends 18:45).

I then moved from group to group round the classroom, assisting them in the completion of the exercise. I employed the scaffolding technique, to a certain extent, by responding to requests for help regarding completion of the task, and supporting the progress made. As a trainer, I had to recognize a path that was forming well and either

spontaneously coach, by providing snippets of information to help the group overcome particular problems, or step back and allow the process to continue and develop. Observation is key. I noted considerable creativity being employed in each group, and some of the solutions were commensurate to achieving the desired result. The 'Project managers', who were all native English speakers, played an important role by helping direct the French speakers and checking both the translation and completion of the task. My guidance and hands-off approach led the students to act autonomously and bring their combined skills and knowledge into play. In this way, the learners explored and built viable solutions of their own and as a team. The production for each group also depended on its composition, however, as the table below shows.

Class A: groups 1, 2 and 3
One (1m/4f): Encouragement was needed, apparently self-sufficient but less work harmonizing, and less interaction. The man on the team was distracted by terminology questions, and the project manager took less of a lead. Configuration played a part: this group, unlike the other two, was not arranged comfortably around a table with the PM at the end, so communication was more difficult. **Result: the text seemed to fit on the page and read well, BUT one section was missing.**
Two (4m/1f): Structure was needed, a brainstorming approach took hold. The project manager had to take control, as he acknowledged in the debrief session. The learners were very reliant on the trainer for support, but lacked application to focus on improving the quality of the translation. The male learners tended to work individually rather than ensure the group acted as a team, while the task required that they all work closely together. **Result: avoidable errors were introduced and unneeded information was included, so the text occupied too much space on the page, reducing clarity and readability; no effort made to make the text more concise.**
Three (5f): Teamwork was key. The project manager was in control. They asked the trainer pertinent questions, ranging from terminology to techniques to be able to apply to fulfil the task (how to reduce the text, allowed to reduce font size, cut lines?). The trainer was consulted less. **Result: the translation was fair, the text fit on the page well, but some avoidable errors were introduced.**

As in a professional context, each group carried out last-minute finetuning as they completed the task and tension built before the deadline. The text was sent with seconds to spare. I had to wait until the next session to ask each group about the challenges faced and resolved, answer questions and seize upon the learners' insightful contributions.

The approach taken by class B, and hence the trainer, was very different. This group was reserved, studious, and all worked silently on the whole. The project manager was

French mother tongue but the native English speaker in the group led any conversation with questions. It soon became apparent that no trainer intervention was needed, nor requested. This was despite the trainer initially prompting and applying the approach used for the other groups.

Class B: group 4

Group 4 (3m/3f): These learners were very self-enabled, with some of the men taking a very methodical approach, while the project manager (a woman) showed leadership and organisation skills, empowering the group from the top. They worked closely together on harmonising the vocabulary and resolving the space constraint. In summary: concentration, application and listening were key factors in successfully completing the task. The trainer's role was one of observation.

The group worked out its own process dynamic:

(a) it splintered into sub-groups,
(b) exchanged the full UK text then commented to the PM,
(c) decided this was inefficient and grouped round behind PM,
(d) double checked key info before sending, and
(e) aware of time pressure, the PM wrapped up the task.

Result: Worthy of a translation produced in a professional context and under its constraints. It fit on the page well and the individual translated sections were seamless. Fairly concise text, but fine-tuning needed. Quality can always be improved via constant attention.

The debrief session focused on four points:

1) The native English speaker's role in directing French speaking learners was crucial to getting the job done on time;
2) The deadline made the exercise more pertinent, and working together was rewarding, as each person was able to contribute to helping the others complete the task.
3) They lacked background knowledge so decided to do a translation that followed the source text closely, with a focus on key information rather than style.
4) Correction and checking: which method is best to use? Individual input in a document in Google drive would lead to too many corrections/double-correcting; track changes/comments would be time consuming, especially to get rid of them; not enough time to reread on paper. They thought the best solution was for one person to take on the role of checker with input from the others. The latter is the method I employ in such a context professionally.

The trainer had to provide more support via the project managers for the first three groups to help them complete the activity more confidently, and to channel their interaction. Conversely, s/he had to take an observation approach for the fourth group in order to allow them to work through and build their own solution together and intuitively.

4. Conclusions

Each group used the abilities and knowledge of its members to produce the best translation, as well as to format and produce the finished text, under the circumstances and constraints. This involved learning other ways of completing a given real-life task, via situational practice with the suggestions from within the group, plus guidance from the trainer at times. Observation and attention play a key role. The trainees also had to learn that quality is very important in financial services translation. Several control levels are needed to ensure high-calibre work in terms of numbers, clear writing and the finished product, so the reader can glean information reliably. This was achieved by enabling them to apply the principles in an authentic domain, where their skills are peer-checked and fine-tuned by collaborative work. Placing learners in such a professional situation frees them from the overreaching trainer centre, and allows them 'free' rein to build their agency. They thus understood that their own insights and solutions can be at least as viable as the trainer's.

Factors inherent to each individual and group also determined, however, the outcome: class configuration, learning abilities, and directionality notably. Strong bilingual and native speakers were the most self-enabled but tended to take too much risk, leading to high error gravity; weaker bilingual learners required increased monitoring from the project managers but the result was good. Intrapersonal learners were able to carry out the task more consistently than those more attuned to a creative learning facilitation approach. Constructive discussion between the trainer and learners enabled the latter to increase their confidence. Informing about and empowering the processes that support translation production clearly helps improve translator agency and accountability. In conclusion, "The interplay between observation, scaffolding, and increasingly independent practice aids apprentices both in developing self-monitoring and correction skills and in integrating the skills and conceptual knowledge needed to advance toward expertise" (Collins et al. 1989, 456).

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Knowledge and Skills Required of a Translator in the Context of Current Technological Advancement

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Abstract: This paper provides a general overview of what technological knowledge and skills are required for someone to become a professional translator. In the first section, the evolution of the role of the translator is examined. The second section examines the competences that international standards set for the industry. The third and fourth sections list the skills required for CAT tools and machine translation post-editing. In the fifth section, examples of quality assessment programmes and the way translators are expected to work with them are given. In the sixth section, practical examples of clients' tasks are given and the last section shows how technology influences higher education. The result of this research shows that for the industry, at least at present, the client is the most important figure. Simultaneously, in addition to language proficiency, translators have to be familiar with CAT technologies, quality assessment tools, machine translation post-editing (MTPE), and always follow technological progress in their area if they want to remain competitive.

Keywords: Translator, Technological Knowledge, Linguist, MT, Post-editing.

1. Introduction

In recent decades the amount of research on translator competences and skills has grown considerably. The main components of those competences have been established due to the adoption of international standards, research at the academic level and the market's

demands. There are many approaches to this topic. Some researchers only list what they consider to be the main constituent competences (Esfandiari et al. 2017), while others try to establish all the components in extensive lists of skills (Bell 1991; Plaza-Lara 2016). Geographical, political, socio-economic and linguistic factors are also to be evaluated because they influence the working capacities of professionals. In fact, despite the fact that globalisation and technological advancement allowed for the removal of geographic limitations, the translation market has developed differently in various countries. A few examples can serve as illustration: the different challenges that the SEA countries face compared to the EMEA countries, where professional linguists are usually recent graduates and it is hard to persuade them that translation can be a career. It is difficult to find people outside of SEA who speak SEA languages, as observed for example by Kirill Soloviev, the co-founder and CEO of an Estonian tech start-up specialised in localization processes. Professional translators in Cameroon are experienced, but the majority of them (88.90%) lack creative writing and research traditions. The result is little information flow between professionals in the field and training institutions (Sakwe 2015). According to a study from 2016, specialised translators, such as legal translators, have traditionally been in a subservient position that has led to a poor self-concept and a lack of respect for the profession in general, despite the fact that the superficial similarity of administrative documents disguises completely different ways of conceiving society and different degrees of importance given to the information contained in them (Way 2016, 1011). There are also the heterogeneous market's impositions and what translation agencies require from future in house translators or freelancers. The clients come before the agencies or LSPs. In the complex and multilevel situation described above, this paper wants to verify if the role of the "translator" continues to evolve and what technologies translators need to acquire if they want to be competitive.

2. From "Translator" to "Linguist" and Further

Both academics and participants from the translation industry concur that the role of the translator has been evolving in the last two decades. A variety of materials on the Internet list what they consider to be mandatory skills for a translator.

Solid language skills, experience and specialization are universally accepted as indispensable with the combination of marketing/business skills and certification.[1] What

1 Several randomly chosen example articles are: Meredith Kreisa, n.d., "How to Become a Translator: 7 Steps to Your Dream Job," FluentU, accessed March 28, 2021, https://www.fluentu.com/blog/how-to-become-a-translator/; Becky Pearse, 2019, "What It Takes to Become a Translator," Smartcat, https://www.smartcat.ai/blog/what-it-takes-to-become-a-translator/; Hiram, 2008, "5 Steps to Becoming a Professional Translator," Alta, https://www.altalang.com/beyond-words/5-

all those have in common is that they show the evolution of the role of what we traditionally perceive as a "translator", and what it has become. It is not enough to have excellent knowledge of the target language. The academic world confirms it:

> "According to The Oxford English Dictionary (2007), a translator is "one who translates or renders from one language into another." However, in real life, people involved in translation work may not have the job title of translator. They may be called communication officers, editors or sometimes secretaries, personal assistants, etc. Conversely, translators may be asked to work on transcription, editing, terminology management, rewriting, and desktop publishing. Because translators have to play so many roles in a language service market, it is perhaps not surprising to find that the translation market is heterogeneous and highly fragmented." (Sakwe 2015)

In his manual for new translators, Daniel Gouadec (2007, 120) mentions that: "The new translator must in fact be ready [...to become] an information management expert, technician, terminologist, phraseologist, translator, adapter, proof-reader, reviser, quality control expert, post-editor, editor, graphic design expert and Web designer, technical writer, Web site designer, Web page integrator, file manager, macro-command writer and in some cases IT specialist, all rolled into one." Margherita Ulrych (2005, 21), a few years before him, is also of the same opinion: "(...) evidence from the working world indicates that professional translating entails multiple forms of communication once considered as lying on the periphery of what was considered 'translation proper': activities such as technical writing, editing, language consultancy and screen translation, for instance, are becoming core components of a translator's day-to-day practice." Those findings continue to be valid in more recent years (Sin-wai 2015, 45; Kelly and Martin 2020, 593) and are defined as "sub-skills" (Coban 2015, 708).

The evolution of the role is also proven in day-to-day work and from the variety of tasks that clients require. Examples of such tasks are listed later in this paper. In fact, the author of this paper has observed that, while the clients send their instructions for the "translator", internally the LSP refers to their freelancers as "linguists". There are also "Translators-revisers", "Language specialists", "Communication officers", "Language Managers", "Localization Managers" and others. Whatever the role or job title, a constant is that it is related somehow to technology. In fact, in recent years all trend

steps-to-becoming-a-translator/; "How to Become a Translator," 2019, wikiHow, last updated October 8, 2019, https://www.wikihow.com/Become-a-Translator.

predictions about the year to come for the translation industry revolve around phenomena related exclusively to technology (AI, MTPE, video translations, subtitling, etc.).[2]

3. International Standards

International standards are very important for the translation industry because they are its main regulators:

- EN 15038: on the first level this standard defines the translation process where quality is guaranteed not only by the translation itself (it is just one phase of the entire process), but by the fact of the translation text being reviewed by a person other than the translator. On a second level, this standard specifies the professional competences of each of the participants in the translation process. It has been withdrawn.
- ISO 17100: defines the translation process where a translator reviews their own work, the reviewer "examines the translation for its suitability for the agreed purpose".
- ISO 9000: defines the necessary procedures and practices for organisations to be more efficient and improve customer satisfaction. Later becomes ISO 9001:2015.
- LISA QA: defines the quality process by using the reviewer's feedback on the quality of the translation. It has been withdrawn.
- SAE J2450: defines quality assessment procedures of automotive service translations.

The adoption of those standards raises the industry's profile and contributes to the professionalization of the translator and the reviser (EN 15083 establishes an independent third-party revision as an obligatory component of the translation process) (Biel 2011, 61). For translators, this results in the "four-eyes principle" (a cross-check principle – translators become reviewers). A real-life example is discussed in Section 6. The result is the introduction of domain competences: actors in the translation process not only have mere linguistic and grammatical skills, but also have to be able to adapt to the domain style and address the audience appropriately (Carsten Mende – RWS[3] 2016).

2 It is enough to take a look at the major translation blogs in the last 5 years.

3 RWS is the fifth largest language service provider according to the 2020 CSA Research's Global Market Study (CSA Research 2021). See also RWS, n.d., accessed March 28, 2021, https://www.rws.com/.

4. CAT Tools

The basic indispensable instruments for today's translator's work are Computer Aided Translation (CAT) tools. Their use has become mandatory, to such a great degree that translators who are not keen to adapt and refuse to work with them, are often not considered for an assignment. As proof, it is sufficient just to examine open positions for translators. There are many CAT tools in today's translation market. In a number of surveys and questionnaires,[4] professional translators reply that they use on average 3 different CAT tools in their day-to-day work. What is essential for CAT are the Translation memory and the Term base. Translators have to follow the translation memory and term base they have been given. The help tool that deserves most attention for the purpose of this paper is the term base, but according to a study from SDL from 2016, the main reason for reworking a project is because of unfollowed terminology. From the author's experience, it is clearly stated in many clients' instructions that not following terminology or TM will result in a penalty being applied to the agreed price. Partly related to the unfollowed terminology are also the so-called "DNTs or "Do Not Translate lists" – a series of key terms that have to remain in the source language. Those lists sometimes contain brand names that are already present in the target language, while on other occasions it is about concepts that have an equivalent translation. An often-seen scenario is when a client has their own terminology, but the translator disagrees with it. This becomes a conflict situation. On the one hand, the translator knows the local linguistic norms and argues that the term they are required to use is wrong, but, on the other hand, the client sends specific instructions to follow their terminology. It may also be that a translator has not been provided with a term base or a TM. In such cases, they have to rely on themselves and be able to make effective use of search engines, corpus-based tools and text analysis tools.

The need to work with CAT tools forces translators to learn to work with them and learn how to work with as many as possible. Many companies also offer translators the opportunity to become certified in their software. This is considered another way to rise above the competition. "The basic point is that 'technology' is no longer just another add-on component. The active and intelligent use of Translation Memories (TM) and Machine Translation (MT) should eventually bring significant changes to the nature and balance of all other components, and thus to the professional profile of the person we are still calling a translator" (Pym 2013, 491).

4 Such examples are the annual surveys of Proz.com (Tabor 2019), the biggest network for translators, or the annual surveys of the European Union of Associations of Translation Companies (EUATC 2020).

5. Machine Translation and Post-editing

"In a forty-year period, it took only two to three years for Neural Machine Translation (NMT) to take our world by storm." Those words belong to the TAUS director Jeep van der Meer. They were part of his speech at the opening of the TAUS Asia Conference in October 2019. They clearly show how unexpected the impact of this new technology was.

The value of business content has a very short shelf-life and thus traditional TEP (translate-edit-proof) approaches are increasingly questioned for having little or no value after six months. Companies are under continuous pressure to translate more content with the same budgets, and thus they seek out agencies who understand how to do this with a rapid turnaround. MT becomes imperative for them in order to be able to obtain some basic understanding of existing web content.

> "When making judgements about MT, translators (professional and amateur) should also be aware that it comes in two varieties: free online MT (Google Translate and Microsoft Bing Translator being the best known), and customised in-domain MT. The latter is typically a statistical machine translation (SMT) engine that has been loaded and optimised with custom data sets taken from the same domain as the source text." (Garcia 2015, 2)

The universal availability of "free MT" has also raised acceptance of MT in executive management circles. Despite the fact that it will not replace human translators, Machine Translation is considered acceptable when someone is interested only in a superficial level of accuracy. Thanks to these technological advancements, some companies are changing their workflows by creating their own machine translation engines. They then send the output to a proof-reader. Such examples are Slate, Lilt, Let'sMT!, etc. The task of proofreading a machine translated text is called "post-editing" and is paid on average 10–20% less that what would be the standard translation rate.[5] These are also some of the reasons why a Project Manager experiences difficulties in assigning such tasks.

Whether we agree or not with it, MT is already part of the work process, which is why new skills are necessary for work with its output. For these skills, some specialists suggest the introduction of specialised courses at university level (O'Brien et al. 2017). Essential for a good machine-translation post-editor are the following skills:

- Understanding the different kinds of MT systems (because of the specific output of the MT);

5 The percentage differs according to the various language service providers.

- Providing articulate linguistic feedback on MT output
- Understanding the error patterns.

This ability to assess the quality of MT output is also beneficial to a freelancer who is trying to decide whether to work on a MTPE project or not.

- Skills for new kinds of tools that are valuable with corpus level tasks.
- The ability to deal with much larger volumes of data and data preparation and global pattern modification skills becomes much more useful and valuable;
- Providing pattern level feedback and developing rapid error pattern identification and correction;
- Being able to devise a rapidly implementable test and evaluation routines that are useful and effective.
- This is a fundamental change of mental perspective.
- In addition to all the above, it is also indispensable to have excellent linguistic competences.

Despite the fact that this is one of the newest profiles for a translator, there are already voices that state that it will quickly disappear because of the evolution of technology. Jaap van der Meer, founder of TAUS, the largest language data network is of a similar opinion. In his speech given during the TAUS Asia Conference 2019 in Singapore, van der Meer stated: "The Modern Translation Pipeline is autonomous, self-driving and largely invisible. The jobs of project managers, vendor or resource managers, quality managers, and other familiar titles are set to disappear or change dramatically. What we will need are data analysts and engineers. It is time to drop the title of 'Post-editor' and modify our ideas about crucial human functions in the Modern Translation Pipeline. Today's translators can choose to be tomorrow's Transcreators or Reviewers, the first working on high-quality content translation, the second on tuning the tone, style, terminology, and locale of intelligent content." "Machine translation has consumed some of the pie that has hitherto nourished professional translators, but has also opened new opportunities" (Garcia 2015, 2).

