SURVIVING THE ROLE:
A CORPUS-BASED STUDY OF
SELF-REGULATION IN SIMULTANEOUS
INTERPRETING AS PERCEIVED THROUGH
PARTICIPATION FRAMEWORK AND
INTERACTIONAL POLITENESS

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This copy of the thesis has been supplied on condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that the copyright rests with its author and that no quotation from the thesis and no information derived from it may be published without the prior consent of the author or the University (as may be appropriate).
The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of self-regulation on the behaviour of simultaneous interpreters via a study of participation framework and interactional politeness and to establish some explanatory and predictive principles. Following work on self-regulation in other fields (Bandura 1997), autopoiesis (Maturana and Varela 1998), sociolinguistic studies concerned with contextual matters and participation framework (Duranti and Goodwin 1992; Goffman 1981), interactional linguistic politeness (Brown and Levinson 1987) and interpreting studies (Diriker 2004), this study takes as its starting point the assumption that self-regulation is a viable construct with which to analyse simultaneous interpreting since this working mode is inherently face-threatening. Simultaneous interpreting is characterized by systemic and interpersonal constraints that affect the interpreter's role, thus warranting self-regulatory moves to ensure professional survival. We analyse self-regulation in a corpus of authentic situated texts and identify trends in self-regulatory behaviour across all corpus texts. Analysis is based on a research design consisting of four parts: collection of data, briefing with subjects, textual analysis, debriefing with subjects. We examine personal reference, agency, modality and interactional linguistic politeness and include both a quantitative and qualitative component. A quantitative assessment is primarily concerned with the number of occurrences and the nature of non-obligatory translational shifts. A qualitative analysis consists of collecting personal data on our subjects, analysing shifts using a contextual model designed specifically for the purposes of this study and retrospective studies. The study concludes that the nature of self-regulatory behaviour in the corpus is one of distancing, de-personalisation and the mitigation of illocutionary force. This involves subjects in a position of detachment with respect to both the source text and their own text. A further important finding is the uniformity of this trend, which manifests itself in all interpreted versions of corpus texts.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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My family was a source of encouragement throughout, providing me with a haven when the going got rough. I can never thank them enough.

None of the above can be held responsible for any failings of this work, for which I accept full responsibility.
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Version: FINAL

Degree Sought: PhD

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## ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>Interpreting Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TS</td>
<td>Translation Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIIC</td>
<td>International Association of Conference Interpreters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>Self-regulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₁</td>
<td>Subject (Interpreter) no. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVS</td>
<td>Ear-Voice-Span (décalage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₁</td>
<td>Hearer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MP</td>
<td>Member of Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>Source Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>Target Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>European Forum of Women Parliamentarians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>Relevance Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTA</td>
<td>Face Threatening Act</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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TABLES

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## TRANSCRIPTION KEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>text</th>
<th>literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>text</td>
<td>comments from the Chair or non-primary communicating parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>voiced pause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>end of sentence intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>rising intonation or stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>level intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>marks different elements within a text sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>hesitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>short pause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>::</td>
<td>longer pause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{text}</td>
<td>interpreter's microphone shut, audience hears ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cough&gt;</td>
<td>unclear portions of text, non-verbal features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(text)</td>
<td>description of surrounding text (co-text)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;utterance&quot;</td>
<td>utterance spoken relatively quietly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>boldface</strong></td>
<td>words spoken with emphasis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

"It's funny how all the organisms are alike. When the chips are down, when the pressure is on, every creature on the face of the earth is interested in one thing and one thing only: its own survival."

Dr. Irisllineman (Lois Smith)
Minority Report
Twentieth Century Fox and Dreamworks Pictures
Steven Spielberg, Director (2002)

In drawing conclusions in his study of meaning assembly in simultaneous interpreting, Robin Setton (1998: 199) states, "Experience and corpus findings suggest that survival, then quality in SI, depend on three conditions: [...]" (my emphasis). Indeed most, if not all, professional interpreters would probably agree to place 'survival' before 'quality' as their prime objective on the job. Yet the construct of survival, or 'self-regulation' as commonly known in other branches of science, has never been investigated in Interpreting Studies.

Consider the following cases, both taken from my corpus, where the different layers of social meaning in the source text (ST) compel interpreters to adopt a different alignment or shift their 'footing' (Goffman, 1981). In Sample 1.1 the ST speaker is told to slow down; the speaker interrupts her presentation and turns to entertain an exchange with the Chair.¹

¹ Corpus texts are transcribed in tabular format and segmented according to text sequences that serve a specific rhetorical function (see §5.2.2.2). Horizontal lines segment text sequences in samples illustrated in this study. Those text samples that include long or several sequences include a hyphen (-) to mark the beginning of sequence elements (see transcription key). Text samples are numbered progressively in each chapter: after each sample number is the number of our subject (e.g. 1, refers to interpreter/subject no. 5), and the text sequence to which the sample refers.
Sample 1.1 15-11 ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>plus lentement</td>
<td>more slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>OK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c’est pour gagner des minutes</td>
<td>it is to save some minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>&lt;chuckle&gt; ne ne m’enlevez pas mes minutes (a)</td>
<td>don’t don’t take away my minutes (a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;en liens compte&quot;</td>
<td>I’ll take it into account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>d’accord</td>
<td>fine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interpreter (target text, TT), on the other hand, reports to the audience what the ST speaker says, using the third person (Sample 1.2). She then interjects a comment of her own, using a somewhat informal register ('running', to express rapid speech), and thanks the audience.

Sample 1.2 15-11 TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpreter</td>
<td>la signora dice che correva per guadagnar qualche minuto</td>
<td>the woman says she was running to gain some minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pero se corre così non si riesce a seguire</td>
<td>but if she runs like this it is impossible to follow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grazie</td>
<td>thank you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above example one could surmise the interpreter’s need to inform listeners of what the ST speaker and Chair are saying, but why does she address the audience directly with a comment of her own?

In the following sample (1.3) the ST speaker is a female parliamentarian from Turkey who speaks about the condition of women in her country at all levels. She then also begins to express her views on the condition of Chechen women. Before taking the floor she is told she has only five minutes because another plenary meeting is scheduled. During her talk the Chair tries to interrupt no less than six times before the sequence of utterances in Sample 1.3.
Sample 1.3 to 22 ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delegate</th>
<th>I would like to express briefly my views on the condition of Chechen women which is a gross violation of human rights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>Madame I am sorry Madame I am sorry please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>Russians I think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>sorry Madame we have another meeting now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>the Russians have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>we have another meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>carrying on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>they are waiting outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>a huge massacre and genocide in Chechnya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the victims are women and elderly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The (male) interpreter manages this sequence in the following manner.

Sample 1.4 to 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT channel</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpreter</td>
<td>vorrei esprimere brevemente le mie opinioni sulla condizione delle donne cecene we see we notice there a brutal violation of the rights of man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vediamo ravvediamo li una brutale violazione dei diritti dell'uomo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>&lt;lowers voice&gt; la presidente tenta di interrompere la delegata &lt;lowers voice&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>we have another meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>they are waiting outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreter</td>
<td>sono state vittime di un tragico massacre e genocidio in Cecenia they have been victims of a tragic massacre and genocide in Chechnya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>le vittime sono soprattutto donne e anziani the victims are above all women and the elderly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 1.4 illustrates the TT version of Sample 1.3. When the Chair intervenes (italics) the interpreter turns his microphone off.

In these interpreting samples we find rather obvious evidence of the interpreters' shifts in footing in relation to the ST. This is exemplified in Sample 1.2 by the interpreter's first resorting to the third person (“the woman says”) when addressing the audience directly, then again when interjecting a comment of her own and adopting an informal register. In Sample 1.4 a change in voice pitch (<lowers voice>) signals a shift whereby the interpreter reports the nature of the exchange between the ST speaker and
the Chair (both women). The interpreter then turns off his microphone, making the ST exchange between the Chair (italics) and the speaker at the podium directly available to the TT audience ("meeting carrying on they are waiting outside"), before resuming his work.