6. Quality Assessment (QA)

Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) in professional translation is a long-debated issue, partly, due to the wide range of possible approaches. Some companies rely on qualitative feedback from their best translators, other prefer automated computer programmes, such as the ones listed below. From a textual perspective, the quality notion must be defined as

a notion of relative (and not absolute) adequacy with respect to a framework previously agreed on by the parties at stake (petitioner and translator). (Martínez Mateo 2016). Its significance was once again confirmed during the 2019 TAUS Asia Conference, where Kirill Soloviev observed: "It is widely discussed in the industry that translation quality can be up to six times more important than other factors in language services."

As the need to deliver the translation as quickly as possible has grown, so has the need to verify its quality. Language Service Providers have standardised processes, but there are still differences from client to client and from project to project. On some occasions, the QA embedded into the CAT is enough, while in others an external one is preferred. Examples of external tools are: Xbench, Verifika, LTB (Linguistic ToolBox) and QA Distiller. The advantage of QA tools is that they can work with different types of files and expedite the process by performing a check on consistency and proper use of terminology. The type of errors that they are able to detect are "errors in language register, punctuation, mistakes in numerical values and in Internet links" (Debove et al. 2012).

The QA programmes have some common features, but the most important one is that they generate a report (an excel file with a list of what, according to the software, are possible errors). These reports are structured in different ways. The LTB report, for example, has many sheets with the issues divided between them and provides information about the severity of the error and its category. Xbench follows a list-structure on a single sheet, with far less information. It was noticed on many occasions that some translators do not feel comfortable when asked to review them. Because computers are not yet able to replace humans, the disadvantages of those tools are not to be forgotten. Many of the detected issues may not be real, for example, for languages such as Swedish, Finnish and Russian, when the mandatory terminology is in the main form of the word, which creates many false positives. False-positive errors can be a difference in spacing rules from the source language to the target language, difference in length from source to target, the word forms or instructions regarding numbers. If the translator is not familiar with these cases, they may find themselves arguing why this is an issue. Some translators simply ignore the report, by saying that there are "no changes". In similar cases, project managers prefer to assign a certain task to a translator who knows how to handle the variety of QA reports. Clients with automated quality assurance processes usually specify what sort of QA report they want and from which tool. The translator selected for the task has to understand how this tool works. As concerns a post-editor, it is important to understand the different kinds of MT systems, while the same goes for the translators to understand the mechanisms behind QA tools. In this way they can use them to their advantage.

7. The Client Continues to Be the Key Figure in the Work Process

The client is the one that needs to be considered as a key figure, one who decides how, when and where their translation should be done. A company based in one country wants to sell, for example, its products in another. They have their own terminology that has been selected from the marketing team, their own way of writing addresses, numbers, etc. and they explain to the translator or the translation company how to process their texts. From one point of view, everyone has the right to ask for a specific service, but from another these requests are often in contrast with the local orthographic rules. Another issue is when there are equivalent words in the target language, but the client wants to use the English words instead, as was already mentioned in section 4. Many have recognised in this a voluntary process of language pollution with often unpredictable and undesirable consequences for minor and peripheral languages.

Not only the translation providers but also the translation buyers are experiencing a phase of turmoil in their own industries as a result of global economic changes. The goal for language service providers is always to help the client with their changing challenges. The most important topic is always technology, how it can be used to drive the cost lower while delivering good quality as fast as possible. This also contributes to the rise of MT. Clients require different prices and value-added services in different markets. Many understand the value and importance of the accessibility of their products to foreigners, as emphasised in the keynotes at the 2019 TAUS Asia Conference. One practical example is a translator who has been paid to translate subtitles for a video on YouTube. In cases where the customer has to choose which translator would be better, they will prefer someone who is not only able to transfer the information from one language to the other, but who can also insert it directly into the video. Another example from the real-world tasks is the translation of a website. The translator has been provided with credentials for the website and is expected to know how to work within it.[6] The task of "transcreating" a text is increasingly popular– "Transcreation is the process of taking the original intention of a company's marketing materials and conveying it to a new audience. Doing so involves far more than just translation. Imagery and iconography can change, as can entire blocks of copy" (Tirosh 2020). By using workflow automation and on-demand translation, clients are requiring distinguishable branded content that is not only effectively localised but can also build and customise a model that is scalable and seamlessly plugged into the backend of different departments and business units within an organisation. Clients need change at great speed. Their requirements have direct repercussions on

6 One such platform is Wordpress.

the texts that need translation and where this translation is going to happen. For translators to succeed, they have to be able to adapt at the same speed.

8. A Degree in Translation Studies

An example of an industry player who supports the theory that a degree in translation is not necessary is Unbabel, an online translation company based in San Francisco, California and in Lisbon, Portugal, founded in 2014. They are cost-effective, translations can be ready within 10 minutes (depending on the languages chosen) and with an average turnover of 24 hours. The "translators" working for the company do not need to hold a degree. They have their own tests to verify the level of knowledge. Despite its controversial policy, the company has been growing ever since its foundation. At the same time it is undeniable that possessing a degree gives prestige (Esfandiari et al. 2017) and an advantage over candidates without it. And the new requirements hinge on technologies. In fact, the newest master programmes are based on translation technology. Examples are the EMT (European Master's in Translation) and the European Master's Technology for Translation and Interpreting (EM TTI) or the MA in Multilingual Communication Technology (MATIM). They all teach CAT tools, quality assessment, webmastering (creating multilingual content on the web) or management.

There is also the matter of how to teach translation. There is a particular set of skills that students need to develop: linguistic knowledge, cultural knowledge, research techniques, translation techniques, and the professional aspects of translation, which include interpersonal skills and time management, quality assurance, project management and autonomy (Salinas 2007). "In order for someone to act as a competent translator, skills such as researching, analysis, composition, awareness of the ethics of translation, and awareness of the relationship between language and culture are required, beyond simply being able to translate a text from one language to another" (Abu-ghararah 2017, 110). Learners can improve their translation capacity through their exposure to real-world situations. Debates surround the issue of how to combine real-world teaching situations with higher-level cognitive processing, with the instructor acting as a facilitator and imparting declarative and procedural knowledge (Baer and Koby 2003).

MA programmes prepare translators for the challenges related to their future job. Usually subjects in those courses are related to translation and revision, translation studies, specialised translation (legal, economic and financial, technical, literary). They also teach translation technology, specialised multilingual communication and specialised skills usually by an internship in a LSP with whom the university has an agreement).

9. Conclusion

The chapters of this paper are an attempt to cover a complex and continuously evolving industry. There are few conclusions that can be reached. The first is about the role of the "translator", whose role has evolved to the point that the classical definition in the dictionary is no longer enough to describe their new duties and what they are expected to know. At the same time, the one common and constant factor is technology. Currently almost all aspects of our lives are influenced by it (the same goes for the national critical infrastructure of all first world countries). The translation industry is not an exception. Translation is a life-long learning activity. It is no longer enough to have an extensive knowledge of lexis, grammar, different writing styles and cultural differences related to both languages, but it is also necessary to be at least familiar with CAT tools and quality assurance processes and programmes. In today's world, this means to possess a vast knowledge about one's own language and culture, as well as about technological advancements in the industry, since the last defines whether or not translators will be chosen for work.

As stated above, the client is a key figure in the working process. What is important to them is to receive a quality translation as quickly as possible, within a low budget and in accordance with their ideas. This is why Machine translation keeps growing, as well as the need for "transcreation".

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Teaching Comparative Conceptual Analysis to Legal Translation Trainees

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Abstract: This paper discusses the role of comparative law in legal translation and its application into the legal translation classroom. The focus is placed on micro-comparison of legal concepts and institutions and on teaching comparative conceptual analysis. Previous studies have shown that one of the major issues for legal translation trainees when asked to perform an analysis is the identification of accidental and essential features, and thus determining the equivalence between a source language concept and a target language concept. Therefore, a series of exercises is presented, using company law institutions and terms in English and Czech, the aim of which is to first raise trainees' awareness of the need for comparative conceptual analysis, and then introduce them to how the analysis should be performed and make them use it in practice to overcome terminological asymmetry.

Keywords: legal translation training, comparative law, conceptual comparative analysis, legal translation competence, company law

1. Introduction

In legal translation training, trainees should acquire not only the translation competence (for a detailed discussion see e.g. Kelly [2005; 2007], for an amended version of the model, Hurtado Albir [2017]), but also what Šarčević (1997) calls "legal competence". In her view, such a competence "presupposes not only deep knowledge of legal terminology, but also a full understanding of legal reasoning and the ability to solve legal problems, to

analyse legal texts, and to foresee how a text will be interpreted and applied by courts. In addition to these basic skills, translators should also possess extensive knowledge of the target legal system and preferably the source legal system as well… Moreover, drafting skills are required and a *basic knowledge of comparative law and comparative methods*" (Šarčević 1997, 113–14; emphasis in italics added). Some scholars even argue that "the ideal legal translator is a comparative lawyer" (Goddard 2009, 169). As much as this is desirable, it is hardly achievable in practice. Therefore, the question that must be asked is what such "basic knowledge" includes and what its place in legal translation training is.[1] In fact, Engberg (2017, 7) considers the attempt to "see the relations between legal translation and comparative law studies" as a longstanding trend in the development of legal translation studies (LTS).[2]

An answer to this question has been recently proposed by Soriano-Barabino (2016, 158), who claims that the application of comparative law to translation has two main stages: (1) the process consisting of the acquisition of the (inter)cultural and subject area competence and (2) the process leading to the creation of new texts. The first stage may be further subdivided into macro-comparison, which is basically a comparison of the two legal systems involved and which should be part of both pre- and post-graduation continuous training, and micro-comparison, which involves an in-depth analysis of legal terms, institutions, documents and proceedings. This paper will focus on the first stage, and most notably on how to teach the skills required for micro-comparison, and will propose a set of exercises that may be used in a legal translation classroom.

2. Macro-comparison

It goes without saying that the deeper the (comparative) knowledge of the source and target legal systems, the more competent the translator. However, given the curriculum limitations, the scope for such macro-comparison is rather limited. Soriano-Barabino (2009, 439) has made a curricular proposal in which she devotes four classes in a legal translation course (at the University of Granada) to comparative law on the macro-level, and tackles a general overview and basic knowledge of the substantive and procedural law and institutions of the legal families to which the legal systems of the respective countries of the studied languages belong.

1 A number of authors have dealt with the difference between comparative law for lawyers and translators (cf. Simonnæs 2013; Doczekalska 2013; Engberg 2013; 2017).

2 In this respect, a note by Way (2017, 75) that there is a rising interest in comparative law at Spanish universities is also of interest.

On a more practical note, Way (2017) presents a student-centred methodology that can be applied in such introductory classes (not only) for legal translators. Her suggestions include exercises to compare the legal professions in the respective legal families/systems or their court systems. Frequently, however, the scope of legal translation training in a curriculum is more limited, and such a multi-level comparison is not feasible. In addition, when trainees enter the translation market, not all of them (or rather a small fraction of them) wish to specialize in legal translation. But what they may encounter in their daily practice are translations of contracts, powers of attorney or corporate documents, where the knowledge of the role of judges in the common-law system or the difference between a solicitor and a barrister is not necessarily required.

That is why I believe that where time-constraints exist, more attention should be devoted to micro-comparison, which may be useful when dealing with conceptual incongruities also in fields other than the law (cf. Kučík [2019] and his application to the field of photography).

3. Micro-comparison

Soriano-Barabino (2016) states that micro-comparison is performed for every translation brief. In this respect, I maintain that its application is broader, and may be used e.g. when creating bilingual dictionaries or when establishing terminology (mis)matches between source and target language concepts that are applicable to a number of translation briefs. Therefore, trainees need to be made familiar with tools that will enable them to perform micro-comparison. The tool of art used by comparative lawyers[3] to compare legal concepts and institutions is called conceptual comparative analysis (CCA)[4]. The use of CCA is instrumental in achieving two goals: (1) where a translation equivalent can be found in dictionaries or other terminology sources, CCA must be applied to establish the degree of equivalence between the source and target language concept, and (2) where the translation equivalent cannot be found (e.g. a newly coined term, a very specific term, an outdated dictionary),[5] CCA must be applied to analyse the source language concept and propose a possible equivalent (e.g. descriptive one). While it has been established that trainees tend to over-rely on dictionaries, and thus may not perform CCA to achieve

3 Even if the applied method is the same, there is a difference in focus between comparative lawyers and legal translators.

4 Different terms are used, but the essence remains the same.

5 See Šarčević (1989), Biel (2008) for a discussion of the availability (and quality) of legal dictionaries. And even if such dictionaries existed, one could question whether it is actually possible to develop a bilingual legal dictionary with stable equivalents (cf. Galdia 2013, 84).

the first goal, Sycz-Opoň (2019, 164) revealed that "the trainees were not prepared for situation where an entry was missing in a dictionary and had no established strategy for such situations." This makes the need for the mastery of CCA even more acute.

The micro-comparison may result in the following outcomes:

- the legal concept analysed can be found in both legal systems;
- the legal concept analysed can be found in one system but only partially in the other;
- the legal concept analysed can be found in one system but not in the other.

The situations under b) and c) are examples of incongruence or asymmetry, which is a symptom of legal translation as confirmed, among others, by Prieto Ramos (2014, 121), who claims that "the culture-bound and evolving nature of most legal concepts, the complexity of their semantic layers and the various degrees of asymmetry between their native legal systems and sources explain the added difficulty of terminology work in this area and the prominent attention devoted to it in Legal Translation Studies." The asymmetry is exacerbated by "resulting relativity of legal terminology, inconsistent categorizations and classifications between the different branches and fields of law, or distinguishing between the terminological and conceptual level…" (Pommer 2008, 18).

4. Degrees of Equivalence in Legal Translation

In general translation studies, the notion of equivalence has been considered one of "the most problematic and divisive issue" (cf. Palumbo 2009, 42) and has even been denigrated as being too linguistically oriented (cf. Krein-Kühle 2014). Nevertheless, it is still a key concept for legal translation studies, and will remain so in my opinion. This may be due to the importance of terminology in legal translation because even Snell-Hornby (1988, 106), who was extremely critical of the concept, admits that it is a relevant factor for terminology studies. Legal translation must achieve both communicative and legal equivalence, i.e. to achieve identity of meaning between original and translation (cf. Cheng and Sin 2008). Due to the terminological and mainly conceptual incongruity of legal languages and legal systems, the debate centres on whether natural or linguistic equivalents should be used (cf. Šarčević 1997, 233–35). In their essence, natural equivalents refer to situations where the same legal concept exists in the TL and target system and linguistic equivalents are basically word-for-word or literal translations. Logically, due to the incongruity of the legal systems, translators cannot use TL terms identical to the SL terms at the conceptual level. However, they should try to find the "closest natural equivalent" in the target system, i.e. such an equivalent that "most accurately conveys the legal sense of the source term and conveys the desired result" (Šarčević 1997, 235).

Or as Doczekalska (2013, 65) puts it, "legal translator should be able to recognize the differences between concepts in source and target cultures and to evaluate significance of divergence."

Another term frequently used in LTS is *functional equivalence*. Šarčević (1989, 278–79) describes a functional equivalent as "a term designating a concept or institution of the target language legal system having the same function as a particular concept of the source language system." The problem is, however, that not all functional equivalents are suitable as translation equivalents. For example, where Anglo-American law refers to traffic infractions, the functional equivalent in Czech would be *dopravní přestupky.* Although traffic infractions are dealt with within criminal law, *přestupky* are dealt with within administrative law.[6] Therefore, the terms are not identical from the legal point of view although they have the same function. The translator must therefore establish the degree of equivalence. To this end, Šarčević (1989) proposed a classification of degrees of equivalence based on a comparison of essential and accidental elements of terms: near-equivalence, partial equivalence and non-equivalence. While essential features define the essence of the concept and cannot be avoided in its definition, accidental characteristics add elements irrelevant for the description.

In situations of zero equivalence, where not even a partial equivalent is possible, the translator should have sufficient knowledge about the regulation of the respective legal situation in the target system. This may help the translator to opt for one of the compensation strategies, which include, amongst others, calques, descriptive equivalents, or borrowings. Naturally, the strategy used depends on the communicative situation as well as the *skopos*, but it may be argued that CCA should most frequently result in descriptive equivalents accounting for the essential features.

As has been already mentioned, conceptual comparative analysis is the key method used for micro-comparison. CCA, however, does not include only the comparative analysis of the concept in the source and target language, but may also require "comparative research into the wider extra-linguistic and possibly extra-legal context" (Chromá 2014a, 286). CCA is based on a comparison of accidental and essential elements of the concepts (Šarčević 1997, 238) and should account for even slight shades of meaning because "given the legal force of many legal texts, the translator must be particularly alert in scrutinizing semantic nuances in order to scrupulously convey them in reformulation" (Prieto Ramos 2011, 16). The essential elements constitute the core of the concepts and cannot be omitted in its definition. As the full equivalence is extremely rare even be-

6 This is an example of inconsistent categorizations and classifications signalled as a problem in legal translation by Pommer (2008, 18).

tween similar systems and languages, the most likely outcomes of CCA are the following (Šarčević 1997, 238):

- near equivalence, which occurs when the SL and TL concepts share all of their essential and most of their accidental elements;
- partial equivalence, which occurs when the SL and TL concepts share most of their essential and some[7] of their accidental elements. In Šarčević's opinion, this is the most frequent situation with functional equivalents;
- non-equivalence, which occurs when a few or none of the essential elements of the SL and TL concepts coincide, and the equivalents thus cannot be considered acceptable.

In the Šarčević proposal, both partial and near-equivalence may be split into cases of inclusion and intersection as shown in Figure 1.