Through these shifts in footing the interpreters have adopted a different alignment, thus creating a shift in context in relation to the ST. Contextual shifts of a greater or lesser degree are prominent throughout our corpus. However, the reasons behind such shifts are far from apparent. In their volume entitled *Intercultural Communication*, Scollon and Scollon (1995) convincingly argue that we are all caught between values, norms, and practices of different discourse systems in communication ('interdiscursivity'), which are often in conflict with each other. This undeniably has wide-ranging implications for interpreters, as witnessed in the above samples. Information processing models (Gerver 1976; Moser-Mercer 1997; Massaro and Shlesinger 1997) and 'cognitive' approaches to modelling developed in Interpreting Studies (Daró and Fabbro 1994; Lonsdale 1996; Setton 1999) have not accounted for phenomena of this type, primarily because these models are almost entirely receiver-oriented. The metaphor of text negotiation would indeed do more justice in reflecting an interpreter's behaviour and would require an interactional framework within which to study simultaneous interpreting. The examples above may represent extreme cases where the interpreter is indeed involved in behaviour geared toward maximizing survival since s/he attempts to deal with multiple stimuli and is obliged to take on a different participation status, both in relation to his or her own text and to the ST speaker's text. Can the principle of self-preservation, i.e. survival/self-regulation, be detected in a corpus?

1.1 Working hypothesis and aims of the study

Although numerous scholars in the discipline continue to highlight the maxim whereby interpreters always operate 'in relation to' a ST (Shlesinger 1994, 1995; Pöchhacker 1994b; Riccardi 2002), we speculate that - along a spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour geared toward 'survival' - an interpreter will often resort to becoming 'principal' and 'author' (Goffman 1981). In other words, an interpreter will speak for him or herself, entertain subordinate communication with an audience, for the exclusive goal of promoting professional survival. Consequently, our analysis of corpus texts
moves from the fundamental premise that professional behaviour - irrespective of the nature of a source text, working conditions and constraints - will aim to maximize professional survival. Interpreters always operate in the immediacy of a given situation where they are in a position of coping with contextual constraints (see Varela 1999). In this respect we can describe the guiding principle behind their operational awareness as dynamic equilibrium (see Monacelli and Punzo 2001). We thus expect the characteristics of professional behaviour also to be of a dynamic quality, unless this behaviour appears to be normative or ideological in nature. In this case it should be possible to distinguish such behaviour if particular trends prevail in the data, rather than dynamic behaviour where no specific overall trend would prevail.

Our aim in this study is primarily to investigate the effects of self-regulation on the behaviour of simultaneous interpreters via a study of participation framework and interactional politeness (contextual shifts, changes in alignment and shifts in footing) and to establish some explanatory and predictive principles. Specifically, we seek to detect evidence of self-regulatory behaviour during text negotiation in simultaneous interpreting and its effects on interpreters' output when they move to ensure professional survival in the context of threats to face. What, then, are the most suitable tools and method to explore how, and perhaps why, an interpreter changes alignment and shifts footing in his/her utterance?

1.2 Method of investigation and research issues

Goffman (1981: 147) suggests that deixis may be involved in the analysis of participation framework. Grundy (2000) also suggests that deictics are used to encode a relationship between persons, times, places and ourselves as speakers and that we should expect individual uses to vary. He stresses “if individual uses vary, we should expect intercultural variation in the way speakers encode the relationships of themselves to the world around them” (ibid.: 36-37). Deictic reference tells us something about “the membership status of the speaker, the degree of their affiliation to the culture as a whole and to sub-groups within the culture” (ibid.: 41). Diriker (2001), for example, examined "shifts in the speaking subject" and reports on a range of different roles assumed by the professional interpreter in her case study. Stewart (1992, 1995) analyzed the way in which speakers exploit the ambiguity of personal reference for the purposes of face-protection and redressive action. The analysis of personal reference (§6.1) in our corpus
aims to further explore and extend these findings. We also examine the interpreter’s perspective as evinced by how processes are presented (transitivity) and how speakers attribute agency in texts (§6.2). Since the suppression of agency may lead to impersonalisation and indirectness (two negative face-saving strategies, see Table 3.2), we consider transitivity patterns with regard to interactional linguistic politeness. Therefore, a closer look at the workings of interactional politeness in corpus texts, witnessed through an analysis of personal reference, transitivity patterns and modality systems in corpus texts, as well as how threats are dealt with, may lead to an assessment of matters concerning self-preservation and face, both fundamental elements at the basis of self-regulatory behaviour.

In adopting an interactional framework to analyse text negotiation in simultaneous interpreting, the notion of self-referentiality is fundamental to this study and illuminates the construct of self-regulation. For example, the system of modality can be assessed as a speaker pragmatically pointing deictically to him or herself (see Fritz 2003), since it reveals commitment to what one is saying. The expression of modality, discussed in detail in §6.3.1, includes modal auxiliaries, lexical verbs and adverbs. Since personal reference and the various modal and transitivity systems are of crucial relevance to the strategies of social interaction, particularly to tactics of persuasion and politeness, it is clear that our categories of analysis (Stance §6.1, Voice §6.2, Face §6.3) are not discrete. However, in order to facilitate our description of these categories, they are presented in separate sections. Consequently, when approaching the category of ‘face’, the last to be examined, our analysis also includes the omission, addition, strengthening or weakening of face-threatening acts since all categories previously analysed jointly create the face-work in these acts.

These tools, along with the dynamic involvement of subjects in this analysis (as discussed in §7.3), may make it possible to understand to what degree interpreters’ behaviour is governed by self-regulatory (survival) needs and/or normative behaviour.

Our epistemological stance elicits a number of issues regarding text negotiation during simultaneous interpreting which we aim to address in this study. Below is a partial list of the most compelling questions this research seeks to answer.
1. Does simultaneous interpreting, as a discourse activity, show signs of particular alignment-altering phenomena?

2. Is there evidence of face-saving strategies at work in professional performances?

3. What different roles are assumed by interpreters?

4. To what degree are interpreters aware of their behaviour during performances?

In adopting a system dynamics (constructivist) theoretical stance we are aware that there is no privileged perspective from which to make descriptions of the type this study sets out to make. Focusing on self-referentiality alone makes it clear that we accept the unresolvable relativism inherent to taking this stance. Thus we understand that the development of this thesis may proceed with some amount of uncertainty, doubt and what may seem to be tentative moves to describe features. But, as Hermans states (1999b: 150), "Once we know that our knowledge is constructed, we can learn to live with the limitations of perspective". We hope, nonetheless, that this study can instil further doubt, i.e. that which is necessary for researchers to start asking more questions and to motivate their search. This alone would be an indication of this study's success in contributing to Interpreting Studies.

1.3 Content and structure of the thesis

Taking into account the interdisciplinary nature of this work, we flesh out our theoretical framework (Chapter 2) on the basis of literature supporting our claims and hypotheses. We review the relative literature in the same chapter in order to avoid borrowing constructs from other disciplines without first introducing them and specifying their pertinence to this study. Several key concepts are repeated throughout this study: autonomy, self-referentiality, to name two. These are defined and distinguished, along with other concepts, throughout the development of this thesis, for the sake of clarity and cross-reference. These key concepts are then presented in a glossary (Appendix). We also include a review of the relevant literature in relation to the notion of 'context' in Chapter 3 in order to be better placed to understand when and how contextual shifts occur in our data. Work relating to participation framework and interactional politeness of relevance to this study is also discussed in Chapter 3 (§3.1 and §3.2) where we speculate on their relation to self-regulatory behaviour. Since we
adopt a system dynamics perspective in this study of interpreting, we discuss Interpreting Studies as a system in Chapter 4 and exclusively review publications of those scholars in (Translation and) Interpreting Studies who have most contributed to the distinction of the discipline as a system (§4.1 Extratexts, §4.2 Paratexts, §4.3 Metatexts).

Chapter 5 discusses the methodology and research design of this study. A detailed description is included of both the nature of our corpus texts and the professional subjects who participated in the study. This chapter also describes how texts are analysed.

Chapter 6 characterizes the interpreter-mediated event as face-threatening and examines corpus texts in this light. It presents the findings, classified according to the categories presented in our research design (§5.1), i.e. 'stance', 'voice' and 'face', and includes both a quantitative and qualitative assessment. Salient text samples are used to illustrate the nature of our assessment. Chapter 7 discusses our findings and relates them to the interpreter's role performance, offering an explanatory hypothesis couched within our epistemological perspective. Chapter 8, a conclusion, discusses the relevance and limitations of the current study and offers suggestions as to directions worthwhile exploring in future.
Chapter 2.
FROM SYSTEM DYNAMICS ONWARD

The paradigm shift underway in several branches of science involves contextual thinking, putting phenomena into the context of a larger whole. Systems thinking was pioneered by biologists who emphasized the view of living organisms as integrated wholes. The basic tension is one between the parts and the whole: the essential properties of an organism or living system are properties of the whole, which is more than the sum of its parts.

An emphasis on process thinking began making its way into several areas: beginning with von Bertalanffy in the 1930s, who defined as 'open systems' any living structure that depended on flows of energy and resources (cf. Bertalanffy 1950), and continuing with the cybernetic movement of the 1940s, which introduced the concepts of feedback loops and dynamic systems (Capra, 1997: 58-64). Self-regulation (survival) is actually the cybernetic concept of control. But it was not until the 1970s that Ilya Prigogine used the term 'dissipative structures' to describe the new thermodynamics of open systems as combining the stability of structure with the fluidity of change (op.cit.: 180). In this chapter we draw on these concepts to describe text instantiation, which is then illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 2.1.

In Translation Studies, during the 1970s, Itamar Even-Zohar (2000) developed polysystem theory, which conceived of translated literature as a system that operated within the context of the larger social, literary and historical systems of the target culture. Polysystem theory became the groundwork for Descriptive Translation Studies that aims at identifying translation norms (Toury 1995). Also during the 1970s Anderson (1976) extended the object of study to include a wider, social context in his analysis of the interpreter's role. More recently in Interpreting Studies Pöchhacker (1994a), too, attempted to place interpreting phenomena into the context of a larger whole by introducing the notion of the conference as hypertext. Whereas system
dynamics highlights the significance of processes. Pöchhacker stressed the importance of product-based studies. In fact, Toury's (1995) translation norms are based on empirical studies of products.

Also during the 1970s, biologists Maturana and Varela (see Maturana and Varela, 1980; 1998) first advanced their theory of autopoiesis, which essentially views living organisms as operationally closed entities that subordinate all changes to the maintenance of their own organisation. Living organisms have a distinct structure, which is continuously recreated through interactive feedback cycles. Autopoiesis is a special case of homeostasis and relates to a systemic definition of life. The concept is frequently applied to cognition, viewing the mind as a self-producing system, with self-reference and self-regulation that involve structural coupling (§2.1.4) with other entities. Autopoietic theory (§2.1) represents a development of self-regulation as the cybernetic concept of control and accounts for all forms of human activity as cognitive-based activity.

This chapter reviews autopoietic theory (§2.1), introduces the concepts underlying our epistemological perspective and the terminology used throughout this work to account for phenomena. We link theoretical constructs underlying autopoietic theory to systemic approaches in linguistics (§2.2), where little has been done to account for self-referential phenomena in texts. Finally, we discuss and operationalize the construct of self-regulation (survival), characteristic of system dynamics, in relation to cognitive development and social cognition (§2.3). This is done primarily to highlight self-regulation as a cognitive phenomenon explored in other branches of science, and to show its correlation to system dynamics.

2.1 Autopoietic Theory

Chilean neuroscientist Humberto Maturana was strongly influenced by cybernetics, having collaborated with neuroscientist and cybernetician Warren McCulloch's group at MIT. After his return to the University of Santiago he specialized in neuroscience and, in particular, in the understanding of colour perception (Capra 1997: 95). Throughout his research two major questions arose which guided his future research efforts: "What is the organisation of the living?" and "What takes place in the phenomenon of perception?" (Maturana and Varela 1980: xii). Maturana discovered that the nervous
system essentially operates as a closed network of interactions in a circular process: when one dimension in the networks changed, the whole network undergoes correlative changes (Maturana and Varela 1998: 116).

From this discovery he drew the conclusions that supplied the answers to his two major research questions. Firstly he theorized that the 'circular organisation' (for which he coined the term 'autopoiesis') of the nervous system was at the basis of all living systems. He stipulated that living systems are organized in a closed causal circular process that allows for evolutionary change in the way the circularity is maintained, but not for the loss of the circularity itself. He argued that, since all changes in the system take place within this basic circularity, the components that specify the circular organisation must also be produced and maintained by it. He concluded that this network pattern — where the function of each component is to help produce and transform other components while preserving the overall circularity of the network — is the basic organisation of the living.

The second conclusion Maturana drew was that the nervous system is not only self-organizing but also continually self-referring, in a closed network, leading to a revolutionary understanding of cognition. He concluded that perception cannot be viewed as the representation of an external reality but must be considered the continual creation of new relationships within the neural network.

Maturana and Varela (1998) went on to distinguish the unique characteristic of human beings, language. They describe this uniqueness as social structural coupling (§2.1.4) occurring through language. Maturana and Varela hold language to be regularities of human social dynamics and the recursive social dynamics that entails reflection. Hence, as human beings, our world is created in language (op. cit.: 246).

In positing interpreting as an autopoietic system we describe it as an adaptive, self-regulating, self-reflexive and self-reproducing system. We are called upon, then, to account for the autonomy and heteronomy of interpreting and to describe how the laws of autopoietic systems apply to interpreting and what the language of interpreting (in terms of language on interpreting, see Chapter 4, and interpreters' output, see Chapter 6) is able to tell us.

Drawing upon Hermans' (1999b: 145) description of self-referentiality applied to
translation, we suggest that self-reflection in interpreting distinguishes the difference between self-reference and external reference. If we contrast self-reference and external reference in interpreting we define the autonomy and heteronomy of interpreting as system. Interpreting's external reference may be understood as its assimilation to other discourse practices (e.g. attorneys as mediators between two parties). Interpreting also interacts with other discourses and social systems of which it is a part. Self-reference contributes to the autopoiesis of interpreting: it draws attention to prevailing programmes or practices as accepted modes of representation (e.g. prescription in the literature such as the théorie du sens), and may question these programmes or even the boundaries of what constitutes interpreting. In doing so, self-reference is grounded in similarities and contrasts with existing forms of interpreting and discourses about interpreting. It thus helps to organize, sustain and to modify the system.

From a slightly different angle, Grant (1999: 88) challenges the 'conservative' dialogical approach to the study of dialogue interpreting and argues for translation as construction, where claims to identify any correspondence between ST and TT are eliminated and 'factual replacement' (Toury 1980: 39, cited in Grant 1999: 89) takes place. Thus he argues (op. cit.: 88-89) that since translation is not referred to a given external reality, it could be seen as self-referential and hence is to be considered an 'autonomous' text (see §2.1.1). He specifies, however, that in pragmatic terms most translations fulfil a given brief in terms of a specific, determined audience design (Hatim and Mason 1997). Therefore, translation alternates between the cognitive autonomy of the translator's factual replacement and the constraints of society and communication posed by text type (see Hatim and Mason 1990).

Beaugrande (1992: 9-10) suggests that reflexivity is also seen in the way analysts select data and in decisions to apply certain methods for investigating data. This becomes of relevance if we consider, for example, that in his study Setton (1999: 105) rejected text samples that were "so improvised and disconnected that what cohesion there was virtually disappeared in the transcriptions". He thus justifies this choice: "in such conditions sophisticated task performance variables, specifically the need for pragmatic manipulation, or packaging in TL, become so dominant as to obscure other factors, such as possible difficulties arising from linguistic structures and content". Indeed Setton's rejection of particular text samples, representing a theoretical and
methodological choice, has done away with material potentially relevant to this study, since they call into question an interpreter's behaviour in terms of professional survival.

The notion of self-referentiality underlying the construct of self-regulation postulates perception and cognition as not representing an external reality, but as specifying a reality through the nervous system's process of circular organisation. Indeed Maturana's studies brought him to identify cognition with the process of life itself (Maturana 1975). Extending this to interpreting, cognition can be identified with the very process of interpreting, hence the validity of analysing the process as witnessed in the 'language' (and meta-language) of interpreting, which is cognitive-linguistic in nature and resides in the social domain.

In a volume discussing Niklas Luhmann's sense of observation and the paradoxes of differentiation, William Rasch (Rasch: 2000: 16) suggests that:

the narrative we devise to describe reality is not a representation, not a duplication of reality in symbolic terms, but rather a vehicle that allows us to navigate. During the course of our navigations, we leave in our wake a navigable world, one that can be navigated not because we charted it beforehand but because we have already navigated it. The world of objects comes into being with its descriptions, not prior to it.