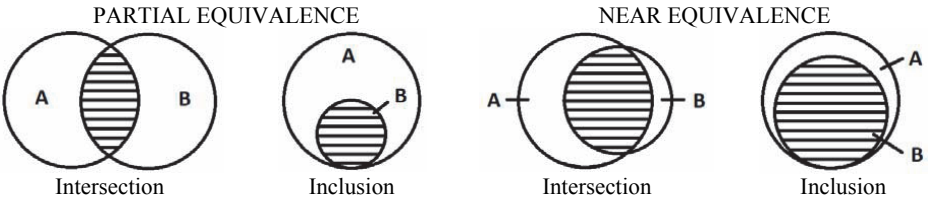

Figure 1: Partial and near-equivalence (Šarčević 1997, 238–39)

An example of partial equivalents where one concept may be included in the other is the use of *public limited company* (a UK term) for Czech *akciová společnost*. Under Czech law, *akciová společnost* may have two modalities: either it is a publicly traded company issuing shares, or it is a closed company issuing shares as securities. As the adjective in the UK equivalent suggests, only the former are equivalent to UK public limited companies.

An example of near-equivalence may be the terms *memorandum of association* and *společenská smlouva*, which is a document used to establish e.g. a limited liability company. The function as well as the required content of the documents under UK and

7 Chromá (2014a, 287) notes that determining how much is "some", "most" and if "all" means all without any exception will depend on the translator's experience and his or her ability to identify the elements.

Czech law are basically identical (i.e. the essential elements), but what differs are the requirements for the document. While Czech law requires the document to have the form of a notarial deed, UK law requires authenticated signatures. However, such a difference could be considered an accidental feature of the concepts and they could be used as equivalents.

It should also be stressed (cf. Štefková 2013, 96) that the "translator should not aim only for finding identical concepts and the respective terms, but rather at establishing comparable relations between the concepts." In other words, the focus of the analysis should be on the function of the concepts and their relations. As clear as the arguments for using CCA in legal translation are, the explanation of the steps it involves may not be that clear for practising legal translators and legal translation trainees. Some of the approaches to CCA are described below.

5. Models of CCA

The method of CCA has been addressed by a number of authors, whose descriptions of CCA may serve as models for translators and trainees. Among the approaches promoted by different authors, two major groups can be identified: functional approaches (e.g. Sandrini 1996; Soriano-Barabino 2016) and more conceptually oriented approaches (e.g. Engberg 2017; Monjean-Decaudin and Popineau-Lauvray 2019). In addition to the difference in focus, the approaches also differ in the number of steps to be undertaken during the analysis as well as the names of the individual steps.

Chromá (2014a) devotes considerable attention to the importance of conceptual analysis and shows a number of examples which can be used as models for legal translation trainees (see Exercise 2 below). The individual steps identified by Chromá (2014a, 287) are as follows: (1) Identifying the concept in source law represented by a respective source language term. (2) Finding a corresponding concept in the target law and a relevant term in the TL, or guessing what a suitable term in the target language may be and identifying the concept behind it. (3) Deciding whether the required conceptual equivalence is achieved while balancing the essential and accidental elements of the source and equivalent concepts. (4) If the equivalence cannot be achieved, determining whether any substitute steps should be taken to convey the message from the ST to the TT in an intended manner determined by the purpose of the translation. Substitute steps usually include selecting a suitable functional term, i.e. a term having the same function in the target legal system as the SL term has in the source legal system, but semantically they need not correspond. Non-equivalence could be compensated for by an explanatory or descriptive equivalent.

Even though the individual steps are quite straightforward, they rely on a certain degree of subject area competence. For a translator (trainee) to be able to "guess" at a suitable TL term, whose degree of equivalence will be considered, substantial knowledge of the target legal system is required, which brings us back to the "basic legal knowledge" mentioned in the introduction. The same applies to balancing the essential and accidental features. The problem is, as Engberg (2015, 21) states, that the elements may not be clear from the statutory definition or legislative context of the respective term. Therefore, Engberg proposes that the translators must ask two questions: (1) What aspects of the concept are treated in the ST and are deemed relevant to be included in the TT? (2) What aspects stand out in the conversations of legal experts on the investigated concept in primary sources of law as well as in other types of legal discourse? The second question is extremely important as the elements necessary to apply the concept may transpire only from the analysis of the professional discourse, rather than the statutory definition. In a later paper, Engberg (2017, 7) identifies the following steps: (1) getting to know the concept behind a word in the source text well enough to be able to interpret which parts of the concept play a central role in the conceptual understanding of the source text, (2) establishing what parts of this contextual understanding are most relevant in the concrete target text situation, and (3) eliciting possible target concepts and getting to know them well enough to find a formulation that enables the target text receiver to construct a relevant cognitive structure and understand the target text relevantly.

Yet another approach for finding conceptual equivalents is promoted by Foster and Broeren (2014), who see legal translation as a comparative definition. In their approach, the process includes three stages: (1) Understanding the concept in the source language and looking for its definition. (2) Knowing where to look for the equivalent in the target language. (3) Comparing the definitions. The authors try to show how concepts may be compared with the use of the componential analysis or prototype theory, and believe that legal translation should combine comparative law and semantics. They note, at the same time, that context is crucial, as long descriptive equivalents may be in conflict with the function. The second stage of their method highlights the importance of information-mining as part of CCA.

For teaching purposes, a synthesis of the approaches presented above has been made and the following steps identified (cf. Klabal et al. 2017):

a) identifying the concept in source law (definition, features);
b) identifying target language candidates;
c) searching for definitions/features of the candidates;

d) comparing definitions/features;
e) identifying translation equivalent.

6. A Step-by-step Approach to Familiarizing Trainees with CCA

Admittedly, this is not the first attempt to present a set of exercises to introduce trainees to comparative law or CCA. Similar attempts have been made e.g. by Dullion (2015), who uses a six-step scaffolding approach, or by Soriano-Barabino (2016, 170), who identifies three stages, namely awareness raising, identification and recognition of translation problems related to comparative law, and comparison itself. Both Dullion (2015) and Soriano-Barabino (2016) have also presented a series of exercises applying comparative law to translation. However, their exercises are more text-oriented in nature and use entire texts and terms in context, and especially in the case of Dullion emphasize the functionalist approach, or "a dynamic skopos-determined equivalence" in Galdia's terms (2013, 81). Naturally, all this is very important and their exercises are usable for any language pair and thus may be adopted in the English-Czech-English legal translation classroom as well. With all awareness of the importance of context, translation briefs and professionalism (cf. Biel 2011), the approach presented in this paper is more narrow. It takes into account the findings of the study by Klabal et al. (2017), who identified three major areas that trainees struggle with when having to apply CCA; namely use of reliable sources and resources, the ability to identify essential and accidental features, and finally the ability to compare them. While the use of reliable sources is part of the information mining competence and is not an issue specific to CCA, the other two areas are generally not addressed widely in translation classroom. This is why the proposed exercises focus primarily on the identification of the features and their comparison since recognition of translation problems related to comparative law is taken as an input assumption.

Most of the examples in the exercises are from the field of company law. Even though the globalization of business could suggest otherwise, company law is far from being harmonized and company forms, however similar they may look, show great asymmetry when scrutinized by means of CCA (cf. Štefková 2013, 89).

The exercises as presented below always include the task assigned to the trainees and, where applicable, a model analysis, which tries to show one of the possible solutions to the task. In the classroom setting, trainees work on the tasks individually or in groups, and their solutions are then discussed jointly. The analyses as presented by the trainees are commented on by the instructor, and, if needed, trainees are provided with guidance in line with the reasoning below.

6.1 Exercise 1: Raising awareness of the notion of equivalence in legal translation

This exercise adopts an inductive approach to raise trainees' awareness of the theoretical foundations of *equivalence* in legal translation as presented above.

TASK: Either individually or in groups, try to discuss the following questions[8]:

- Is it possible to use traffic *infractions* as an equivalent for *dopravní přestupky*?
- Would you choose *public limited company* as an equivalent for Czech *akciová společnost*?
- Is there an office of *a company secretary* in Czech companies?
- Is there any reason why not to use *memorandum of association* as an equivalent for *společenská smlouva* when establishing a company?

6.2 Exercise 2: Analysing a model example

This exercise aims to familiarize trainees with a model CCA. Given the Czech-English language pair, analyses by Chromá[9] are usually used.

TASK: Have a look at the model analysis by Chromá. Are you able to identify all the steps? Are any of them missing?

Předčasný důchod* and *předdůchod

Two Czech terms, *předdůchod* and *předčasný důchod*, have an essential conceptual element in common – early retirement; this English term can then be used as the basis for an explicative term. The Czech institutions differ in their sources of funding, which is also the reason why there are two different Czech legal terms employed to denote the two concepts; as a result the funding element would constitute the complementary part of the term: *předdůchod* – early retirement funded from a private pension scheme *předčasný důchod* – early retirement funded from the state social security system.

In addition to a rather academic model of CCA, trainees are also presented with a discussion on a terminology issue[10] from a Facebook forum where translators discuss their

8 The answers to most of the questions are to be found above.

9 This exercise uses an analysis by Chromá (2016, 79–80). However, different model analyses, usually extracted from Chromá (2014b) are used. Analyses by the instructor are not used as models in this exercises so that trainees are exposed to another person's reasoning.

10 A number of such discussions are used in class, e.g. *ubytovna*, which in many situations means *a hostel*, but in certain regions of the Czech Republic, it refers to accommodation for manual

translation problems between Czech and English[11], and are asked to follow the reasoning of the participants in the discussion, who, when defending their proposed solutions also accentuate the essential features of the terms in question.

6.3 Exercise 3: Is *security* a congruent equivalent for *cenný papír*?

The aim of this exercise is to show how CCA may be useful for achieving the first goals discussed above, i.e. verifying the congruency of dictionary equivalents.

> TASK: Use the comparative conceptual analysis to decide whether a *security* is a congruent English equivalent for *cenný papír*. If not, what is the degree of equivalence? What other equivalents may there be?

The Czech term *cenný papír* denotes a legal category comprising shares, bonds, promissory notes, cheques, bills of lading and many other instruments. The term has a statutory definition (Section 514 of the Czech Civil Code) which reads[12] "an instrument in which a right is incorporated in such a way that it cannot be exercised without the instrument". Most bilingual dictionaries offer *a security* as a translation equivalent. However, *securities* are defined as "a fungible, negotiable financial instrument that holds some type of monetary value" and examples include "stocks, bonds, notes, convertible securities, warrants, or any other document that represents a share in a company or a debt owed by a company or government entity" (Kenton 2021). This clearly shows that the English term comprises only part of the wide array of Czech *cenný papír*. Therefore, other instruments included in this category in the Czech system need to be taken into account and their categorization in the Anglo-American law considered. Thus, we arrive at two other labels, namely *negotiable instruments* and *documents of title*. While the former are defined as "a document that promises payment to a specified person or the assignee" (Hayes 2020) and includes *promissory note, draft, check, certificate of deposit, letter of credit*, the latter are defined as "a document (as a warehouse receipt) which is issued by or addressed to a bailee and which in the ordinary course of business is considered to show that the person in possession of it is entitled to receive, hold, and dispose of the bailed goods covered by it" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.).

labourers or the unemployed, which is funded from housing benefits, and thus acquires an essential feature that needs to be expressed.

11 An example of "crowd translation" listed by Galdia (2013, 88) as one of the tools available for legal translators.

12 Any translations of definitions or statutory provisions from Czech have been made by the author.

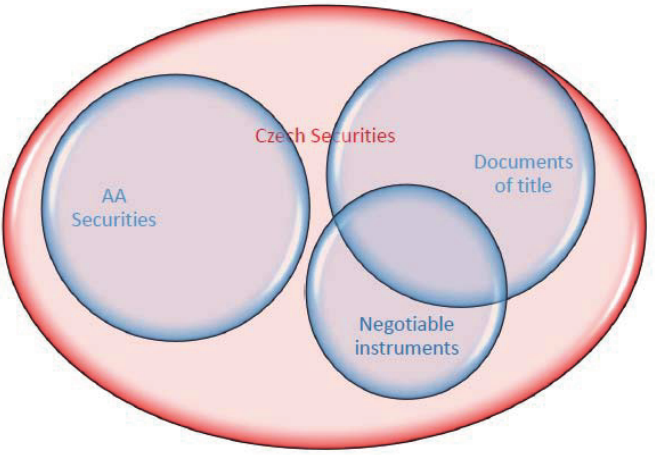

Figure 2: *Cenný papír* under Czech law and corresponding categories in English

As shown in Figure 2, the Czech term *cenné papíry* denotes a broad legal category which is split in the Anglo-American system into a minimum of three types of instruments. The term *securities* may only be used for *fungible instruments (i.e.) of corporate nature* (i.e. shares, bonds, share warrants). The terms *negotiable instruments* may be used for *individuální cenné papíry* (i.e. non-fungible) and *documents of title* for what is Czech mainly *zbožové cenné papíry.* This has important implications for translators as a translation equivalent must be chosen depending on the instrument in question, and when the whole category under Czech law is implied, all three categories should be listed. From the didactic perspective, trainees should realize that when a term denoting such a broad category is translated, it is necessary to test a number of examples to see whether they can be subsumed under the label in the target system, and if not, appropriate translation strategies need to be adopted, e.g. creating a neologism or using more than one term to refer to the category.

6.4 Exercise 4: Legal forms of companies

This exercise is aimed at mastering dissection of essential and accidental features as presented by Soriano-Barabino (2016, 163). As has been mentioned previously, legal forms of companies across jurisdictions display more differences than one might imagine, especially given the globalization of the business world. Nevertheless, the actual company forms are deeply rooted in the social and historical development of the respective countries, and maintain their peculiarities. In this respect, I do not subscribe to the claim of Sladoljev-Agejev and Pecotić-Kaufman (2009, 416) that "the differences should not be

overemphasized" as the overall purpose is the same in any jurisdiction. This position is closer to the approach promoted by traditional comparative law, where the functional comparison prevails, but should not be the initial assumption for a legal translator.

For a legal translator from English, it does not suffice to know how to translate company forms from the United Kingdom or United States, which may be accounted for in dictionaries. Many companies are established in overseas jurisdictions such as the British Virgin Islands, the Seychelles or Cyprus and translators must be able to perform CCA in relation to these companies, to render them transparently into Czech[13] since these are not, and will hardly become, listed in dictionaries.

TASK: Read a text assigned by the instructor about the principles of company law. What are the characteristics that draw a distinction between individual company types? Having the identified features in mind, decide what is the closest form under Czech law, what the differences are and which features, out of those identified, should be reflected in the Czech equivalents of the following company forms: *limited liability limited partnership*; *limited liability partnership* and *limited partnership*.

Based on the assigned reading, the relevant questions are elicited. In the case of company types, these may include, amongst others: (1) is the legal form incorporated or unincorporated, (2) what is the liability of the members, (3) may interests in the company be acquired by the public, (4) do the interests have the form of a security.[14] These questions try to reflect the classification of business forms in different jurisdictions. Some foreign legal systems make a distinction between incorporated and unincorporated business, whereas Czech law between *unlimited* and *limited* companies, all of which are incorporated, but the *liability* of the members differs.[15]

To be able to perform the task, the definitions of the individual legal forms must be taken as a starting point.

> A limited liability limited partnership is essentially an ordinary limited partnership that elects to become a limited liability limited partnership. The limited

13 The rendition arrived at by means of CCA should be accompanied by a borrowing in the first mention.

14 Other questions may arise depending on the differentiating feature. For example, when a distinction must be made between C and S corporations under US law, the tax aspects become prominent.

15 Similar problems even occur between English and Croatian law as discussed by Sladoljev-Agejev and Pecotić-Kaufman (2009, 416).

> liability limited partnership must file a Limited Liability Limited Partnership Registration with the Secretary of State to acquire limited liability status. **This status limits the liability of a general partner**. In all respects except liability, the limited liability limited partnership operates and is treated in the same manner as a limited partnership. (North Dakota Secretary of State, n.d.)

As there is no such form under Czech law, a descriptive equivalent must be used. The closest legal form under Czech law is *komanditní společnost*, which is usually translated as *limited partnership*. Then, the difference as compared to the Czech company form must be highlighted, i.e. the limited liability of the general partner. Therefore, the suggested equivalent is *komanditní společnost s omezeným ručením komplementáře,* or *komanditní společnost s omezeným ručením všech společníků.*

The difference between different company forms becomes more apparent when a number of rather similar forms are compared. *Limited liability partnership* is defined as follows:

> A form of partnership where **all partners typically have a form of limited liability (generally limited to liability resulting from the partner's action) and the right to manage the business**. This is different from a limited partnership, which has a general partner with unlimited liability that manages the business and limited partners with limited liability but typically no right to manage the business. Professionals such as accountants and lawyers usually establish their businesses as LLPs. (Thomson Reuters, n.d.)

The fact that all the partners in an LLP are on equal footing means that it is more similar to *veřejná obchodní společnost* (*general partnership*) under Czech law, the difference being the limited liability of the partners. That is why the suggested equivalent is *veřejná obchodní společnost s omezeným ručením společníků*.

The exercises may be replicated with other legal forms from different English-speaking jurisdictions. By way of example, the situation becomes more challenging when legal forms used for overseas companies or typical of overseas jurisdiction need to be translated. For example, *international business company* (IBC), which is a legal form available in many offshore jurisdictions such as the Bahamas, or *private exempt company*. The former is defined as "corporation formed under the corporate legislation of a tax haven (such as Bahamas, Panama, Turks & Caicos). IBCs are not authorized to do business in the country of formation (incorporation) but can have offices that manage global operations" (Business Dictionary, n.d.). It follows from the definition that the essential elements are that the company is prohibited from doing business in the country

of incorporation (cf. Section 3 of the International Business Company Act of the British Virgin Islands) where it is, however, registered. Many Czech companies offering the formation of such a company use a calque translation *mezinárodní obchodní společnost*. To make the essence of the company more transparent, however, it would be more appropriately translated, for example, as *zahraniční společnost nepodnikající v zemi registrace (a foreign company not doing business in the country of incorporation)*.