He specifies thus that observation remains inaccessible to itself, or better, it gains access to itself by generating a series of descriptions (often partial and conflicting ones) that can make no claim to absolute validity, because each description must face the possibility that it too could be otherwise than it is. Rasch stresses that "our legitimacy depends on our ability to provide plausible self-descriptions, yet our first and foremost self-description is the description that says we can always describe ourselves differently (Rasch 2000: 23).

Our discussion in this section on autopoietic theory persuades us to accept Herman's (1999b) suggestion (challenge?) to turn to systems theory as a research perspective. This is the object of §2.1.2. We now first extend our discussion on autopoiesis and flesh out the notion of autonomy (§2.1.1), which is fundamental for the understanding of self-referentiality.
2.1.1 Autopoiesis and Autonomy

Self-regulation, as a cybernetic concept, has always been associated with the notion of control in machines. The theory of autopoiesis, which represents a biological systemic conceptualization of living beings, characterizes them through the notion of autonomy, the conceptual counterpart of control. During the mid- to late 1970s Francisco Varela expanded on autopoietic theory's original formalizations to outline the systemic attribute of autonomy, of which autopoiesis is a subset. Autonomous systems are:

[...] defined as a composite unity by a network of interactions of components that (i) through their interactions recursively regenerate the network of interactions that produced them, and (ii) realize the network as a unity in space in which the components exist by constituting and specifying the unity's boundaries as a cleavage from the background [...] (Varela 1981: 15)

The construct of autonomy is used to define a system that can specify its own laws, what is proper to it (Maturana and Varela 1998: 48). In his volume dedicated to a cognitive-pragmatic analysis of simultaneous interpreting, Setton (1999) repeatedly mentions the concept of autonomy in SI production, describing it as occurring when the interpreter in some way departs from the ST: "Compensation is a function of the relatively autonomous production system, which we have modelled as being governed by the Executive" (op. cit.: 239). However, he does not account for this phenomenon epistemologically. Further, in a more recent publication that examines the feasibility of deconstructing the tasks involved in simultaneous interpreting, Setton acknowledges that there is "a gap between most models and linguistic data" in interpreting theory (op. cit.:10), since most authors have looked to modular cognitive psychology for inspiration and neglect the social domain of language. Nevertheless, in the same publication, he defines acquired or trained skills required for these tasks as 'cognitive-linguistic' (op. cit.: 9), in order to distinguish them from mental arithmetic or scientific problem solving. This seems - at least in part - to be a theoretical leap well worth noting. In a system dynamics perspective the phenomenon of language (see Maturana and Varela 1998: 205-235) is considered to be cognitive-linguistic, residing within a social domain. Even Vygotsky, who shifted the focus from autistic egocentric speech to the social context of language acquisition, aimed to demonstrate that language and consciousness were both lodged within a matrix of social activity and thus it is this activity system,
rather than the isolated individual, that should be the primary focus of analysis (Duranti and Goodwin 1992: 20-21).

Therefore, the autopoietic concept of autonomy as here described, exercised within a cognitive-linguistic social domain, is a biological characteristic of humans: a primordial characteristic underlying their survival. Extended to the domain of interpreting (fig. 3.2), this suggests interpreters are distinguished as such precisely through the exercise of their autonomy.

The domain of interpreting where professionals exercise autonomy is outlined in §3.1.3. We also mention those interpreting scholars who have cited the autonomous nature of performances in interpreting (§3.2). Michael Cronin (2002: 393) defines "autonomous" and "heteronomous" systems of interpreting on the basis of whether colonizers trained their own subjects in the language/s of the colonized (autonomous system) or whether interpreters are recruited locally and taught the imperial language (heteronomous system). In both these definitions there seems nonetheless to be a fundamental element of control with regard to who does what, and Cronin's argument sets the stage for a plea to open up to questions concerning ideology and power in interpreting, issues practically ignored by scholars thus far. In his comment (Cronin 2002: 394) on Bowen et al.'s claim (Bowen et al. 1995: 273) that interpreting is wrought with problems concerning loyalty and ethics, Cronin categorically admits that these are not just problems, but matters of survival (my emphasis). Indeed the hybrid status of interpreters and their varying alliances with dominant powers throughout history remains an issue that is little discussed in IS to date (see also Karttunen 1994).

We now discuss experience and the observer (§2.12) in a research perspective based on systems theory. We then discuss what constitutes a system (§2.1.3) and the nature of interactions among systems (§2.1.4). These sections prepare the groundwork for our system dynamics perspective to text instantiation (§2.2).

2.1.2 Experience and the observer

Imermans (1999b: 148) points out the paradox inherent in a constructive systemic

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2 We discuss Cronin's (2002) paper in more detail in §4.3.1 in our chapter that examines Interpreting Studies as system.
perspective in terms of research in translation studies:

The study of translation is implicated, oddly and improperly, in the practice of translation. If translation descriptions perform the operations they are simultaneously trying to describe, the distinction between object-level and meta-level is rendered problematic.

He suggests looking to theories of self-reflexive systems to come to terms with this paradox (op. cit.: 150):

The theory of self-reflexive systems, as Luhmann has pointed out (e.g. Luhmann 1993), posits a de-centred and polycontextual world in which there is no single privileged way of attributing or processing meaning. Systems theory does not exclude itself from this unresolvable relativism. But at least this postmodern flaunting of epistemological doubt offers the advantage of taking little for granted and of leaving room for paradox, hesitation and experiment. It is one way of dealing with what has become known as the crisis of representation in human sciences (Marcus and Fischer 1986: 7-16). Once we know that our knowledge is constructed, we can learn to live with the limitations of perspective.

Here Hermans highlights two concepts discussed in this chapter that are basic to autopoietic theory: the position of an observer, examined in this section, and 'operational closure', discussed in §2.1.3.

When a cognitive system operates as an observer it performs the fundamental operation of distinction, the 'pointing to' something (a unity or entity); it separates its environment into 'object' and 'other', defining its boundaries and setting it apart from a background. In Maturana's words:

An observer is a ... living system who can make distinctions and specify that which he or she distinguishes as a unity, as an entity different from himself or herself that can be used for manipulations or descriptions in interactions with other observers. (Maturana 1978: 31)

Bourdieu (1985: 196), too, states that social space is "constructed on the basis of principles of differentiation". This presupposes some sort of relationship between the unity distinguished and its background or environment. A relationship between two
orders of phenomena that mutually inform each other to comprise a larger whole is central to the notion of context (discussed in §3.1.1). Indeed the term comes from the Latin 'contextus', which means 'a joining together'. From this perspective the relationship between focal event and context is much like that between "organism" and "environment" in cybernetic theory (Duranti and Goodwin 1992: 4).

The observer is one of the key concepts in autopoietic theory, because:

Observing is both the ultimate starting point and the most fundamental question in any attempt to understand reality and reason as phenomena of the human domain. Indeed, everything said is said by an observer that could be him- or herself. (Maturana 1988: 27)

Every time we refer to anything implicitly or explicitly, we are specifying a criterion of distinction, which indicates what we are talking about and specifies its properties as an entity or unity. Consequently, every time we refer to a unity in our descriptions (entity or object), we are implying the operation of distinction that defines it and makes it possible (Maturana and Varela 1998: 40). An observer is able to operate 'as if' external to, or distinct from, the circumstances in which he or she finds him/herself because of the recursive distinguishing of unities through action.

As analysts and scholars we explain our experience, in the implicit understanding that experience is what we distinguish as happening to us as observers in our life. In this vein, "behaviour is not something that the living being does in itself ... but something that we point to" (Maturana and Varela 1998: 138, original emphasis) and it is in reference to the effect the observer expects that he or she assesses the structural changes triggered in the organism (op.cit.: 174). In doing so, we as observers use our experience - and the coherence of our experience - to satisfy the criterion of validation of scientific explanation. Therefore, underlying anything we shall say is the constant awareness that the phenomenon of knowing is inseparable from our experience; action and experience are inextricably linked. This particularly applies to what we are doing now: using language to describe reflection. This concept continually reminds us of the observer's position and how every reflection brings forth an experiential world (op.cit.: 25-30).
2.1.3 Organisation and Structure

The relations that define something as a unity and determine the dynamics of interactions and changes it may undergo as a unity constitute the organisation of the unity (Maturana and Varela 1980: 77). Organisation denotes those relations that must be present in order for something to exist. A 'systemic' unity's organisation is realized through the existence and interplay of components in a given space; these comprise the unity's structure. Maturana points out that the word 'structure' comes from the Latin meaning 'to build'. He uses this allusion to describe 'structure' as the components, and the relations these components must have, in order to participate in the constitution of a given unity (Maturana 1975: 315-316).

This particular configuration of a given unity, its structure, is not sufficient to define it as a unity. The key feature of a living system is the maintenance of its organisation, that is the conservation of the network of relations that defines it as a systemic unity. This notion is repeated throughout this work as a reminder of the fundamental property of self-regulation, or survival. In other words, "autopoietic systems operate as homeostatic systems that have their own organisation as the critical fundamental variable that they actively maintain constant" (op.cit.: 318); they are self-producing. Living humans have an organisation, which all systems have; what is unique about them is that their organisation is such that their only product is themselves, with no separation between producer and product. This specific mode of operation is defined as operational closure (Varela 1984). This concept is further clarified by the distinctions made in the following sections. We then apply this construct in our description of how a text is instantiated (§2.2).

Autopoietic theory is indeed difficult to transpose to other fields and disciplines. However, in order to study self-regulation in interpreting within this systemic paradigm, it is important to view the activity along autopoietic lines (§2.1). In Chapter 3 we consider the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event. In order to be able to reason along autopoietic lines, we now introduce two other notions that make it possible to understand why language, as a cognitive-linguistic phenomenon, is considered a social activity, despite the operational closure inherent to systems.
2.1.4 Structural Determinism and Structural Coupling

The fundamental principle of structural determinism is that the behaviour of a system is constrained by its constitution. The set of potential changes in a system is circumscribed by (i) the system's range of potential structural transformations, and (ii) the set of potential 'perturbations' (see Maturana and Varela 1998: 95-6) impinging upon the system. While a given perturbation may trigger a change of system state, the particular change triggered is a function of the system's own organisation and structure.

As observers we have distinguished the living system as a unity from its background and have characterized it as a definite organisation, thus distinguishing two structures that are to be considered operationally independent of each other: a living being and an environment. In interactions between a living being and the environment within this structural congruence, the perturbations (in Maturana's language) of the environment do not determine what happens to the living being; rather, it is the structure of the living being that determines what change occurs in it. In other words, a disturbing agent brings about the changes (perturbations) that result from the interaction between a living being and its environment, but these changes are determined by the structure (as defined in §2.1.3) of the disturbed system.

Whenever there is a history of recurrent interactions leading to the structural congruence between two or more systems, structural coupling occurs. What occurs during these interactions is the basis for a study of normative behaviour. In other words, "the norms, criteria and resources of one system are put at the disposal of or forced upon another system, there to be respected or resisted, as the case may be" (Iermans 1999b: 143). Specifically, it is "a historical process leading to the spatio-temporal coincidence between the changes of state" (Maturana 1975: 321).

All living beings undergo structural coupling but what makes human beings unique is that structural coupling takes place within the "ongoing conservation of the autopoiesis that defines them" and "everything in them is subordinate to that conservation" (Maturana and Varela 1998: 99-100). The primacy of cognition, or the process with which a human being deals with structural coupling, is highlighted in the following

1 Norms are discussed in Chapter 4 when we examine Interpreting Studies as system (§4.1).
section in our discussion of a system dynamics perspective to text instantiation.

2.2 A system dynamics perspective on text instantiation

The emergence of a definition for the concept of 'structure' that is distinct from 'organisation' in relation to texts is found in Ferrara's discussion of the pragmatic analysis of local coherence:

To understand a text semantically means, from a cognitive-psychological point of view, to be able to identify, under the series of the logico-semantic structures of its component sentences, a macrosemantic representation (i.e., one or more macropropositions) of which that series represents an expansion. (Ferrara 1985: 141)

Ilatim and Mason also define the concept of 'structure':

The two text-centred notions of cohesion and coherence incorporate elements of what we shall refer to as the texture and structure of texts. These are areas of text organisation involving both the way texts are put together and the way the emerging patterns link up with some model of reality. (1997: 16, original emphasis)

Even if they include both texture and structure under the heading 'text organisation', Ilatim and Mason, in fact, make a distinction between 'emerging patterns' (cohesion/organisation) and 'some model of reality' (coherence/discourse structure).

Many have described the workings of texts using a systems or process-oriented approach, through the notion of the text as a cybernetic system (cf. Beaugrande, 1980; Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981) with regulative principles (Searle, 1969). Inspired by system dynamics, and the desire to reflect biological phenomena, we propose the following conceptual model (fig. 2.1) of the dynamics of text instantiation.

On the left side of fig. 2.1 we indicate a text's pattern of organisation as its fundamental attribute, an essential characteristic in the maintenance of a text's existence. The function of each component of the pattern of organisation (all elements) is to help produce and transform other components, while preserving the overall circularity
(autopoiesis), hence the pattern of organisation is operationally closed and self-referential in nature.

\[
\text{T E X T}
\]
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{pattern of organisation} & \text{discourse structure} \\
\hline
\text{autopoiesis} & \text{dissipative structure} \\
\hline
\text{operationally closed} & \text{structurally opened} \\
\hline
\text{self-referentiality} & \text{intertextuality} \\
\hline
\end{array}

\textit{cognition as process}

\textbf{Figure 2.1 Dynamics of text instantiation}

On the right side of fig. 2.1 we indicate a text's discourse structure as that attribute which is 'dissipative', or structurally open, as reflected in the characteristic of intertextuality. A text's intertextual dimension, evolving from social and linguistic factors, both confers on a text its 'permeability' (making it 'structurally open'), and influences its discourse structure. Intertextuality here is considered in its wider sense, as access to texts via our knowledge of encountered texts "in a continual process of reconstruction of our individual and social realities" (Seidlhofer, 2000: 211). It is important to note that the two columns in fig. 2.1 are not opposite ends of a spectrum but are mutually distinctive, i.e. they mutually inform each other to comprise a larger whole, a text. As mentioned, this relation of mutual distinction is central to our view of context (§3.1.1).

There is no universally agreed way of describing how sentences relate to each other in the field of linguistics. Despite this, Hoey (1991: 12) underscores the fact that there is indeed some relation between sentences, since texts are instantiated, but he raises a fundamental question: "how does cohesion (the relation between elements of sentences, i.e. organisation) contribute to the relationships we perceive between those sentences as
Intrigued by Hoey's model of lexical cohesion, we attempted to answer the question he poses and relate it to our own analyses by applying his model to the study of a corpus of written, non-narrative texts. We used those lexical categories of his model that best lent themselves to computer processing in my analysis. Using a concordancer program, we produced summaries of our corpus texts based on clusters of lexical repetition sequences, and obtained an outline of the texts' discourse structures. Two parallel texts, professional translations of one of our corpus texts, were examined using the same procedure (Monacelli, 2004).

Hoey's model served to highlight a text-organizing network of lexical relations across sentence boundaries and to single out marginal and central sentences. The removal of marginal sentences in corpus texts made for remarkably smooth-reading summaries and the emergence of each author's (and translator's) discourse. Klaudy and Károly (2000) dealt with the limitations of Hoey's model when they adapted it to the analysis of translations. We also pointed out shortcomings of the model that have to do with assessing the dynamic quality of texts. Whereas Hoey's lexical model highlights 'passive' intertextual links in a text, i.e. those aiming to maintain a text's internal coherence, his model does not single out 'active' intertextual links, i.e. those activating knowledge and belief systems beyond the text itself (cf. Hatim and Mason 1990: 123-124). Despite these limitations, we found that his model did make it possible to perceive rather blatant differences in the discourses of the two translated versions of one of my corpus texts in that study.

At the time we were motivated by an attempt to find a way to adapt his model for the analysis of organisation and structure in the corpus of oral texts for this current work. We abandoned all efforts when no tangible results seemed to emerge, since no viable way of coping with the problematic nature of the notion of the sentence was found. However, the study using Hoey's model on written texts described above did have an impact on the theoretical framework underlying this current work: when contrasting two different translations of a source text it became clear that whereas the organisation of texts must remain the same in order for them to maintain their essential properties (ST and TT), texts' discourse structures are expected to, and indeed do, change in the process of translation (and interpretation).
This was already suggested by Hatim and Mason (1990) who proposed the process of translation as involving readers in negotiating textual meaning produced by a translator, viewing a translated text as evidence of a transaction, a way of describing and analyzing a translator's decision making process. They also question the role of the interpreter in these processes and argue for empirical or data-driven research on interpreting and the focus of analysis to be on discourse phenomena as that which occurs in monolingual conversations (op.cit.: 1990: 81). That discourse structures change in the process of interpreting was confirmed in Berk-Seligson's (1990) ground-breaking sociolinguistic study of courtroom interpreting. She demonstrated interpreters' independent role and their active participation in the speech event through an analysis of TT discourse.