6.5 Exercise 5: *Formy úpadku* vs *Types of Insolvency*

As has been mentioned before, the functional approach to comparative law is different from functionalism in legal translation. The latter is based on the assumption that (i) all societies face similar or even the same social problems or human needs, and (ii) the role of law is to provide solutions to these problems (cf. Öröcü 2006, 443–44). The last, and most advanced, exercise is designed to show how these assumptions may help legal translators identify translation equivalents. A case of company insolvency will be used. In any legal system, it may be that a company becomes insolvent or bankrupt (depending on the terminology of the respective jurisdiction) on two grounds: either its liabilities are far greater that in its assets or the company is unable to pay its debts as they become due.

> TASK: Explore *formy úpadku* (sorts or types of insolvency) under Czech and UK law, identify the relevant legislation and decide whether sorts of insolvency match or do not match across the jurisdictions.

The sorts of insolvency under Czech law are defined in Section 3 of the Insolvency Act whose Paragraphs (1) and (2) define *platební neschopnost* (the inability to pay debts) and Paragraph (4) defines *předluženost* (overdebtedness). Under English law, a similar distinction is made by Section 136 of the 1986 Insolvency Act (see Table 1 for comparison). The problem is that UK legislation does not refer to specific labels for the types of insolvency, so the issue must be explored further on related websites or judgments,[16]

16 Judgment in the case of BNY Corporate Trustee Services Ltd. v. Neuberger Berman Europe Ltd; BNY Corporate Trustee Services Ltd. v. Eurosail-UK 2007-3BL PLC. UKSC 28, EWCA Civ. 227, para 1: "A company in the situation described in subsection (1)(e) is often said to be 'cash-flow' insolvent. A company in the situation described in subsection (2) is often said to be "balance-sheet" insolvent, but that expression is not to be taken literally. It is a convenient shorthand expression, but a company's statutory balance sheet, properly prepared in accordance with the requirements of company law, may omit some contingent assets or some contingent liabilities" (Supreme Court of the United Kingdom 2013).

which enforces the claim by Engberg (2015, 21) that we must see how experts refer to the concepts.

Czech law[17]	English translation of Czech law	English law
(1) Dlužník je v úpadku, jestliže má a) více věřitelů a b) peněžité závazky po dobu delší 30 dnů po lhůtě splatnosti a c) tyto závazky není schopen plnit (dále jen "platební neschopnost").	(1) A debtor is insolvent of a) it has more than one creditor, and b) it owes debts which are more than 30 days after their due date c) and is unable to pay such debts (hereinafter the "payment inability")	1) A company is deemed unable to pay its debts— … (e) if it is proved to the satisfaction of the court that the company is unable to pay its debts as they fall due.
		Cash-flow insolvency: This is when a company cannot meet demands for payment as and when they are due. It might have enough assets to pay money owed, but does not have an appropriate form of payment. In essence it could be unable to sell the assets or raise cash against them quickly enough. An example might be a property company which is asset rich but cash poor. Of course it is likely that they may not have the assets either to cover the money owed (Steven 2019).

17 The statutory provisions are not quoted in full, but only their relevant parts.

Czech law[17]	English translation of Czech law	English law
Dlužník, který je právnickou osobou nebo fyzickou osobou – podnikatelem, je v úpadku i tehdy, je-li předlužen. O **předlužení** jde tehdy, má-li dlužník více věřitelů a souhrn jeho závazků převyšuje hodnotu jeho majetku.	A debtor that is a legal entity or a sole trader is also insolvent if its overdebted. Overdebtedness appears if a debtor has more than one creditor and its liabilities exceed its assets.	A company is also deemed unable to pay its debts if it is proved to the satisfaction of the court that the value of the company's assets is less than the amount of its liabilities, taking into account its contingent and prospective liabilities.
		Balance sheet insolvency: This is when a company's total liabilities outweigh its total assets. But it may still be able to pay its liabilities when they are due. So a company may have a big tax bill coming up, which is not due yet, but if it was then it couldn't pay it (Steven 2019).

Table 1: Insolvency forms under Czech and UK law compared

It follows from Table 1 that balance-sheet insolvency is equivalent to *předlužení* whereas cash-flow insolvency to *platební neschopnost*. While the Czech terms are introduced by statute, the English ones are terms that have been introduced by case law. In a situation where the courts and legal practice needed to describe the tests for the insolvency situations under the respective statutory provisions, they referred to the financial statements from which the respective form of insolvency follows.

Naturally, this exercise may be modified and trainees may be, for example, provided with the statutory definitions and asked to make the respective comparisons, and then look for the labels. In any case, such a detailed comparison corroborates the assumption of functional comparative law that legal systems share similar problems and sometimes even solutions, which should be a positive message even for a legal translator refuting the claims that "legal translation is impossible" (cf. Glanert and Legrand 2013, 524). What may be more demanding, however, is the time needed to find such similar solutions

as the answers are not always straightforward. Therefore, a strong case could be made for intensive and systematic training, which will make trainees more efficient.

7. Conclusions

Taking the importance of comparative law, with regard to both the macro and micro comparison, as a common ground in legal translation, this paper has focused on implementing micro comparison in a translation classroom. Therefore, the paper introduces a step-by-step approach to mastering CCA, which may be referred to as mobilisation of "comparative law for translators" (cf. Dullion 2015, 102). If mastered, it should equip the trainees with the necessary tools to overcome conceptual and terminological asymmetry between source and target languages, not only in the language of law. The exercises have been designed to cover the process from awareness raising to the actual performance of the analysis focusing on the pitfalls identified by previous studies, most importantly the inability of trainees to identify the essential and accidental features and make the respective comparison. Even though the examples used draw on Czech and English, the exercises, and the steps of the approach, may hopefully be useful for any legal translation trainer, and trainee.

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Dramaturgical Translation as a Means of Training a Young Generation of Translators for the Theatre

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Abstract: This article introduces the methodology of *dramaturgical translation* as a model specifically designed to aid translating drama from historically distanced periods (here briefly referred to as *old drama* or *historical dramaturgy*). The model is based on, and designed in, a close cooperation between translators, philologists, and theatre practitioners, such as actors, dramaturgs and directors, with the aim to identify and mediate the theatrical potential of the original works and create texts in translation that would be suitable for staging. The method is currently being tested in the research project "English Theatre Culture 1660–1737", in which the present authors are involved. One of the objectives of the project is to foster a new generation of translators of old drama and raise the interest of current theatre practice in historical dramaturgy. This is to be facilitated

by means of linking academia, the translation sphere and theatre practitioners in order to create a younger community of translators for theatre who would fill this gap in our culture, as well as on the market.

Keywords: theatre translation, old drama, dramaturgical translation, collaborative translation, Restoration theatre

While the specific nature of translating for the theatre within the discipline of translation has been widely and repeatedly acknowledged, apart from a handful of narrowly defined case studies (see, for instance, Johnston 1996; Coelsch-Foisner and Klein 2005; Walton 2016; Brodie and Cole 2017; Brodie 2018; Drábek 2012, 43–44), translation of old drama (and theatre) – that is, theatre texts from historically distanced periods – has been a surprisingly underresearched subject, especially in moving beyond the aforementioned specific case studies towards transferable principles and methods. This article aims to address this issue from a methodological perspective. Here, we present the method we are currently testing, which we call *dramaturgical translation*. We hope that this methodology has potential for both fostering a new generation of translators of old plays and enriching current theatre culture. Arguably, the translation of old drama raises complex issues and challenges, and this needs to be addressed as a theoretical problem. The complexities involved are many, such as: working with historical forms of a language, with specific literary traditions, and working across several theatre cultures simultaneously. A play (and especially an older play) in translation exists across at least three distinct theatre cultures: (1) the period theatre of the source play; (2) the present-day theatre culture for which the play is being translated; and, (3) the theatre tradition as it bears on staging classical drama and drama in translation. The latter two are distinct entities: a translated play is simultaneously a "new", autonomous play in its own right *and* a play that may be understood in the category of "the classics".[1] These three distinct theatre dramaturgies should be taken into account in translating. Naturally, the translator needs to have the appropriate language skills in the historic form of the original language and a certain dramatic or playwriting skill in the target language.

1 It is beyond the scope of this article to go into details of this complex issue. Concrete examples suggest that there tends to be a creative dramaturgical dialogue between "new drama" and "the classics" in first stagings of old plays. Ivan Rajmont's 2008 staging of Martin Hilský's translation of William Shakespeare and John Fletcher's *The Two Noble Kinsmen*, for instance, was mounted and marketed in a precarious state between "a Shakespeare play" and "something new". For a parallel phenomenon of widening the canon, see Kirwan 2015 and Drábek 2008.

In the Czech context, there have been rare instances of a philologist and a translator, or theatre practitioner, collaborating on a new translation of a classic play that would be both linguistically faithful and theatrically efficient – such as the 1966 collaboration on *The Tempest* between Miloš Vávra and Ladislav Fikar (who knew no English), Euripides' *Iphigenia in Aulis*, translated by Karel Hubka and Josef Topol (1981; see also Drábek 2012, 40–41, and Euripides 2009), the 2002 translation of *The Oresteia* by Matyáš Havrda and Petr Borkovec, and the 2006 translation of Sophocles's *Electra* by Alena Sarkissian (Beková-Sarkissian) and Daniel Špinar.[2] The classical dramaturgy of stage director Hana Burešová and her dramaturg Štěpán Otčenášek is a case in point: apart from experimenting with older translations of classics (such as their 2004 production of *Macbeth* that surprisingly used O. F. Babler's translation of 1946), and their premiere stagings of Seneca in Czech (a 2007 production of Eva Stehlíková's translation of *Faedra*), Burešová also created her own translation of Sophocles's *Electra* in collaboration with philologist Alena Sarkissian. However, these are exceptions rather than the rule.[3]

The past thirty years have seen shockingly few commissions of new translations of classics, especially to translators of younger or even middle generations. Anecdotal evidence shows that this is caused by dramaturgs' and directors' wary, risk-averse or even narrowminded outlook, or – perhaps even worse – by the cliques and spheres of influence operating within Czech theatre. When asked about commissions for new translations of classics, dramaturgs and directors respond with such platitudes as that

2 We are grateful to our peer reviewers for providing a contextual reference to research that reflects the theory and practice of translation undertaken by translators without a perfect command of the language in question, e.g. Kocijancic Pokorn (2003). In the case of collaborative theatre translation, this may sometimes be the case, but very often the translator is an optimal linguist but has only limited theatrical experience to capture the play's dramatic qualities (i.e. the "play"). This is where a collaborator comes in, providing the theatre expertise (as was the case of Fikar, Topol, Borkovec or Špinar). Additionally, the dialogical setting of the collaboration is cognate with the medium of the play: the process then anticipates and enacts the eventual dialogical means of performance.

3 A seemingly comparable practice, known as the two-tier process of drama translation, is common in a number of countries, especially in the UK. However, this pattern is only superficially similar. While the British two-tier system (as discussed in Drábek 2012: 40ff., and reflected in Brodie 2018; see also Drábek 2018) is a two-step collaboration between a linguist and a theatre practitioner, it is sequential, not simultaneous. The literal translator provides "an information map to the play" (Mendelsohn in Meth, Mendelsohn and Svendsen 2011, 209), and only rarely participates in the following phases of the process. This has been much criticised for being exploitative and giving insufficient acknowledgement to the translator in the process. The Czech examples listed in this article (Vávra-Fikar, Hubka-Topol, Sarkissian-Špinar etc.) are cases of truly simultaneous collaboration of equal partners.

there are no suitable translators anymore; that it is too risky and expensive; or, that their theatre already has a deal with Prominent Translator X, who is effectively blocking the way. That last explanation is alarmingly common, even with the youngest generation of theatre managers and directors. It follows in the totalitarian mindset launched in the late 1930s by E. A. Saudek and others (see Drábek 2012: 198ff.) – in other words, the collaborative partnerships and creative teams have a side effect: they create closed societies. These partnerships often start at theatre academies or schools, defining the professional lives of the participants – both in forging close-knit teams and (to outsiders) elitist clubs of theatre initiates who protect their spheres of influence. For the sake of this article, let us abstain from the political circumstances and inhibitions of modern theatre translations of classics, and focus on the methods that would address the other two causes: the lack of suitable translators and the riskiness and expense of the process. Additionally, the perception is that a translator (a literary creator in their own right) should be an authorial "solitary genius", to use Jack Stillinger's term (see Stillinger 1991, also Doorman 2004). In this sense, the translator is the authority and a present-day substitute of the original playwright; often, the translator would even be available as an authorial stand-in during rehearsal. We will return to this authorial fallacy later.

As mentioned previously, there are a number of proficiencies an accomplished theatre translator must have. In addition to playwriting skills and active familiarity with present-day theatre culture – that is to say, being in touch with current trends and tastes – a translator of old drama has to have a very particular set of skills. He or she needs to be familiar with:

1) the historical variant of the foreign language, a skill almost exclusive to members of academia, specifically philologists; arguably, the spoken language of theatre is a sociolect distinct from the literary language of the period;
2) the original historical theatre culture and broader cultural context(s), i.e., be a theatre historian, another rare skill among non-academics; and
3) the present-day theatrical culture including the tradition of staging the classics; this knowledge is often restricted – or seemingly restricted – to theatre practitioners.

A combination of all these requirements, however, almost never occurs in a single person – unless they have dedicated years of effort to this pursuit. Combined with authorial fallacy, this is probably the reason why theatre dramaturgs assume that there are no suitable translators anymore.

To address the demand for a new generation of translators of old drama, then, our options would seem to be waiting for them to be born, attempting to train them, or what

we will now propose: a third option based on a new set of methods. This innovation would be of a social kind: we suggest a pattern of collaboration based on systematic interaction between the spheres of academia, translation and theatre practice. By means of such collaborative effort, the available potential of individual skills will be maximised and made capable of producing a viable and effective translation for the theatre.

The concept of *dramaturgical translation* is derived from existing dramaturgical practices in the theatre, common when working with new writing: combining the efforts of the commissioning dramaturg (who is also a theatrical guarantor of the play text) with rehearsed readings by actors and a structure of academic support from researchers. Very few dramaturgs fall for the indolent excuse that there are no new good plays; they know that such plays have to be groomed to perfection through revision, workshops, and rehearsal. This is the standard practice of dramaturgs and directors who work systematically with new writing (such as Hana Hložková, Martina Schlegelová or Marie Špalová). This is also a well-known and well-established tradition in centres of new writing, such the Royal Court Theatre (see Hančil 2007). Over the decades of the Royal Court Theatre's activities, systematic work with new writers shaped an entire generation of new playwrights: John Osborne, Ann Jellicoe, Wole Soyinka, David Hare, Christopher Hampton, David Edgar, Caryl Churchill, Timberlake Wertenbaker, Martin McDonagh and Lucy Prebble, to name a few. Despite later apotheoses, these playwrights were not miraculous *Wunderkinder* who turned up with ready scripts, but aspiring authors who were willing to work on their talent with the directors, dramaturgs and actors in the company. (For an account of one such process, the writing of Timberlake Wertenbaker's famous *Our Country's Good*, see Max Stafford-Clark's diary *Letters to George*; Stafford-Clark 1989).[4] We argue that a new suitable translation (please note the shift from *translator* to *translation*) of a historical play can be achieved by a parallel process. In other words, new translations of old drama deserve the same attention and care as new writing. That is the method of not only creating new stageable texts but also cultivating a new generation of old-drama translators.

The present authors have set out to implement this methodology in the ongoing research project, supported by the Czech Science Foundation (GAČR), "English Theatre Culture 1660–1737" (see Krajník et al. 2019), whose main outcome will be the first-ever anthology of 20+ English plays from the Restoration period (that is, the period following the restoration of the Stuart dynasty on the English throne in 1660) in Czech. Apart from

4 The Royal Court Theatre and its offshoots are not the only environments where this type of playwriting process blending sole-authored script work and devising happens. Sarah Sigal outlines a longer history of collaborative theatre making, analysing several types in recent practice of such companies as Shared Experience, Frantic Assembly, Filter, Kneehigh, or Teatro Vivo (Sigal 2017).

the well-established names of the long English Restoration theatre (Dryden, Wycherley, Etherege, Otway, Vanbrugh, Congreve, Farquhar, Gay), the anthology will also include authors who have not yet been translated into Czech (Davenant, Villiers, Duffett, Behn, Cibber, Pix, Centlivre, Griffin, Theobald, Lillo). The team working on the project is very diverse, from theatre and literary historians to theatre practitioners (including theatre directors and dramaturgs who work in several genres, such as spoken drama, musical theatre and radio), and translators with various levels of experience. An important part of the project is the growth in expertise and specialist development among the team members, who will, after the project's end, be ready to build on their experience gained in the course of the project and apply it beyond its original scope.

Our methodology of *dramaturgical translation* proposes a process comprising five basic steps that formalise the developmental stages of refining a new play-text:

1) a dramaturgical reading and analysis workshop, identifying the key situations, interactions and social gesti;
2) a draft translation of the play by the translator;
3) a dramaturg's reading, revision and resolution of cruxes;
4) an actors' reading workshop; and
5) final revisions.

The standard pattern of preparing a translation of the plays has been to establish a small team for each play-text. This team typically includes: (1) a translator (who may or may not be familiar with early modern English); (2) a historical and linguistic advisor to the translator (who also serves as the main guarantor and coordinator of the translation); and (3) a dramaturg (usually a commissioned theatre practitioner, who also coordinates the actors' reading workshop). Most of the people involved in the project work on more than one of the plays, often playing different roles in different teams. Thus a given person may act as a translator, a linguistic advisor and, if he or she has previous experience with theatre practice, a dramaturg. The translation team for each of the plays is designed so as to capitalise as much as possible on the potential and skills of the individual members. At each of the five steps mentioned above, each of the teams takes decisions that negotiate the semantic, dramatic and cultural potential of the play in question. In a way, this method may be seen as an elaboration of a sort on Jiří Levý, who as early as 1963 called for collaborative effort involving linguists and theatre practitioners, assisting translators for the theatre "by defining more precisely the 'style of the source' in a drama text" (Levý 2011, 137). The team is also working with the awareness of the practice of collaborative theatre making and even translating as discussed by recent scholars (Laera 2014;

Meth, Mendelsohn and Svendson 2011), and develops it from one-off experiments and methods driven by external motives into a sustainable, truly collaborative and inclusive performance practice.