If we consider an oral text in simultaneous interpreting as a system (and reason along autopoietic lines), the text should subordinate all changes to the maintenance of its own organisation (Varcla 1979). In autopoietic theory, since language is considered a fundamental characteristic of human cognition, texts are a record of cognitive activity; this is in line with discourse analytical approaches to the study of language. These records in simultaneous interpreting are brought forth within the confines of specific constraints relating to the nature of this activity (see §3.1.1). In the adaptation of autopoietic theory to the analysis of a corpus of interpreters' output, we argue that, whatever the case may be, interpreters subordinate all changes to the maintenance of their own 'organisation', understood in terms of survival, biological or otherwise. In other words, interpreters aim — first and foremost — at professional survival, and subordinate all activity (linguistic choices, interpersonal professional relations, etc.) to the preservation of their professional 'face'.

We characterise the interpreting event as inherently face-threatening (Chapter 6) since interpreters exhibit their performance in public and thus it can be inspected. Therefore, at a textual level face-protection may be detected as occurring to varying degrees: from evidence that interpreters try to favour textual coherence to evidence of how interpreters deal with fact-threatening acts that are either levelled more or less explicitly at ST receivers, on the one hand, and at interpreters, on the other, if they feel their own face is threatened. In Chapter 6 we examine corpus texts in this respect. We create three categories of analysis that flow out from the data in terms of the prevalence of distance-altering alignments and indirectness as witnessed in shifts that span all
An analysis of the first two categories, Stance (§6.1) and Voice (§6.2), leads to a discussion of our third category, Face (§6.3). The following section examines the construct of self-regulation more closely, in order to relate it to simultaneous interpreting as communicative interaction (Chapter 3).

2.3 Operationalizing survival

Survival, or self-regulation (SR), is a hybrid construct that has been applied in a variety of domains such as school learning (Schank and Zimmerman 1989, 1994), cognitive development (Piaget 1952; Vygotsky 1978), social cognition (Bandura 1986, 1991b, 1997), and emotions (Davidson and Ekman 1995; Fox 1994). Scholars in these domains seem to make the following assumptions when they use the term self-regulation:

i. There is a goal-directed quality to human behaviour; self-regulated individuals set goals related to: a) personal health, b) physical health, c) emotional well-being, and d) social, academic, or professional achievement;

ii. Successful operation implies engaging in behaviour that maximizes the achievement of these goals;

iii. Humans are born with natural limitations, biases, and tendencies that cause them to stray from achieving their goals.

Self-regulation research and many of its theories have emphasized the concept of negative feedback control systems, borrowed from systems theory (Carver and Scheier 1981, 1982). Feedback-loop theory was advanced in the 1940s in connection with the development of sophisticated weapons such as ballistic missiles (test-operate-test-exit, or TOTE loops), but the most familiar analogy from everyday life is the room thermostat, which turns a furnace or air conditioner on or off, whenever the room temperature goes beyond a preset range (goal). Negative feedback negates change and stabilizes systems. In positive feedback, an increase in a variable eventually leads to a further increase in the same variable. Negative feedback exhibits goal-seeking (strategic) behaviour in simple systems. However, in complex systems, goal-seeking behaviour may be oscillatory, with positive feedback amplifying and destabilizing behaviour.

Rather than a static state, homeostasis is a dynamic state that results from constant
adjustments in response to changing circumstances. In this sense the nature of self-regulation ('constant adjustments') is that of 'overriding': there must be multiple processes or levels of action occurring where one process overrides others. This brings to mind Daniel Gile's 'Effort Model' (1995, 1997), to be sure. In his models Gile seems to suggest the interpreter is overcome by various concomitant processes, but has clarified in a personal communication that the interpreter deals with these multiple processes strategically. In fact self-regulation, as we will see, is a goal-oriented, or strategic, activity. But in order to understand self-regulation, it is also necessary to have some hierarchical concept of multiple processes that occur, since not all processes are equal in terms of the priority with which they are addressed.

All living systems are self-regulating, which means they have a set of inner mechanisms that control the system. Human beings, however, have a capacity for self-regulation that far exceeds that in other living beings, in part because the conscious mind is involved in the process and this enhances the flexibility, range and articulation of behaviour (Binswanger, 1991: 155). People have ideals and long-range goals; they act in relation to others' expectations and standards they set themselves to guide, motivate and regulate their behaviour (Bandura, 1986, 1991a, 1991b). Humans also possess self-reflective and self-reactive capabilities that enable them to exercise some control over their thoughts, feelings, motivation and actions (Bandura 1991b: 249). Using these capabilities, individuals monitor their processes of engagement and the progressively updated products these processes create, thus generating internal feedback ('intra-personal communication') or, as Vygotsky (1978) put it, "inner speech". This information provides the basis for subsequent engagement in terms of establishing goals.

Bandura (1997: 6) describes human agency as "a transactional view of self and society, internal personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events; behaviour; and environmental events all act as interacting determinants that influence one another bidirectionally". This transactional view of self and society provides insight into what is at stake during professional practice and further lends credence to the notion of self-regulation in simultaneous interpreting as face-protection.

We have entered the very core of human agency – cognition – and it would now be legitimate to ask ourselves what enacts the cycle of self-regulation. In other words, how
do people actuate the mental processes that embody the exercise of agency and lead to the realization of specific intentions? What 'moves' people to act in certain ways for certain purposes? Bandura explains that anticipative or proactive control operates as the main system in mobilising motivation, and reactive feedback indicates any further adjustments in effort needed to reach desired goals. His explanation of the phenomenon merits being quoted in full:

Human motivation relies both on discrepancy production and discrepancy reduction. It requires proactive control as well as reactive control. People initially motivate themselves through proactive control by setting themselves valued performance standards that create a state of disequilibrium and then mobilising their effort on the basis of anticipatory estimation of what it would take to reach them. Feedback control comes into play in subsequent adjustments of effort expenditure to achieve desired results. After people attain the standard they have been pursuing, those who have a strong sense of efficacy generally set a higher standard for themselves. The adoption of further challenges creates new motivating discrepancies to be mastered. Similarly, surpassing a standard is more likely to raise aspiration than to lower subsequent performance to reduce disequilibrium by conforming to the surpassed standard. Self-motivation thus involves a dual control process of disequilibrating discrepancy production followed by equilibrating discrepancy reduction (original emphasis, Bandura 1991b: 260).

Bandura's description of proactive and reactive control recalls the concept of dynamic equilibrium in face-to-face interpreter-mediated events advanced by Monacelli and Punzo (2001). In other words, dynamic equilibrium becomes the guiding principle behind an interpreter's (cognitive) operational awareness, or "consapevolezza operativa," as cybernetician and philosopher Silvio Ceccato (1966) so aptly called it. The concept of operational awareness is distinct from considering conceptual elements prior to professional practice. It implies, rather, the notion of embodied awareness or immediate coping, a notion rarely discussed in theory but which is firmly grounded in experience.

In order to capture the complexity of human self-regulation, imagine an evaluative executive control system invested with the following properties (cf. Bandura 1991b):
1. predictive anticipatory control of effort expenditure;

2. affective self-evaluative reactions to one's performances, rooted in a value system;

3. self-appraisal of personal efficacy for goal attainment, and

4. self-reflective meta-cognitive activity concerning the adequacy of one's efficacy appraisals and the suitability of one's standard setting.

At the basis of human motivation in self-regulation as discussed above is 'self-directedness'. This fundamental concept inspires autopoietic theory, which we have described as a biological account of the conditions that sustain survival (§2.1). Our explanatory hypothesis (§7.2) is based on the theory of autopoiesis.

2.3.1 Self-Regulatory Goals

We mentioned the necessary hierarchy among multiple processes that occur during self-regulation, since not all processes are equal; we also mentioned the three assumptions concerning SR of researchers in different fields. These assumptions imply the following three conditions for optimal self-regulation to occur:

1. individuals need standards against which to measure themselves;

2. monitoring must be effected;

3. individuals must have the power to enact personal agency.

When people seek to exert control over themselves, they summon various standards, which are abstract concepts of how things should be. These have their roots in social (or professional) norms, personal goals, and the expectation of others. This, too, points to the notion of interpreters' linguistic behaviour during simultaneous interpreting as face-protection. Secondly, individuals can successfully regulate themselves only if they pay attention to what they are doing. And finally, people must have some form of influence over themselves in order to enact personal agency and bring about the desired changes or responses (Baumeister et al. 1994: 9).

If self-regulation implies a goal, then survival is the goal behind all biological self-regulation. The essential feature of homeostasis, in the case of humans, is not that it
maintains a constant temperature, as in our example of the thermostat, but that it maintains the temperature level required for survival. In the same vein, professional survival is the goal behind all professional self-regulation. In a social cognitive perspective, professional interpreters are involved in reciprocal interactions between their behaviour, the external environment and internal personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective and biological events. Within this framework, is it possible to establish a hierarchy of goals motivating interpreters' behaviour?

The notion of hierarchical goals is central to one of the most important works on self-regulation, the model advanced by Carver and Scheier (1981, 1982). The multiple processes vying for self-regulatory attention are divided into higher and lower processes. Higher processes involve longer time spans, more extensive networks of meaningful associations and interpretations, and more distal or abstract goals (Baumeister, 1991a, 1991b). Lower processes are characteristically immediate needs. Typically, higher processes would involve interpersonal relations, self-esteem, or one's reputation; lower processes may involve text negotiation at a micro- or macro-textual level in terms of cohesion and coherence respectively. These two processes are undoubtedly closely linked: it makes sense for an interpreter to do his or her best in order to assure maximal cohesion and coherence of a text for professional survival. For example in Sample 1.2 in our introduction, when the interpreter addresses listeners directly and says, "però se corre così non si riesce a seguire" [but if she runs like this it is impossible to follow], she addresses lower processes and seems to be motivated by short-term goals (ensuring cohesion and coherence for a TT audience), implying that the ST speaker's speed of elocution would hinder/hinders her performance. At the same time she addresses higher processes because she also seems to be motivated by long-term goals (safeguarding her reputation).

2.3.2 Mechanisms of self-regulatory breakdown

As mentioned, successful self-regulation involves higher processes overriding lower processes; when the reverse happens, a breakdown of self-regulation occurs (Baumeister et al. 1994: 8). In this section we discuss mechanisms of SR breakdown, which are all linked to the three conditions for successful SR.

Empirical evidence supports the view that SR is hampered, first of all, by conflicting standards; when standards are inconsistent or incompatible they lead to indecisive,
unsure behaviour (Emmons and King 1988; Van Hook and Higgins 1988).

A second cause of SR breakdown occurs when a person ceases to monitor engagement. More generally, any loss of self-awareness may contribute to SR breakdown, because attending to the self is the essence of the monitoring function (Baumeister et al. 1994: 17) The literature also stresses the central role of attention in SR. Managing attention is not only the most common technique of SR, it is advocated as the most effective one (Kirschenbaum 1987). The inadequate management of resources implies the inability to make the self conform to the relevant standards. Here the problem is not an absence of standards, nor a lack of the ability to monitor the self. The nature of this inadequacy can be understood by considering the meta-cognitive activity of ‘overriding’, mentioned earlier (§2.3), which represents a crucial problem involving the management of attention. Other factors playing a major role in affecting the management of resources are notably limitations on memory and stress (Byrnes 1998: 81-8).

In an article entitled 'Conscious monitoring of attention during simultaneous interpreting' Darò and Fabbro (1996: 102) report on findings from an experiment to test different modes of conscious monitoring of attention. The authors admit, "Investigating the role of conscious monitoring of attention during simultaneous interpreting (SI) is a difficult task", not least because the notion of 'attention' itself is difficult to define. The research design did not include any form of introspection concerning the nature of the attention brought to bear on certain processes. In other words no understanding came forth which clarified whether the attentional efforts of subjects participating in this experiment were expended strategically, to the detriment of production efforts, or whether subjects experienced momentary inability to meet certain challenges posed by the experimental tasks. This leads us to the third reason for self-regulation breakdown.

Self-regulation breakdown also ensues when personal agency is not enacted. Reasons behind a lack of agency may have to do with chronic weakness or physical debilitation that do not enable a person to react. Agency may even be blocked by temporary weakness vis-à-vis the task at hand (Baumeister et al. 1994). Here, too, we are reminded of Gile's Efforts Model.

These three phenomena of SR breakdown may be classified as underregulation.
However, it is possible for individuals to engage in active efforts at SR, but do so in a way that is non-optimal or counterproductive. In such cases SR breakdown may also occur because a technique is used or a method adopted that produces a result different from the desired one. These cases constitute incidents of misregulation. An example of misregulation is offered in Sample 2.1 below, taken from our corpus. The ST speaker was head of the Italian Interpreting Division of the European Parliament and is discussing the nature of the interpreter’s work there. He starts talking about the most difficult week out of the month for EP interpreters, the part-session.

The speaker in Sample 2.1 singles out those members of the audience he addresses ("I say it for the younger ones"), the students present at the conference in question. The interpreter (Sample 2.2), however, does not explicitly define an audience. His mention of the Italian term for 'part session' is a strategy usually employed when in the presence of culture-specific terms, where a translation would not do the original term any justice. This strategy, however, seems uncalled for since the interpreter was working from Italian into English and was addressing an English-speaking audience.

Sample 2.1 l₁, ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- e infatti inizia proprio lunedì prossimo fino a venerdì</td>
<td>- and indeed begins just next Monday up to Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- quindi la settimana prossima avremo la tornata a Strasburgo</td>
<td>- therefore the next week we will have the part session in Strasbourg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- be' dico subito che il Parlamento</td>
<td>well I say immediately that the Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- penso sia inutile ricordarlo</td>
<td>I think it's useless to remember it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ma lo dico per i più giovani</td>
<td>but I say it for the younger ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ha tre sedi di lavoro</td>
<td>- has three seats of work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Strasburgo Lussemburgo e Bruxelles</td>
<td>- Strasbourg Luxembourg and Brussels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- quindi siamo continuamente avanti e indietro tra le tre città</td>
<td>- therefore we are continuously back and forth among the three cities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 2.2 l₁, TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- there will be one starting just this coming Monday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- so next week we will have the part session in Strasbourg what we call the tornata in Italian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I must specify in this respect that the Parliament actually works in three different venues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Brussels Luxembourg and Strasbourg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- so we continually have to go back and for to and fro between these different cities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interpreter is a professor at the university where the conference was held. When asked for clarification of this move during a debriefing session that took place after the analysis of textual data, he reported that he knew some (Italian) students had been listening to his interpretation, even though they fully understood the ST. Aware of this, he strove to provide optimal conditions for them so that they could come to know that 'part session' meant 'tornata'. He had thus fashioned his audience design to comprise these members of the Italian audience.

The ST speaker (Sample 2.1) announced he was speaking for the younger members of the audience ("lo dico per i più giovani"), which is omitted in the TT (Sample 2.2) since, as mentioned, the interpreter had already pitched his speech to students (Italian 'overhearers' - after Goffman - vis-à-vis his interpretation), and did not need to specify his addressees. However, this lack of specification makes for a 'misguided' self-regulatory move, since the signal conveyed in the ST for students also fell on the ears of professional (many freelance EU) interpreters and university professors in English (TT), all of whom knew full well where the European Parliament holds its sessions.

Misregulation often arises from faulty assumptions about the self, the external environment, or the consequences of certain actions. In this sense Samples 2.1 and 2.2 illustrate how the interpreting 'self' (use of the inclusive 'we', see §6.1) runs counter to other aspects of the professional self (i.e. the interpreter as professor of students in the audience). Consequently we see how shifting roles in the participation framework of an interpreted event may influence an interpreter's self-regulatory behaviour and vice-versa, since misguided moves would require compensatory repair moves.

2.4 Concluding remarks

This chapter has outlined the theoretical framework of our study. We began by discussing the paradigm shift in several branches of study, which has involved contextual thinking, the vary basis of system dynamics. The development of this shift was introduced and compared to developments in Translation and Interpreting Studies. Maturana and Varela's (1980, 1998) ground-breaking theory of autopoiesis - which inspires this study - was discussed. Thus key terms underlying this study have been presented: autopoiesis, operational closure and self-reference (§2.1), autonomy (§2.1.1),
observation (§2.1.2), organisation and structure (§2.1.3), perturbations, structural
determinism and coupling (§2.1.4).