Apart from the upcoming anthology itself, the project has several goals which surpass its immediate scope. First of all, by creating a link between academia, translation and theatre practice, it hopes to train a new generation of translators, who will gain experience with both the work on historical dramaturgy and work for the theatre and will be able to replicate their newly gained skills in their future practice (which may or may not be based on the same collaborative model). Furthermore, it seeks to open up current theatre practice to historical dramaturgy, increasing theatre practitioners' interest in old drama and thus overcoming its current underrepresentation on Czech stages. Apart from the collaboration with specific theatre practitioners, whom the project will possibly influence in their future dramaturgical decisions, this goal will also be achieved by stage productions of several of the translations which are currently being undertaken, since the research team closely collaborates with several Czech theatres which have already expressed their interest in staging some of the plays. Finally, once the methodology of *dramaturgical translation* is proved viable, we believe that it might easily be applicable to different theatre cultures and periods to establish a standard model (or, rather, one of the models) which will be employed in future translation efforts between various languages. The close collaboration between scholars, translators and experts from current theatrical practice is the key to producing high-quality translations and, subsequently, successful productions of old plays, uniting both the need to stay true to the past and the need to build a connection with the audiences of the present.

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Interpreting

Interpreter Training – A Survey of the Czech Republic

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Abstract: Although teaching interpreting has a relatively long tradition in the Czech Republic, little is known about the concrete approaches and methods used by trainers. This article presents the results of a 2018 questionnaire survey conducted among university-based and freelance interpreter trainers, which yielded 63 responses from professionals teaching interpreting in 15 different language combinations. The aim of the survey was to discover a) what is the trainers' main approach in teaching interpreting; b) which strategies, skills and methods are actively trained; c) where do trainers perceive a lack of didactic materials. The online questionnaire contained a mix of open and closed questions distributed over four sections. The results offer a comprehensive overview of the current trends in interpreter training in the Czech Republic.

Keywords: training, survey, holistic approach, componential approach, materials, ICT

1. Introduction

Interpreter training is a highly specialized endeavor that has evolved significantly since the professionalization of the field. Over the years, developments in interpreter training have mirrored the more general shifts in educational theory. The first decades of systematic interpreter training were entirely behavioristic: the method of the Paris School, which became prevalent, was the traditional master-apprenticeship based on a holistic, transmissionist approach to teaching, which was heavily teacher-centered and provided prescriptive answers (Pöchhacker 2004, 69). In the 1950s, cognitive sciences explored mental processes such as thinking, problem-solving, and memory, which was somewhat

later reflected in the cognitive models of the interpreting process and the definition of the various components making up the process that were separated for training.

Interpreter training of the 1970s and 1980s was characterized by a shift towards constructivism, based on the idea that learners are not passive recipients of knowledge, proposed in particular by Piaget and Vygotsky (Motta 2016, 134). They believed that knowledge could not be "transmitted by teachers to students, because it is constructed by individuals engaging in collaborative dialogue with others" (Sandrelli and de Manuel Jerez 2007, 272). This approach stresses the context of learning, social interactions in a community of peers and more experienced experts, and places students at the center of the learning process. Teachers have thus become guides and facilitators rather than the major authority in terms of critique and correct solutions.

More recently, scholars have stressed the need to support the acquisition of twenty-first-century skills. In the words of Dumont, Istance, and Benavides (2010), education needs to prepare students for "jobs that do not exist yet, to use technologies that have not yet been invented, and to solve problems that we don't even know are problems yet" (qtd. in Motta 2016, 134). This means that learners have to develop lifelong learning skills and innovative skills, flexibility, and creativity. They must be able to reflect on their performance and improve it throughout their lifetime to be able to adapt to the ever-changing twenty-first century world. This gave rise to concepts of interpreter/interpreting competence(s) and adaptive expertise constructed through cognitive apprenticeship. Cognitive apprenticeship (Moser-Mercer 2008) is the term for learning that takes place in an environment that encourages learners to solve problems creatively, where they have ample opportunities to observe and learn expert practices and are at least partly responsible for their own learning and assessing its outcomes.

The aim of the questionnaire survey was primarily to discover which are the current methods and approaches in interpreter training in the Czech Republic. The three main approaches recognized in the survey are *holistic, componential,* and a combination of both. In the holistic approach, the total task is performed most of the time. Its proponents believe that a skill is best trained when it is in a form similar to the whole task. Scholars have warned about a number of problems associated with this approach, among them resource overload, which leads to frustration and panic on the part of the learner (Schneider in de Groot 2000, 54). On the other hand, the componential approach differentiates the component skills that make up the interpreting process and provides training in each one separately, gradually integrating them in more complex tasks. While it is generally agreed that the interpreting process is composed of several interdependent sub-skills and that automation of individual components is a key element of expertise, there has been less agreement on "how to subdivide the task into such skills, on whether and to what

extent they can or should be taught separately, in sequence or in parallel, and on how to ensure their subsequent integration in the criterion task" (Setton and Dawrant 2016, 61).

Since there is no consensus over the ideal methodology, the survey set out to explore what is the stance of the Czech trainers, who were asked to explain their rationale for using one or the other or how they combine them. The questionnaire also featured questions addressing topics such as modeling, community of practice, use of ICT (information and communication technology), and the design of the trainer's own materials. The second part of the questionnaire focused on skills and strategies actively trained by participants.

In relation to the above-mentioned, three hypotheses were put forward and tested in the survey:

H1: *The main approach to teaching varies in accordance with students' proficiency in interpreting.*
H2: *Trainers mainly use the Internet to find speeches to interpret.*
H3: Trainers create additional exercises to complement recordings or to train specific skills.

A secondary aim of the survey was to discover which are the skills, strategies, and methods where trainers perceive a lack of didactic materials.

The impetus to conduct such research came from Hunt-Gómez and Moreno's article on court interpreting pedagogy in Spain: "[an] interesting initiative would be to gather information from professionals and university teachers, using a specifically created questionnaire to find out their interests and needs when it comes to training court interpreters" (Hunt-Gómez and Gómez Moreno 2015, 202). Although their suggestion applies to court interpreting specifically, the author believes that a similar, albeit more general survey would bring interesting insight into the current trends in interpreting pedagogy in the Czech Republic, especially since no such research has been conducted in the country as of 2018.

2. The Survey

The survey was carried out over the summer and fall of 2018. Respondents were university-based or freelance interpreter-trainers that were found online and/or recommended to me by other interpreters. In order to reach as many participants as possible, a simple Google Forms questionnaire was designed and sent out to 100 professionals via email.

The questionnaire included a mix of open and closed questions distributed over three sections.

Part I dealt with general information such as institutional background, language combination, and the main pedagogical approach – respondents could choose from a

holistic or componential approach or a combination of both. Those who opted for the holistic or componential approach were subsequently asked about their rationale for using it. Those who selected a combination of both were asked about the ratio of the two and if and how it varied over the study period. The first section also featured a set of yes/no questions asking whether participants use the Internet, interpreting textbooks, ICT, and whether they create their own materials. After a positive answer, respondents were redirected to a question asking them to specify which concrete sources they use. As for ICT, they could select one or more options, depending on the function of ICT (see Figure 2).

Part II concerned strategies and skills actively trained by respondents. It consisted of three categories loosely based on the interpreting process (Understanding, Processing, and Production) and a General category. Each category comprised a list of methods, skills, and strategies (see Table 1). Participants were asked to mark those they actively teach. Since the list was not exhaustive, they were invited to add any other areas in the comments section.

The same layout was used in Part III, which invited respondents to select those strategies, skills, and methods for which they would like to have some teaching materials. Again, this section was complemented by a comments section.

Understanding	Processing	Production
Active listening	Compression	Correction
Anticipation – extralinguistic	Explanation	Expression skills in L1 (register, vocabulary)
Anticipation – linguistic	Generalization	Expression skills in L1
Audio word recognition	Identification of the main idea	Focus on intonation
Note taking	Memory exercises	Presentation skills
Use of recordings in bad quality	Omission of redundant information	
Use of accented recordings	Paraphrasing in L1	**General**
Focus on idioms, pat phrases, collocations	Paraphrasing in L2	Modeling (teacher/professional interpreter/peer)
Focus on topic-specific vocabulary	Segmentation	Role play
Use of the same recording in different speeds (in the same group)	Simplification	Mock conferences
	Split attention	Pair work, group work
	Transformation (syntactic, of nominal chains, …)	

Table 1: Skills and strategies

3. Results

Of the 100 contacted professionals, 23 responded they did not feel that they could complete the questionnaire (the most common reason being the fact that they primarily deal with literary translation). Of the remaining 77 respondents, 63 completed the questionnaire. The following results are based on their responses. Data collected in Google Forms were analyzed by means of simple qualitative and quantitative analysis for open questions and counting for closed questions.

3.1 Results: Part I

In terms of institutions, the majority of respondents teach in university T&I programs (58%), followed by a lesser number of trainers in other university programs (41%) and public courses (20%). This question allowed for multiple choice and the overlap of 19% indicates that some respondents teach at multiple institutions. In the comments section, several respondents pointed out that they were practicing interpreters and only teach occasionally, while others admitted to having limited experience in teaching. We must bear in mind that the conditions under which they teach will vary considerably (as pedagogical approaches in a one-semester public course vary from fully-fledged higher education curriculum), and the results are therefore rather general.

Figure 1 below shows languages featured in the questionnaire: interpreting is taught in 15 different language combinations. It has been assumed that all trainers' combinations always include Czech, even if not explicitly stated. Slovak has not been reflected in the data.

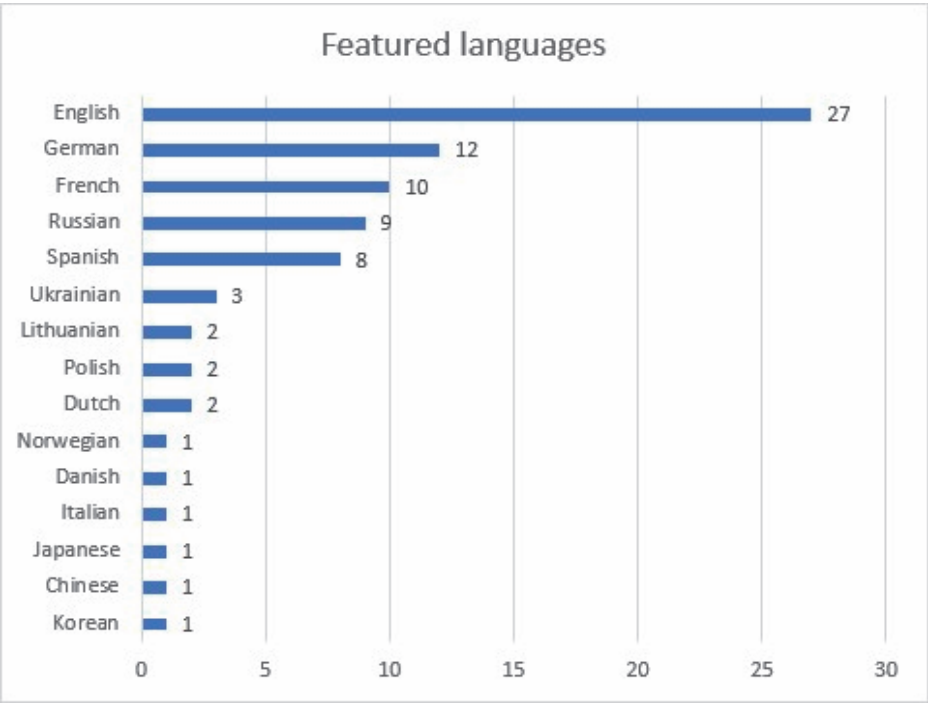

Figure 1: Featured languages

In terms of the main approach, the holistic approach is used by 11%, componential by 16%, and a combination of both by 73% of participants. Participants were also asked to specify the rationale for using the selected approach. For the componential approach, trainers said they find its progressing nature "logical" or use it in training students from other study programs, such as linguistics or literature students who take interpreting as an optional course and whose main aim is not to become professional interpreters. The rationale for using the holistic approach was mainly teaching advanced interpreting students or preferring a more integrative approach that enables students to see the whole process from a more complex perspective. However, a vast majority use a combination of both. Their answers indicate that in the first stages of training, they use the componential approach to train isolated tasks before integrating them into a more holistic approach, thus progressing over the study period and adjusting the difficulty to their students' proficiency. Therefore, hypothesis H1: *The main approach to teaching varies in accordance with students' proficiency in interpreting* has been confirmed.

Results show that the use of the Internet has become standard: only one respondent claimed that s/he does not use it at all. Respondents most often make use of YouTube, Speechpool, Speech Repository, TED and Orcit, followed by a wide range of state or EU institutional and government department websites. Media websites are also a common source. In addition, several respondents stated that they also use recorded speeches from events where they themselves interpreted. Ústav translatologie Karlovy univerzity (Institute of Translation Studies at Charles University's Faculty of Arts) has its own database of speeches, called DAVID, which is available only to trainers and students of the department. Hypothesis H2: *Trainers mainly use the Internet to find speeches to interpret* has been confirmed.

Responses regarding interpreting textbooks showed a greater difference: 64% of participants use them, while 36% do not. Among the most commonly used sources are Roderick Jones' *Interpretation: Techniques and Exercises*, Andrew Gillies' *Conference Interpreting,* and a wide array of theoretical sources.

Figure 2 shows that most respondents use ICT to some extent – mainly for communication with students (67%) and sharing materials: sending students scholarly articles, interesting links and other theoretical sources (self-study I), providing students with recordings to practice at home (self-study II), recordings to practice at home and later in class (self-study III) yielded 63%, 54% and 35%, respectively. Communication among students received a relatively low score (27%), indicating that this type of communication takes place mainly in face-to-face sessions. Only a few respondents have specialized software at their disposal (21%).

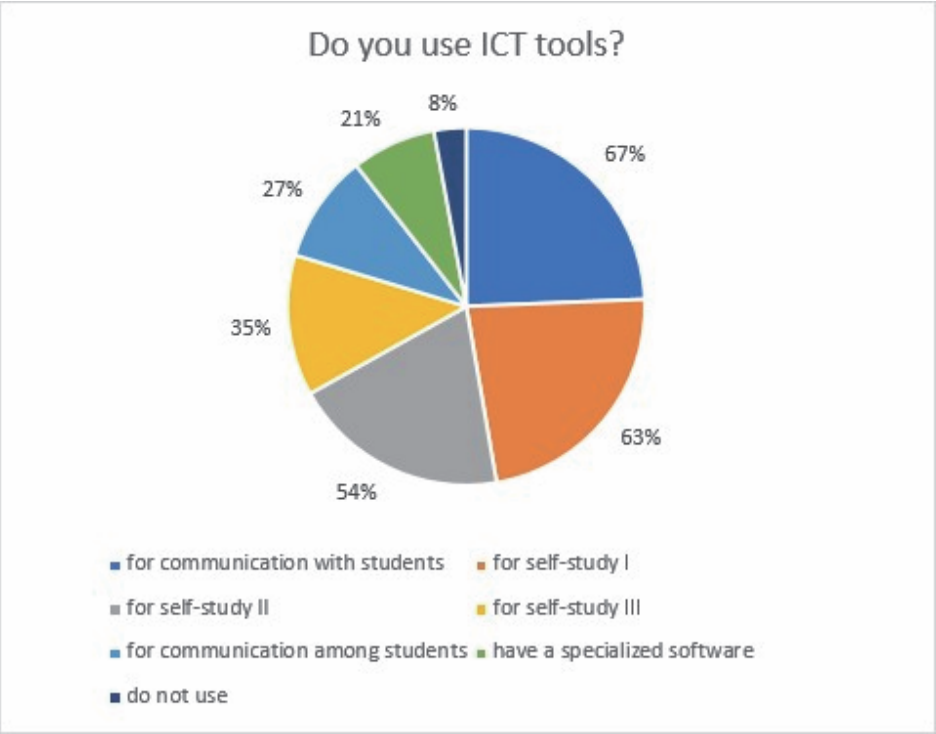

Figure 2: ICT tools

When asked about the specific platform they use, respondents mentioned Moodle (63%), university intranet websites (16%), email (9%) and other media (4%), such as shared clouds, Facebook or Google Classroom.

Finally, it has been found that 94% of respondents create their own materials. When asked to specify which materials they make, some respondents provided very vague answers, such as "exercises," which could not be counted in the analysis. On the other hand, others produced very detailed answers. Figure 3 shows activities that received ten or more mentions.

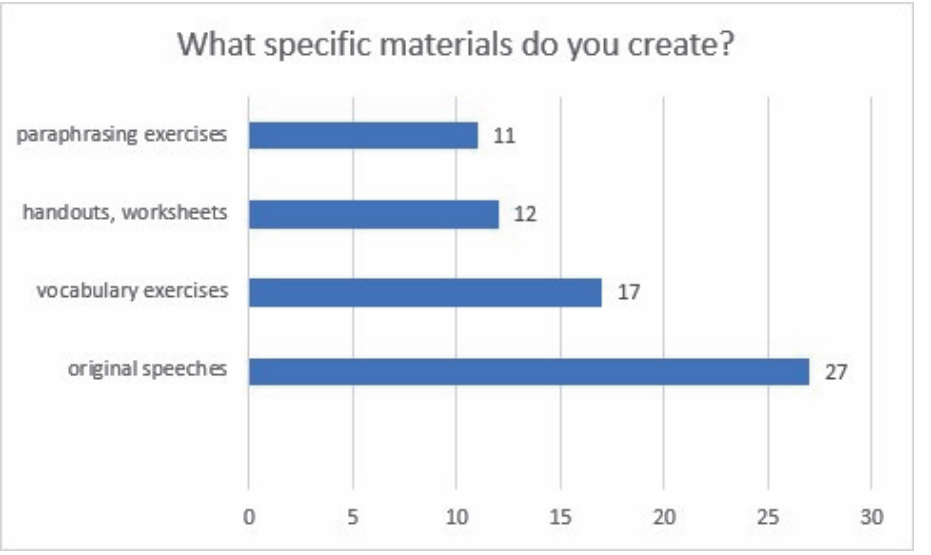

Figure 3: Own materials

Respondents create their own speeches or edit existing ones to suit the needs of the class and prepare theoretical handouts or worksheets to complement speeches. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the highest count in this category is 27, indicating that less than a third of respondents prepare the most commonly mentioned type of material. In addition to these, a surprisingly wide range of other activities were listed, albeit only by a few participants and therefore reaching a low count: among others, there were anticipation exercises, role play, memory games, notation exercises or presentations to complement recordings.

3.2 Results: Part II

The second part of the questionnaire set out to explore which areas are actively included in training by respondents. The following figures show the results for all the languages combined (including English), and for English separately.

Practically all areas are found in training to some extent. Only a few yielded low scores: audio word recognition, varied speed and modeling. On the other hand, many yielded scores higher that 50 and most higher than 30. In addition to the areas listed in Figures 4–7, 9 respondents included more activities in their comments: shadowing, relay interpreting, various self-study activities, students' home preparation (especially in terms of vocabulary research), stress management, evaluation process and standards,

rules of cooperation in the booth, practicing interpreting and notetaking while standing up, interpreting for an authentic listener. These comments prove that some respondents attempt to cover all the major aspects of the interpreting profession – probably those teaching in T&I programs, as opposed to trainers who teach interpreting to students of other programs in optional seminars.

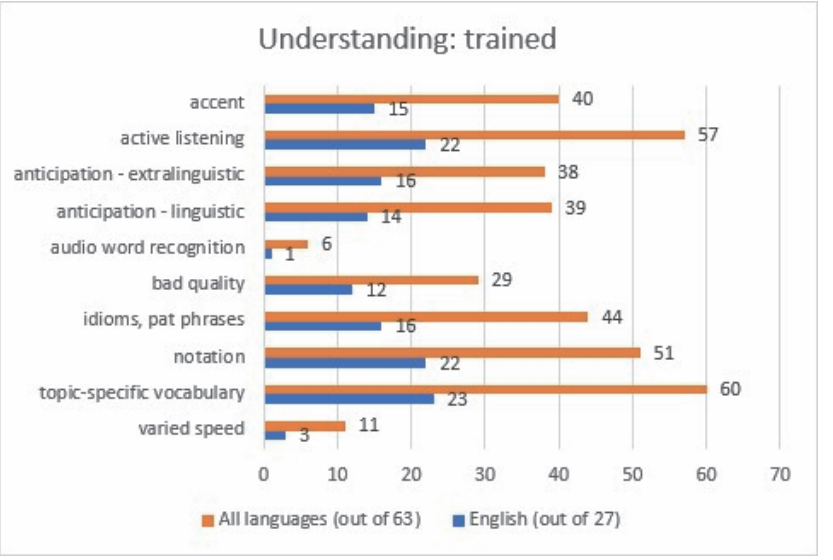

Figure 4: Understanding: trained

The results show that topic-specific vocabulary and active listening are trained universally by almost all respondents, while audio word recognition or interpreting the same recording at various speeds (which both require editing of the source in a special software) are less common.

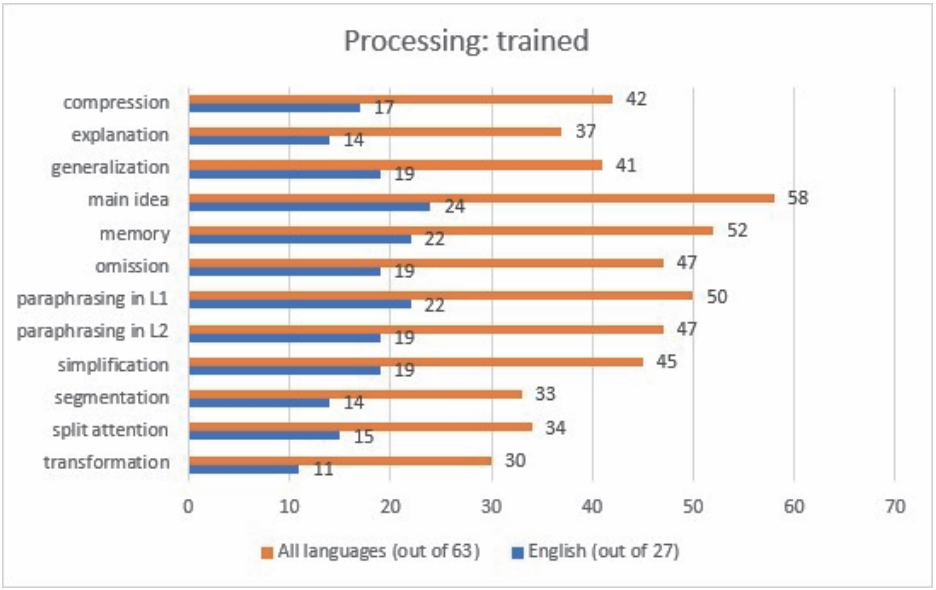

Figure 5: Processing: trained

All the skills and strategies in this category are trained to some extent, the most commonly taught are identification of the main idea, memory, omission, and paraphrasing in both the mother and foreign languages.

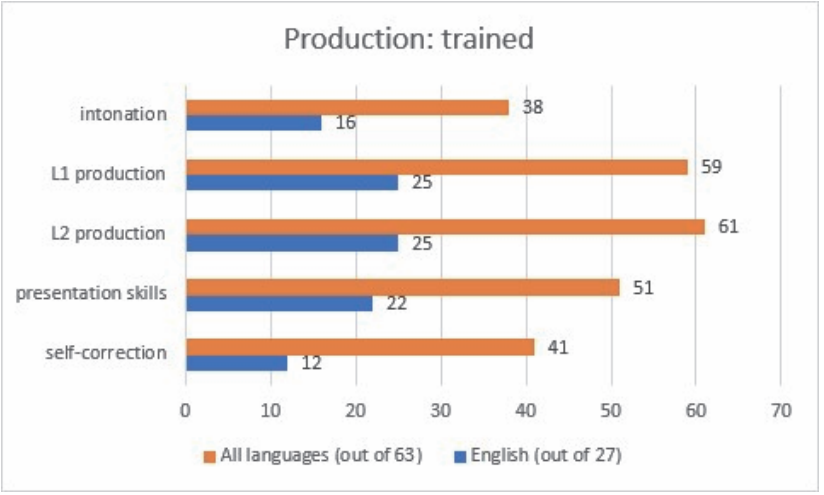

Figure 6: Production: trained

In the production category, L1 and L2 production scored the highest in all languages, as well as in English.

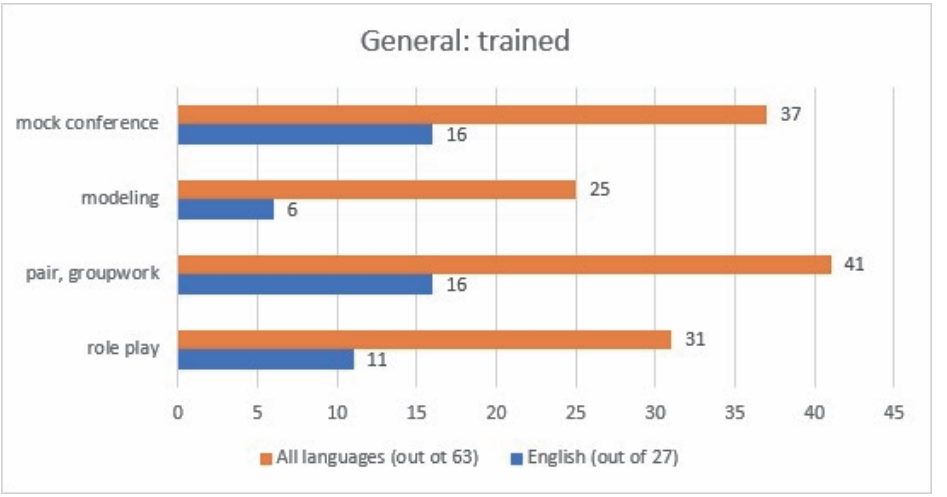

Figure 7: General: trained

The results show that modeling is used by only 25 respondents. This was rather surprising as modeling is a widely recommended and highly effective tool.

3.3 Results: Part III

The third part of the questionnaire invited respondents to select areas for which they would like to have didactic materials. As above, the following figures show the results for all languages combined and for English separately.

The figures clearly show areas where trainers perceive a lack of didactic materials. Idioms, pat phrases, and extralinguistic anticipation reached the highest count (25), followed by memory (20), transformation, segmentation and linguistic anticipation (19), and topic-specific vocabulary, varied speed, role play, and split attention (18).

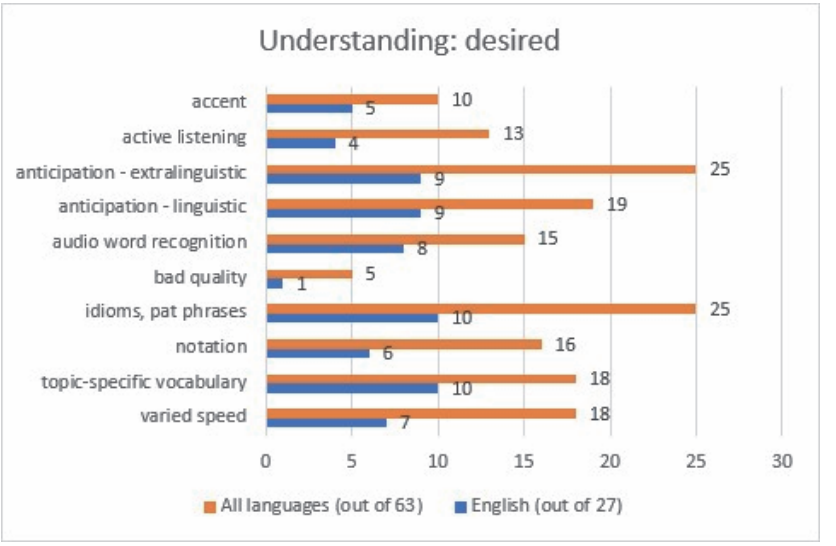

Figure 8: Understanding: desired

The results show that most trainers are interested in exercises on both types of anticipation and idioms and pat phrases, which are closely followed by materials on topic-specific vocabulary and recordings that present the same content at various speeds.

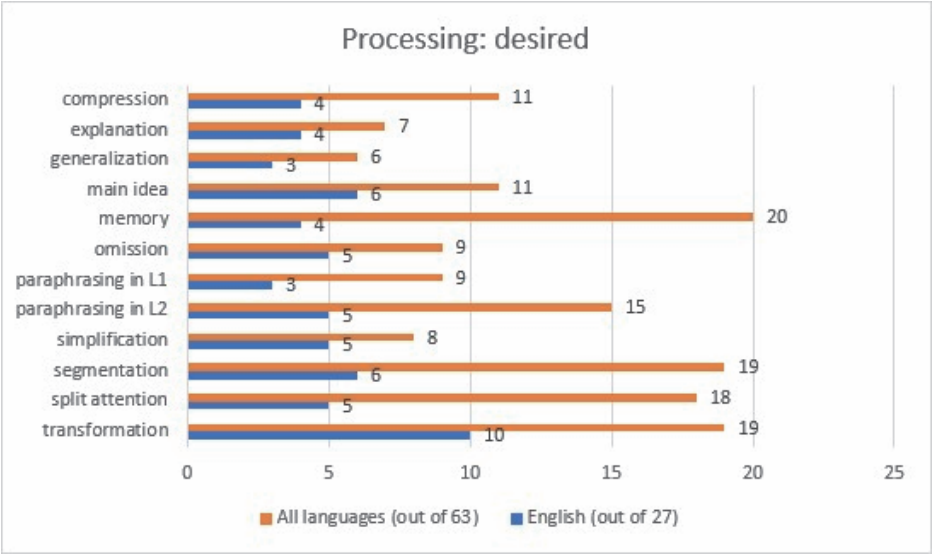

Figure 9: Processing: desired

In the processing category, memory exercises scored the highest number of points, together with segmentation and syntactic transformation.

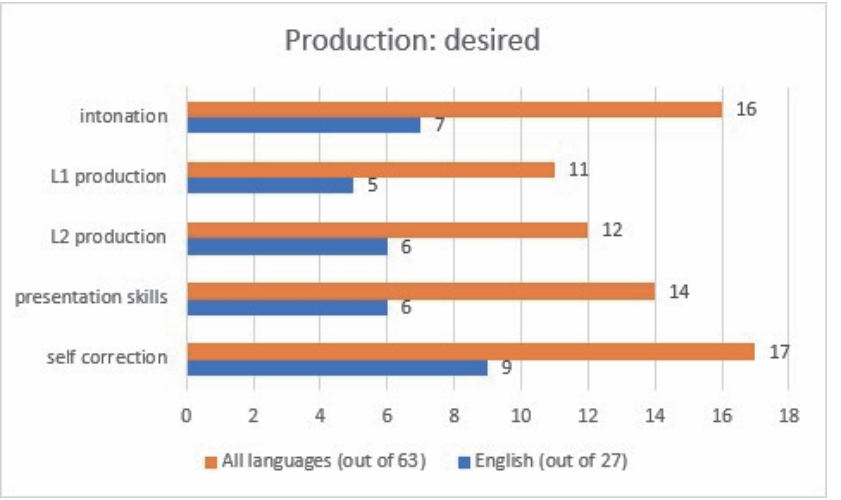

Figure 10: Production: desired

In terms of production skills, respondents are interested in materials on self correction and intonation.

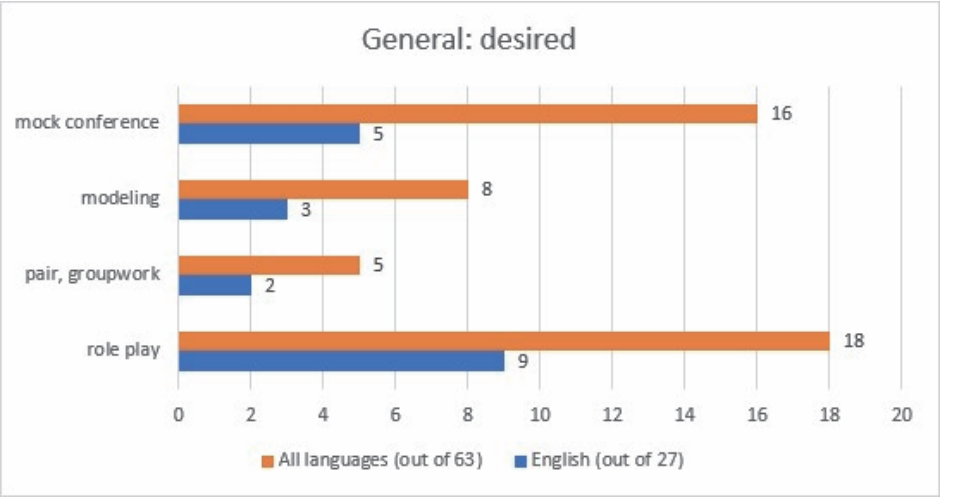

Figure 11: General: desired

In the general category, role play and mock conferences scored the highest.

4. Conclusion

As mentioned above, the survey results are based on responses from 63 interpreter trainers. However low this number may seem, it is actually rather high since interpreter training is an extremely specialized activity, even more so in the Czech Republic where the community of interpreters is expected to be rather small.

The first part of the questionnaire showed that the initial assumption put forward in H1: *The main approach to teaching varies in accordance with students' proficiency in interpreting* was correct. Trainers adapt their main teaching approach to the level of students' proficiency and progress from a more componential training of isolated skills to a more integrative approach. According to the results, virtually all trainers use ICT and the Internet to some extent. Hypothesis H2: *Trainers mainly use the Internet to find speeches to interpret* has been confirmed. It has to be noted that several trainers also use authentic materials from events where they themselves interpreted. This enables them to focus on aspects that are considered problematic from the trainer's perspective and provide real-life examples of possible solutions.

While using ICT in teaching has become a standard for most trainers, its use for communication among students achieved a relatively low score (27%), indicating that communication among students takes place mainly in face-to-face sessions. This area holds great potential for improvement: students can cooperate in preparation for a task, can provide feedback, and share information with their peers via online forums and thus help save precious on-site time for more guided interpreting practice. Moreover, collaborative learning is vital for the development of cognitive apprenticeships and is facilitated by universal access to social media websites, which can serve pedagogical purposes.

The results show that a substantial majority of respondents (94%) create some form of their own materials. This finding confirms H3, which postulated that *Trainers create additional exercises to complement recordings or to train specific skills*. Although the variety of materials that were mentioned is wide, the number of respondents who design each type is rather low. Original speeches (the most commonly mentioned type of additional exercise) were created by 27 participants, which is less than one third. This suggests that while most participants create some materials, a few of them take the extra step and design materials to cover a variety of aspects of the interpreting profession.

The second part of the questionnaire, asking about methods used and strategies actively used in training by teachers, yielded some interesting results. Among them is the fact that trainers do not use modeling very often (used by 25 respondents), although it should not be too demanding or time-consuming. Observing a model of performance (provided either by the trainer, a guest expert, a more experienced student, or a peer) is a highly useful tool in interpreter training which fosters the development of cognitive

apprenticeship through enhancement of self-evaluation and goal-setting skills, and serves as a great source of inspiration and motivation. As mentioned above, modern technologies and social media can come to the trainer's aid: students can easily record their performance, upload it online, and let others listen to it and reflect on it.

L2 and L1 production, topic-specific vocabulary, active listening, note-taking, memory, paraphrasing, omission and presentation skills scored the highest on the list of skills and strategies that are actively taught in training. This suggests that trainers focus both on linguistic aspects, as well as non-linguistic ones.

The last part of the questionnaire, which asked participants to select areas for which they would like to have more materials, has shown that trainers (in all languages combined) are mainly interested in exercises on idioms and pat phrases, anticipation, memory, transformation, segmentation, topic-specific vocabulary, role play, varied speed and split attention. Interestingly, two skills can be found both among the most common training aspects and the most desired ones: memory and topic-specific vocabulary. This fact indicates that memory and topic-specific vocabulary are considered essential by the trainers. For English, the results were similar: trainers mostly want exercises on linguistic transformation, idioms and pat phrases, topic-specific vocabulary, anticipation skills, self-correction, role play, audio word recognition, varied speed, and intonation.

The article has presented the outcomes of a survey carried out among interpreter trainers in the Czech Republic. When interpreting the data, it has to be borne in mind that participants come from very different institutional backgrounds, which inevitably generalized the results found. A survey directed at trainers in one type of training institution would allow for a more detailed analysis. The broad, topical areas of ICT and e-learning were only touched upon in a few questions to provide a general overview and to keep the scope manageable. On the other hand, these deficiencies provide solid ground for further research.

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Text in the Booth: Friend or Foe

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Abstract: This article deals with the results of an experiment conducted in the field of simultaneous interpreting with a text. We focus on monitoring this technique within the didactic process. The main goal of this research is to observe the influence of the presence of the written text in the booth on the quality of the output. This can be both positive and negative according to the level of experience of the interpreter. Based on the principle of tendencies in participants' performance, we present some basic guidelines for creating suitable exercises, focused on various problematic aspects of this technique.

Keywords: simultaneous interpreting, split attention, visual support

1. Introduction

We present in this article some of the most significant results of an experiment, conducted at the Faculty of Arts of Comenius University in Bratislava and focused on simultaneous interpreting with a text within the didactic process. Before we present the concrete observations from our experiment, we would like to shortly introduce the characteristic features of this interpreting technique.

Simultaneous interpreting with a text (often also referred to as SIT) is a specific sort of interpreting, providing the interpreter with two different sources of perceived information:

a) The acoustic input (the oral form of the interpreted speech, perceived mostly through headphones);

b) The visual input (the written text, which can be provided by the speaker/organiser of the event and contains a preliminary version of the interpreted speech).

In a nutshell, we would say that it is a combination of common simultaneous interpreting (without visual support) and sight interpreting (without acoustic input). This technique is actually, however, much more complex and requires specific training/preparation. To be able to fully comprehend the complexity of Simultaneous Interpreting with a text, we need to realise the demanding character of the distribution of the interpreter's cognitive capacities between at least four different cognitive processes, which must be performed simultaneously. Apart from the three basic phases of simultaneous or sight interpreting (perceiving, analysing and reproduction of the information), the interpreter is also forced to split his/her attention between the listening and reading effort. This makes the process of SIT even more demanding than usual simultaneous or sight interpreting. For an experienced interpreter with sufficient training, the presence of the written text in the booth can be extremely beneficial. The text can serve as a visual support, especially in situations when the interpreter wavers over the content of a complicated part of the speech or is not able to fully recognize information from the acoustic source. There is a need, however, to emphasize that the oral form of the speech should always (or at least in most cases) be the primary and binding source of information for the interpreter, which cannot be replaced by the written text.

Although SIT is currently, according to our own experience, a relatively common interpreting technique in the global, but also local market, the number of research publications and experimental projects in this field can be still labelled as insufficient. In the global context, there are several studies dealing with this topic: the research by Cammoun-Claveria et al. (2009) is focused on the observation of interpreters' performances during the SIT process, but, in contrast to our experiment, consists of a target group of professional interpreters, not students.

In linguistic terms, this topic is approached by Lamberger-Felber and Schneider (2008). The authors researched various sorts of interferences within the SIT process. This project was focused, however, on professional interpreters and its relevance in the didactic context is rather inconsiderable. In our view, the above-mentioned experiment was interesting for its methodological concept, which inspired us to design our own research.

Lambert (2004) has researched the phenomenon of splitting the interpreter's cognitive capacities between the particular mental processes of SIT. The author realised that this aspect can be crucial in the process of creating suitable training methods and guidelines for the interpreters.

In the Slovak context, it is of importance to mention the research of Šveda (2016), focused on the influence of visual support on the process of simultaneous interpreters within the training process. His experiment was oriented, however, on working with PowerPoint presentations, not with a compact text in the booth. He analysed the impact of the visual input on the students' décalage and number of autocorrections. The author indicates the considerably positive impact on the stability of décalage and partially positive on the number of autocorrections. Unlike our experiment, Šveda was not working with the discrepancy between the visual and acoustic input.

Our own research study was preceded by a pilot project, carried out in 2018 within our departments, in the language combinations of German > Slovak and Spanish > Slovak. The goal of the pilot research was to identify some basic trends observed during simultaneous interpreting with a text in the didactic process. Our observations and basic hypotheses, summarized in Tupý and Homola (2019), helped us greatly with the design of the subsequent experiment, described and analysed in this article. This time we were focused not only on rendering separate data, but also on longer sequences of the text and on compact ideas within the speech. We were therefore able to observe more holistic issues and tendencies this time than during our pilot project.

2. Methodology

The research was carried out on the interpreting performance of MA students of translation and interpretation in the second half of the third semester of their SI training. We observed interpreting from English and German into their mother tongue (Slovak). Taking into consideration the limitations of individual groups and language combinations, the number of participants totalled 26 (10 from English and 16 from German). The examined sample included students with a variety of other working languages, namely Italian, Portuguese, Finish and Slovak.

For the purpose of speech, we used the well-known topic of the EU, security, migration and development aid. We decided to use an adapted version of Jean-Claude Juncker's speech State of the Union 2018.[1] Concerning the speech tempo, we can describe the source text as relatively slow with approximately 100 wpm. By means of a propositional analysis, the speech can be categorized as rather saturated.[2] The source speech contained basic terminology from the fields of migration, EU investments, cybersecurity, environmental and fiscal policy.

1 https://ec.europa.eu/commission/sites/beta-political/files/soteu2018-speech_en_0.pdf

2 For detailed information, see Kraviarová (2013).

The segments and items of interest of our research were subsequently selected. We focused on the transposition of numerical data, complex ideas and logical connections. Here we should point out that the acoustic form of the text does not correspond with the visual one throughout the whole speech. In some segments they intentionally differ from each other. Some items were added to the acoustic form of the speech. Others from the written text were not mentioned during the speech, simulating the real behaviour of speakers who decide to make sudden changes, adding or omitting some information.

Via a questionnaire distributed 2 months before the experiment, we conducted a survey of the situation on the Slovak interpreting market and in EU institutions. Most respondents were reached via the Slovak Association of Translators and Interpreters (SAPT). The questionnaire consisted of 8 questions focused mainly on the preparation phase of simultaneous interpreting, the form and the language of the documents provided by the client. We also surveyed how long before the performance the respondents usually received this kind of materials, how they used them and what potential risks they perceived. Based on the responses of the professional interpreters, we strived to simulate realistic conditions, e.g. the interval between receiving the written text and the time of interpreting. We established that the most realistic interval would be receiving the written text 1 day before the interpreting performance (the interval most frequently stated by the respondents). The participants were informed about the topic one week before the performance.

Source language speeches were recorded by native speakers without any strong accent and well known to students. We consequently recorded the students' output of the interpreting process. During the first part of the experiment, students were allowed to make use of the written form of the text received beforehand. As to the second part of the speech, they were not given the text and thus had no chance to use any visual input. This approach enabled us to compare their behaviour and performance in both situations.

We observed the transposition of selected items, e.g. numerical data and whole statements and logic linking between ideas. For this purpose, selected sequences of the output were transcribed, corresponding to the predefined items from the source speech. The following findings result from a thorough analysis of all the recorded participants' performances. Each utterance was individually considered in the overall context. We chose this approach to identify the possible cause of the eventual incorrect transposition. This provided us with useful clues about the behaviour of every single student, such as the syntactical structure transposed from the source language.

3. Findings

3.1 Compact Ideas and Longer Sequences

As we have already mentioned, during our experiment we were focused not only on the transpositions of separate data, but also on compact ideas and the longer sequences of the text. For this purpose, we selected two compact sequences in each of the two parts of the text (interpreted with and without the visual support). We analysed the content of the transposed information in the target text, its syntactical structure and also the applied interpreter's strategy. In this article we try to present the most significant trends which we discovered during our qualitative analysis.

The first relevant trend, observed when comparing the performances of students interpreting with and without visual support, is the transferring of some morpho-syntactical structures from the source into the target language. This phenomenon was occurring much more frequently with the students interpreting with the text in the booth. The final effect was then quite disturbing for an objective listener. The interpreters often produced meaningful, but syntactically or lexically wrong sentences, under the influence of the source language. Some examples follow below:

Source language	Source utterance	Target utterance
En	*What is the State of the Union today?*	*Čo je práve dnešný stav únie...*
En	*Ten years after Lehman Brothers, Europe has largely turned the page on an economic and financial crisis...*	*Desať rokov po Lehmanových bratoch Európa otočila stranu ekonomickej a finančnej krízy...*
En	*Never have so many men and women – 239 million people – been in work in Europe.*	*Nikdy toľko mužov a žien, 239 miliónov ľudí bolo v práci v Európe.*
De	*Zehn Jahre nach der Lehman-Pleite hat Europa die Wirtschafts- und Finanzkrise weitgehend überstanden*	*Desať rokov po Lehmanovskom krachu Európa prestála hospodársku a finančnú krízu...*
De	*Die Jugendarbeitslosigkeit beläuft sich auf 14,8 Prozent.*	*A takisto aj mládežnícka nezamestnanosť sa pohybuje na štrnásť celých 8 percent.*

Table 1: Syntactically or lexically incorrect transpositions

This trend confirms our earlier observations that the students are not using the written text only as a form of visual support, but as a primary source of information (see Tupý and Homola 2019). They literally follow the structure and content of the text in the booth. They obviously consider it an easier way to render the message from the source into the target language as correctly as possible. We also observed several cases when the interference was so strong that the lexical form of the source text was literally leaking into the target language, which made the interpreter's utterance completely incomprehensible (see the following example):

Source utterance in German: Zehn Jahre nach der Lehman-Pleite hat Europa die Wirtschafts- und Finanzkrise weitgehend überstanden.
Target utterance in Slovak: Desať rokov po Lehman plaite Európa svoju krízu úspešne zvládla

Another significant trend, which could be observed in our analysis, was the positive influence of the presence of the written text in the booth on the correct transposition of numerical data. It is noticeable that the visual input was significantly helping students in properly recognizing the number mentioned in the source text and transferring it to the target language. This positive effect was only observed, however, in the case of transposition of concrete numbers, but not with their embedment in the context. During our analysis, we frequently encountered situations when a student was able to transfer a correct number, but he/she changed the order of the number (thousands instead of hundreds, millions instead of billions, etc.) or he/she didn't recognize the relationship between two numbers or between the initial and final status. Concrete examples follow in the table below:

Source language	Source utterance	Target utterance
En	*Jobs have returned, with almost 12 million new jobs created since 2014.*	*Viac ako 12 miliónov nových pracovných miest vzniklo od roku 2014*
En	*When it comes to our targets for reducing CO2 emissions by 35 % by 2030...*	*Keď hovoríme o emisiách oxidu uhličitého, do roku 2030 chceme, aby boli 35 %...*
	Nowadays we are producing in Central Europe 85 million tons CO^2 each year	*Dnes produkujeme v strednej Európe 85 % emisií oxidu uhličitého*

Source language	Source utterance	Target utterance
De	*Dieser Fonds hat bisher 335 Milliarden Euro an öffentlichen und privaten Investitionen mobilisiert*	*Tieto fondy doteraz vyčlenili 335 miliónov eur na verejné a privátne investície.*
De	*In gegenwart produziert man in Mitteleuropa 85 Millionen Tonnen CO2 pro Jahr*	*Momentálne produkuje Európa 85 miliónov ton plastov*

Table 2: Examples of transposition of numbers in context

3.2 Rendering of Modified Data

First of all, let us consider the numerical data. In the following examples, the students have been given a text with slightly changed numbers:

1) *...could have put **26** satellites in orbit...* (audio)
   *...could have put **25** satellites in orbit...* (text in the booth)
2) *...and all other **26** Member States will always show loyalty…* (audio)
   *...and all other **27** Member States will always show loyalty…* (text in the booth)

In these two utterances, we obtained very similar results. From the total of 26 participants, 0 managed to interpret the utterance number i. correctly (audio OK). Only 2 were successful (audio OK) in the case of utterance number ii. There is a clear prevalence of transpositions according to the text in the booth (utterance 1 – 21 students, utterance 2 – 20 students). We registered some cases of omitting the whole idea and thus the number. As concerns the rest of the transpositions, expected hesitations before uttering the number appeared. Within various manifestations of hesitation, we counted on a pause before the number, which is followed by interpreting the idea, not mentioning the numerical date. At this point we assume that this transposition is not always fully valid in terms of the remaining content and formal aspects.Additional observed behaviour consisted of mentioning the first part of the number, e.g. *dvads…* and then finishing the idea using the strategy of generalization, e.g. *všetky ďalšie členovia* or *všetci ostatní*. This attempt at generalization is not always executed correctly. Nevertheless, we rarely registered cases of correct transposition omitting the number, e.g. *všetky členské štáty*.

Secondly, let's consider the following segment of the speech, where we focussed on the transposition of the time datum, not taking into account the transposition of the number:

What is the State of the Union today, in 2018? Ten years after Lehman Brothers, Europe has largely turned the page on an economic and financial crisis which came from outside but which cut deep at home. Europe's economy has now grown for 21 consecutive ***quarters****.* (audio)

...21 consecutive ***years****...* (text in the booth)

In the case of numerical data, the students also tended to follow the text in this category of data. We recorded no correct transposition (0 audio OK) and 23 transpositions for the written text (*21 rokov*). The students blindly followed the visual input, even more if we consider that they had the text beforehand and were not able to notice the logical discordance of the utterance. We registered, however, a small number of completely or partly omitted ideas. In some cases it seems that it could have happened due to the detection of an illogical unit of meaning.Items where the tendency to follow the written text seems to be less frequent and less concerning are also apparent. A good example are the items from the text in the booth that do not appear in the speech. We monitored two subcategories:

a) whole paragraphs
b) addresses

As for the subcategory a), we recorded 20 correct (audio OK) transpositions of the content corresponding to a whole paragraph omitted by the speaker. Despite the correct output, not rendering the paragraph, this discordance between the audio and the visual input left a footprint on the quality of the interpreted content. It is detrimental to the tempo of their output and to full concentration. It is apparent that it results in the participants being out of tempo and is detrimental to full concentration. Their capacities are being occupied by verifying the input, which leads to undesirable occurrences of silent or filled pauses and phenomena such as rustling papers.

Moreover, this inaccurate split of attention has a side effect in the form of a negative influence on the transposition of the ideas, which follow immediately after the point in question. The first idea of the following section especially suffers omission or generalization.

Five transpositions, according to the text in the booth, appeared. We observed cases of rendering a paragraph not stated in the oral speech. This approach leads to series consequences. Due to an extremely long unsustainable decalage, the transposition of the next set of ideas is inaccurate (if any).

Similar behaviour can be seen in the transposition of a short paragraph representing the address *Mr President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*. 22 audio OK, 3 according to the text in the booth, 1 longer omitted section of the speech. We observed that the short address is also enough to cause problems with orientation in the text and consequently some hesitation and loss of rhythm, which can lead to lower quality when interpreting the subsequent ideas. On the other hand, we should consider that adding an address by an interpreter in the middle of the speech is generally far less serious in terms of content changing, in comparison to adding an entire segment filled with ideas. Here it is also possible to keep the decalage relatively appropriate. Thus, it is a matter for discussion if following the text in exchange for fluent output is a better option in this particular situation.

Interesting results were observed when the speaker decided to add content not stated in the written text. For instance, we paid attention to an added paragraph:

But there is no applause when EU law dictates that Europeans have to change their clocks twice a year. The Commission is today proposing to change this. Clock-changing must stop. Member States should themselves decide whether their citizens live in summer or winter time. It is a question of subsidiarity. I expect the Parliament and Council to share this view. (audio)10 out of 26 students were able to render it properly. 7 closely followed the written text without rendering the inserted paragraph. If the participant tried to maintain fluency, this approach inevitably lead to anticipation of the speaker. We discovered that when the student became aware of it he/she started to reformulate the ideas of the segment just interpreted, and tried to wait for the speaker. He/she applied the redundancy as a solution for this uncomfortable situation.

Another applied approach is to vaguely mention some of the concepts uttered by the speaker. This unsatisfying strategy also prevails with the remaining participants (9). It was occasionally accompanied by unfinished sentences.

Last, but not least, we should pay attention to relatively short items added by the speaker in the middle of an enumeration. Let us consider the following utterance:

When, amidst dangerous global tensions, I went to ***Beijing, Tokyo and Washington*** *in the space of one week last July, I was able to speak, as President of the European Commission, on behalf of the world's biggest single market.* (audio)

When, amidst dangerous global tensions, I went to ***Beijing and Washington*** *in the space of one week…* (text in the booth)

According to the results, none of the participants were able to reveal this added item. We found 20 transpositions, reproducing only the items from the written text and 1 transposition with just the equivalent of Beijing.

All the above trends described indicate a relatively remarkable affinity of the students to follow the visual input during the SIT process. As we have already shown, this tendency can have various negative effects on their utterance in the target language. Our observations during the analysis led us to the conclusion that there is a need to create a set of specialized exercises focused on the coordination between acoustic and visual input.

4. Implications for the Training Process

It is of paramount importance within the didactic process to emphasize the function of the text in the booth as a visual support to an oral speech, not as a primary source of information. For this purpose, we decided to propose some basic guidelines for creating suitable exercises, focused on various problematic aspects of this interpreting technique. There is a need, however, to mention that these exercise models were not originally created by the authors of this article. We have only selected and put together suitable models designed by renowned experts in the field of interpreter training (see Nolan 2005; Gillies 2013; or Pöchhacker 2015). We have also drawn inspiration from the practical exercises used by Martin Djovčoš and Pavol Šveda during the European Course of Conference Interpreting (2018/2019). We have adapted the original exercises for the needs of the training process of simultaneous interpreting with a text. Briefly, we can categorize them under the four basic patterns, described below. These guidelines are designed so that they can be applied generally, regardless of the source or target languages, and may be inspiring for the improvement of interpreting training in any local context.

Pattern 1

Students receive a slightly modified transcription of an oral speech, containing changed items such as numerical data, time data, enumerations, etc. The task of the students would be to shadow the speech and mark the modified items in the written text. We suggest practicing this form of exercises first in the students' mother tongue, later also in a foreign language.

Pattern 2

Students receive a transcription with omitted data (replaced by blank spaces). They are asked to interpret the speech into their mother tongue, including the omitted items. The goal of such exercises is to develop the skill of the students to abandon the blind following of visual input. The data can be of a similar sort as those in the previous pattern.

Pattern 3
Students work with a transcript of the speech:

a) Containing relatively longer segments omitted by the speaker;
b) Missing relatively longer segments added by the speaker;
c) Combining the two previous models;
d) With the changed order of the segments.

The goal of this pattern is to train the orientation within the text and at the same time coordination of the visual and acoustic channel.

Pattern 4
The task of the students is to shadow a speech and simultaneously read a different text in their mother tongue. After completing the shadowing phase, they are invited to sum up the content of the read text. This model focuses on improving the capacity-management of the interpreters. An advanced form of this pattern could be used in foreign languages.

5. Limitations of the Research

We are aware that this case study does not by far cover all the potential aspects of the research of simultaneous interpreting with a text. The target group was too small to be able to provide universal conclusions for interpreting theory. Our intention was rather to create a basic platform for further research in this field. We recognise several significant points, which need to be further observed and analysed. The relationship between the personality of the student and his/her performance during simultaneous interpreting with a text, the development of the individual performance within the training process, the mental and psychological aspects of the process of simultaneous perceiving of visual and acoustic information, etc. We believe that this article could be an impulse for broader and deeper research in the above-mentioned issues.

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Interpreting in Asylum Hearings: A Research-based Approach and its Implications for Practice and Training

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Abstract: This paper presents the results of a survey conducted for the first time in Greece among the officers of the national Asylum Service about their opinions and expectations of interpreters' work and draws conclusions that may be useful for the training of interpreters who work in the field. More precisely, the survey addresses issues such as the asylum officers' perceptions of the interpreters' professionalism, qualifications and reliability. Their answers provide insight into the current situation in Greece and the manifold areas of competencies and knowledge that are necessary for interpreters in asylum hearings which should be taken into consideration during their training.

Keywords: interpreting in asylum hearings, community interpreting, training, Greek asylum context

1. Introduction

The recent refugee crisis on the European Union's south-eastern borders has brought the need for well-trained interpreters to the forefront. Greece has recorded a dramatic increase in the number of asylum seekers. The applications lodged in 2016, for example, showed an increase of more than 280 per cent compared to the figures for the previous year. In this acute situation, the role of competent interpreters is crucial, since they are the only connecting link, on which both the applicants and the asylum officers depend: the former, in order to give a plausible oral account of their experiences and the latter,

in order to be able to conduct the personal interview with the applicants rapidly and efficiently.

The interpreting needs of the Greek Asylum Service are covered by the interpreters' pool of the non-governmental organization *METAdrasi – Action for Migration and Development*. Since 2010, the organization has offered a ten-day training seminar which focuses not only on interpreting in asylum procedures, but also in hospitals, schools and other NGOs. In addition, it has adopted a system of supervision and reassessment of the interpreters and drafted its own code of ethics. However, the organization has not provided any further details about the exact content of its training program and code of ethics. At the same time, none of the few publications in Greece on community interpreting specifically addresses the asylum hearings setting (e.g. Apostolou 2015; Ioannidis 2015; Resta 2017; Vlachopoulos 2014; 2016).

Due to this complete lack of precise data on interpreting in the Greek asylum context, I decided to conduct a survey among the officers of the national Asylum Service, in order to record for the first time in Greece their opinions and expectations of interpreters' work and, thus, paint a picture of the current state of the profession in the country. In this light, the aim of this paper is to present the main results of the survey and draw conclusions that can be useful in the training of interpreters who work in this specific setting.

2. Research Hypothesis and Applied Methodology

Interpreting in asylum hearings involves several challenges which are rarely recognized by the stakeholders involved in the interaction. Publications and studies carried out worldwide in this context indicate a number of complex issues that pose challenges for interpreters, such as different expectations, role perceptions and role conflicts, language-related issues like different registers and styles, intercultural difficulties, aspects of turn-taking and interactional management, psychological aspects such as coping with vulnerable groups or traumatizing narratives, issues of footing, politeness and professional behavior, lack of compulsory pre-service training for practitioners, poor working conditions, insufficient training opportunities, low social status, etc. (e.g. Bancroft et al. 2013; Hale 2007; Inghilleri 2005; Keselman, Cederborg, and Linell 2010; Kolb and Pöchhacker 2008; Lee 2014; Maryns 2006; Merlini 2009; Pöllabauer 2005; Tipton and Furmanek 2016; Tryuk 2017).

Most of these issues faced by interpreters in asylum hearings are interlinked. Lack of awareness of the complex and demanding nature of interpreting is inextricably connected to a lack of recognition of community interpreting as a highly skilled profession, which in turn is often reflected in the lack of recognition for the need for compulsory

training. Could we, therefore, assume that the Greek asylum officers also hold the common misconception that interpreting is an unskilled activity that does not require any professional training?

In order to test this research question, I decided to investigate the opinions of the most powerful participants in the communicative event, namely the officers of the Greek Asylum Service. Indeed, the asylum officers are in a position of strength, while conducting the personal interview with the applicant and can, therefore, have a significant influence on the way the interpreters perform their duties. For this reason, investigating their opinions on the basis of a survey would be useful in the context discussed here. According to Sandra Beatriz Hale (2007, 219), this methodological approach is appropriate for collecting empirical data regarding the views, attitudes and perceptions of the participants about interpreting and, thus, painting a picture of the current state of the profession in a specific area.

A questionnaire was, therefore, addressed to the officers of the Greek Asylum Service, containing both closed and open questions, which would enable a quantitative and qualitative analysis of their answers. The questions were tested for reliability and acceptability by two former asylum officers who made useful suggestions for improvements. The final version of the questionnaire was developed using the Google Forms platform and was completed online over a period of three weeks (from 18th June to 8th July 2018) by 45 out of 150 asylum officers (the total number of active officers at that time), which corresponds to a response rate of 30%. Regarding its content, the questionnaire was based on a small survey conducted by Hale in Sydney, Australia among legal and medical practitioners, which is presented in her book *Community Interpreting* (2007, 146–56), and was divided into four parts, each consisting of several questions: (a) perceptions of professionalism, (b) requirements on interpreters, (c) working modalities and (d) level of satisfaction. More precisely, the specific questions aimed to discover whether the Greek asylum officers regarded interpreting as a profession or not, the qualifications they required of interpreters, the duties and the responsibilities they assigned to interpreters, their understanding of the role of interpreters in the interaction, modes of interpreting, working conditions, remuneration, trust issues, etc.

3. Results of the Survey

This section of the paper presents some of the main views and expectations of the Greek asylum officers, which emerged from an analysis of the answers they provided in the survey. The results are divided and presented here in three sections according to the relevant subject area.

3.1 Perceptions of Interpreter Professionalism

The first question in this section aimed to discover whether the Greek asylum officers considered interpreting to be as a professional activity or an activity that can be also performed by volunteers. The second question asked whether non-professional, i.e. untrained, unaccredited, ad hoc interpreters are recruited by the Greek Asylum Office and, if so, what distinguishes them from professional interpreters in the opinion of the asylum officers.

To begin with, all the respondents (100%) stated that they consider interpreting to be an activity that must be carried out by professionals. However, only 62% of them could safely say that all the interpreters working at the Greek Asylum Service are professional. When asked about the differences between professional and non-professional interpreters, they highlighted a number of issues related to the lack of adequate training, such as: ignorance of the basic rules of engagement in interaction and conversation management, issues of proper behavior, weak competence in the Greek and the other language, issues of memory skills, incomplete and inaccurate transfer of the utterances, issues of role perceptions (one respondent said "they act more like cultural mediators than interpreters") and the need for more pauses or clarifications.

The last question of this section refers to the criteria that the asylum officers use to assess the interpreters' performance. The asylum officers were asked to evaluate several predefined criteria, which cover a broad range of translatory, linguistic, paralinguistic and ethical factors, by choosing between the values *important*, *very important* and *not important*. In the overall ranking, the criterion of *professional and ethical behavior (punctuality, neutrality, accuracy etc.)* occupied first place, with 87.9% of respondents considering it to be very important, followed by *interpreting skills (memory, note taking techniques)* and *Greek language knowledge* with 82.8% and 75.9% respectively.

In addition, the asylum officers were given the opportunity to note down any other criterion they consider to be important for interpreter performance. According to their responses, a competent interpreter:

a) should not intervene in the interaction by expressing his/her own opinions/judgements,
b) should not misbehave, for example by treating the question asked by the officer to be of no relevance to the matter,
c) should cooperate and facilitate the work of the officer, and
d) should proceed with patience, empathy and professionalism, when difficulties arise (e.g. poor telephone connection, strong accent/dialect, imprecise, inconsistent narration by the applicant).

3.2 Training and Accreditation

This section aims to investigate the views of the asylum officers on the need for compulsory training and/or accreditation of the interpreters. The officers were asked to indicate the formal qualifications that an interpreter needs to have, in order to provide his/her services in the asylum procedures, by choosing one of the following five options: *knowledge of two languages (Greek and another language), working experience*, *short-term seminar offered possibly by an NGO*, *university education in interpreting* and *other*.

It can be concluded from the answers that mere knowledge of two languages is insufficient for interpreters working in asylum hearings, since no officers chose this answer. Regarding the other options, 27.6% of the respondents gave preference to university education, an equal percentage of 27.6% to short-term seminars and 24.1% to working experience. A non-negligible percentage of 20.7% of the asylum officers chose the *other* option, where they noted down that, with the exclusion of the first option (knowledge of two languages), a combination of the other three options would be considered an appropriate qualification. In addition, one officer commented that continuous training is necessary for interpreters in asylum hearings "since the subject area is broad and specialized".

3.3 Reasons for Mistrust and Replacement

The first question of this section aimed to discover whether the asylum officers trust the interpreters. Since only 24.1% of the respondents claimed to have complete confidence in them, the next question aimed to investigate the reasons for their mistrust. For that purpose, the asylum officers were given a set of predefined reasons that they had to evaluate by choosing applicable options. Their responses show that the main reasons for this lack of trust are that:

a) the interpreters do not always fully and accurately interpret the applicants' utterances (89.1%)
b) the interpreters do not have a comprehensive understanding of the applicant's language (72.2%) and
c) their command of Greek is insufficient to fully understand the officers' utterances (63.6%).

Other reasons for mistrust, that were spontaneously mentioned by the Greek asylum officers, exist when the interpreters

a) disagree with the way the officers formulate a question and paraphrase it,

b) refuse to convey a question to the applicant, claiming that the question had been addressed and answered before, and
c) are not able to accurately deliver the original utterance of an applicant and distort its meaning due to their insufficient command of the Greek language.

In response to the last question of the section about the reasons why they may have requested the replacement of an interpreter, the Greek asylum officers indicated several cases relating to translatory, practical and ethical issues:

a) Gender issues (female applicant asked for female interpreter)
b) Insufficient command of the Greek language
c) Poor command of the relevant terminology in both languages
d) Failure to transfer the tone of the utterances
e) Miscommunication between the applicant and the interpreter due to different accents/dialects
f) Resentment, hostile attitude towards the officer, discourteous behavior.

To conclude the survey, participants were asked to highlight any other aspect or issue relating to interpreting or interpreters that they considered to be important for their work. Their answers provide insights into several, old and new, issues:

a) The use of remote interpreting through telephone or video-conference technologies disrupts the normal way in which personal interviews are conducted and distresses both the applicants and the officers.
b) Interpreters need to be better trained regarding the use of legal and asylum-related terms.
c) Interpreters also need to transfer the tone of an utterance.
d) Interpreters need a better command of the Greek language, especially as far as grammar, syntax and cohesion are concerned.
e) Interpreters should not intervene in the duties of the officers by making suggestions about how they should perform their tasks.
f) Interpreters should be constantly up-to-date about topics relating to the applicants' country of origin (politics, social situation, role of religion, current affairs).

4. Conclusions of the Survey

The survey questions described above recorded the views and the comments of the Greek asylum officers on a variety of issues: interpreter professionalism and differences between professionals and non-professionals, evaluation criteria for interpreter performance, educational requirements, trust issues and reasons for replacement. From the analysis of the answers, it can be firstly concluded that the results do not support the research hypothesis formulated above: interpreting is seen by all participants as a professional activity that must be performed exclusively by competent interpreters, while the majority of them consider a university degree, or at least a combination of it with training seminars and work experience, to be a prerequisite for interpreting in asylum hearings. In the same vein, it is encouraging that all the respondents disproved the common misconception that knowing a second language is enough to make someone an interpreter. It appears, therefore, that the officers of the Greek Asylum Service do have a correct perception of interpreting, contrary to the initial assumption that they would think of interpreting as an unskilled task that does not require any relevant training.

A further analysis of their answers could therefore provide valuable insights into the manifold areas of competencies and knowledge which are deemed necessary for interpreters in asylum hearings which should be taken into consideration during their training. The core of these competencies and skills, as can be concluded from the overall assessment of the answers and comments of the survey participants, can be summarized into the following six categories:

a) Language aspects: in several parts of the survey the respondents criticize the poor language competence of the interpreters both in Greek and the language of the applicants. According to their comments, interpreters working in asylum hearings need a better command of the Greek language, especially as far as grammar, syntax and cohesion are concerned, since this shortcoming affects both the phases of reception and transfer of an utterance. Similar problems also arise in cases where interpreters are confronted with different applicant dialects and accents. In addition, the results indicate that an emphasis should also be placed on legal and refugee-related terminology.
b) Cultural aspects: Although none of the respondents made an explicit reference to cultural or intercultural issues, it is a fact that culture is an immanent part of every language and can be reflected in the way people use culture-bound concepts and words or culture-specific manners of expression (Pöllabauer 2015, 212). In this light, the need to cope with gender issues, to be constantly informed about political,

social, religious and other current affairs matters and to be able to transfer not only the message, but also the tone of a speaker, as mentioned by many asylum officers, can be seen as falling within the scope of the interpreters' cultural competence.

c) Interpreting skills: The next issue raised by many participants of the survey relates to the interpreting skills of the interpreters, or, in other words, their ability to know and apply the appropriate interpreting method or strategy. The asylum officers mentioned that in many cases they would need a more complete and more accurate rendition of the utterances, which can be due not only to poor language -but also poor interpreting- skills. This is in line with the comment of an asylum officer on the memory skills of some interpreters that can result in more pauses and more requests for clarifications.

d) Conversation management: Interpreting skills are directly linked with the ability of the interpreters to intervene in the conversation and manage turn-taking. This includes, for example, the knowledge of when and how to interrupt a speaker or ask for repetition or clarification. According to the results of the survey, some interpreters lack familiarity with rules of engagement in the interaction and how the interview is to be coordinated and, thus, hinder the smooth flow of the communication process.

e) Professional behavior: The survey also revealed several questions relating to the ethical and professional behavior of the interpreters that need to be addressed through adequate training. These include cases when the interpreters are, for example, rude, impatient and intrusive or show their resentment or dislike, make suggestions, censor the Asylum Officers and do not cooperate with them. The comment of one officer that some interpreters act more like cultural mediators than interpreters can also be seen in this context, since it indicates a role-perception issue and implies a criticism that interpreters involve to an unacceptable degree or interfere disproportionately with the asylum officer's work.

f) Remote interpreting: The use of remote interpreting was mentioned several times by the participants of the survey as a challenge for the whole asylum process. It appears that the lack of available interpreters in every language or dialect and the fact that the Greek Asylum Service consists of several offices and units across the country (capital city, inland, islands) make interpreting via teleconference or telephone an unavoidable necessity. As one asylum officer commented, telephone interpreting is used for the majority of personal interviews, causing difficulties for both the applicants and the officers. Even though remote interpreting has not yet been sufficiently investigated in the asylum context (Pöllabauer 2015, 206), it appears to be an issue that needs to be taken into consideration, when it comes to training interpreters.

5. Conclusion

The paper presented the main results of the first survey conducted in Greece among the officers of the national Asylum Service about interpreting services and indicated a number of issues (linguistic, cultural, transfer, interactional, ethical and technological) that in their view need to be improved and, therefore, addressed through training. These findings are useful but still not sufficient. For a comprehensive mapping of the field of interpreting in the Greek asylum context, it is necessary to conduct further research that will enable to adopt a holistic approach to interpreting and interpreter training. For this reason, the first step in this direction would possibly be to investigate practicing interpreters' views about their work. Since interpreters are an active part of the communication event, the study of their social and educational background, their age and gender, their origin and, of course, their expectations and perception of their duties and responsibilities could lead to more useful conclusions.

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Teaching Translation vs. Training Translators

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