In §2.1 we have emphasized how interpreting, as system, distinguishes the difference
between self-reference and external reference and stressed that interpreting's and
interpreters' autonomy, as defined in this study (§2.1.1), is fundamental to their survival
as systems. The key concepts presented in this chapter were then applied to the
instantiation of a text in order to begin to understand how autopoietic theory can be
adapted to the study of interpreting.

We then discussed self-regulation (§2.3) and the necessity to comprehend systemic
constraints, as self-regulatory behaviour implies the establishment of a hierarchy among
multiple processes (§2.3.1) and the ability to override lower processes in favour of
higher processes. In this sense we examined possible mechanisms of SR breakdown and
illustrated examples of misregulation from our data (Samples 2.1, 2.2).

This chapter has shown that self-regulation implies both self-awareness and
awareness of the context in which interpreting and interpreters are embedded. Chapter 3
analyses simultaneous interpreting as situated activity and discusses the notion of
context in depth, offering a model with which to analyse contextual shifts (fig. 3.1).
Since our study analyses linguistic phenomena (interpreters' output), we turn to
politeness theory, the sociolinguistic counterpart of autopoietic theory, in order to
complete our theoretical framework.
CHAPTER 3.
SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING AS COMMUNICATIVE INTERACTION

After having set out the basis of our theoretical framework in Chapter 2, we complete our theoretical framework in this chapter by turning to politeness theories in order to model interpersonal language behaviour. We first examine simultaneous interpreting as communicative interaction in order to contextualise the construct of self-regulation and begin to address some of the research issues outlined in §1.2. We therefore discuss the notion of context at length and, more specifically, the context of interpreting (§3.1.1), presenting a model with which to analyse contextual shifts (fig. 3.1). Simultaneous interpreting is then examined in terms of domains: the domain of interpreting (fig. 3.2) and the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event (fig. 3.3). An understanding of the domains involved in interpreting makes it possible to conclude this chapter with a discussion of self-regulatory participation framework and interactional politeness (§3.2).

3.1 Simultaneous interpreting as situated activity

Studying simultaneous interpreting as situated activity requires us to clarify what 'context' means within our theoretical framework. Although the notion of context has been dealt with in many formal and informal discussions in sociolinguistics, pragmatics and discourse studies, "there is strictly speaking no theory of what exactly a 'context' is" (van Dijk 1998: 211, original emphasis) When speaking of the ideological control of context in his multidisciplinary approach to ideology, van Dijk (op. cit.: 211) defines context as, "the structured set of all properties of a social situation that are possibly relevant for the production, structures, interpretation and functions of text and talk". Our constructive epistemological premises distance our theoretical position somewhat from that of van Dijk's because his 'context models' pit social cognition against discourse and are defined as 'social representations' (op.cit.: 212-214). Even if he uses the term
'representations' to signify social beliefs (op. cit.: 46), the implication of a representational epistemology rings loud and clear. Representation, as we see it, is rather different from re-presentation, i.e. the "replay, or re-construction from memory, of a past experience and not a picture of something else, let alone a picture of the real world" (von Glaserfeld 1995: 59). But van Dijk's definition of context draws on relevance as the basic condition for the properties of a social situation to form a context. We discuss the perspective of Relevance Theory in relation to context in the next section.

Setton's (1999) cognitive-pragmatic study of simultaneous interpreting is also grounded in Relevance Theory. He states (op. cit.: 5) that the two dominant paradigms in SI research, the information-processing paradigm and the interpretative theory (IT) one, treat the notion of context in different ways:

Information-processing accounts pay due lip-service to the notion, but seem reluctant to address what they cannot quantify; IT writing is pervaded by appeals to the importance of extralinguistic knowledge and context in general. But so far no attempt has been made at modelling context in relation to a corpus; rather, context and inference have been set aside as impenetrable subjective variables.

Setton (op. cit.: 87-88) describes contextualisation as ongoing, where - for each successive utterance - context is specified by the previous utterance. He also defines contextualisation as being both unconscious (i.e. a mental model is maintained and relevance is sought) and conscious (i.e. a set of assumptions is constructed on the basis of previous discourse). Setton's reliance on Mental Models Theory and the notion of (internal) representations distances him from our position here. We espouse Maturana's belief that perception is not viewed as the representation of an external reality but as the continual creation of new relationships within the neural network (see §2.1, p. 10).

There has been an attempt to elucidate the concept of context in translation studies. Chesterman et al. (2000) edited a volume entitled Translation in context: Selected contributions from the EST Congress, Granada 1998. In his review of the book Neubert (2001: 388-9) suggests the volume somehow misses the mark: although "translation is irretrievably bound up with context(s)" the work fundamentally provides no link that
connects context to translation studies. He nonetheless singles out the following sections of the volume that contain context-related papers as being most relevant:

- Situational, sociological and political factors
- Psychological/cognitive aspects
- Studies of a text type
- Culture-bound concepts
- Translation history

These are aspects we consider to be fundamental to the notion of context. However, Neubert makes a statement that is worth restating here in order to clarify our own position: "[...] that we (can) translate is a sociohistorical, not a biological faculty" (op. cit.: 38X). Viewing interpreting in a system dynamics perspective, after autopoietic theory, brings us to consider it also as a biological phenomenon (see §2.1).

The next section discusses the notion of context and draws on the writings of various scholars. This prepares the groundwork for our analysis (Chapter 6) of contextual shifts. We also discuss the interpreting event through the perspective of participation framework (§3.1.2) and the roles that can be distinguished in the communication domains created by this activity in order to analyse interactional patterns within these various domains (§3.1.3).

3.1.1 The context of interpreting

The mutuality of physical contexts between speakers and hearers creates reasonable expectations that they are both contemplating referred-to objects in the same way or seeing them in the same light (see Clark and Marshall 1981). Most accounts of communicative context, however, take into consideration cognitive factors of communicating parties. For example, in Relevance Theory (RT) the context of an utterance is "the set of premises used in interpreting [it]" (Sperber and Wilson 1986: 15). As such, it is a psychological concept, "a subset of the hearer's assumptions about the world" (op. cit.: 15). Hence in RT the notion of context does not refer to some part of the external environment of the communication partners, be it the text preceding or
following an utterance, situational circumstances, cultural factors, etc.; it rather refers to part of people's assumptions about the world or cognitive environment. "A cognitive environment of an individual is a set of facts that are manifest to him" (op. cit.: 39, italics as in original). Manifestness, in turn, has the following definition: "A fact is manifest to an individual at a given time if and only if he is capable at that time of representing it mentally and accepting its representation as true or probably true" (op. cit.: 39). The notion of 'cognitive environment' takes into account the various external factors but places the emphasis on the stimuli they provide and its mental availability for the interpretation process. In his application of RT to translation, we note that Ernst Gutt's ideas (2000) are basically in line with the concept of self-referentiality in communication, i.e. comprehension/inference comes about on the basis of what we see ("We do not see what we do not see, and what we do not see does not exist." Maturana and Varela 1998: 242). But RT seems to be receiver-oriented, different from van Dijk's (1998: 211) definition of context, for example, which speaks of the "production, structures, interpretation and functions of text and talk". Like most accounts of communication, RT also assumes a cooperative listener who is prepared to adopt the point of view of the speaker, but "the listener must be credited with a distinct personality and point of view in any model of communication which hopes to give an account of how speakers and hearers actually talk to each other and understand each other" (Brown 1995: 27). RT approaches communication from a view of competence rather than behaviour. It tries to give an explicit account of how information-processing faculties of our mind enable us to communicate with one another. "Its domain is therefore mental faculties rather than texts or processes of text production" (Gutt 2000: 21), and Gutt's study aims to explore "the possibility of accounting for translation in terms of the communicative competence assumed to be part of our minds" (op. cit.: 21). Here, too, there is convergence somewhat between Gutt's and Maturana and Varela's consideration of action and experience: for the latter "all doing is knowing, and all knowing is doing" (Maturana and Varela 1998: 26).

Gutt (2000: 31) stresses that conditions of relevance are context-dependent, thus relevance is context dependent. His interesting description of 'interpretative

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4 Sperber and Wilson's use of the word 'facts' may lead to the impression that it runs counter to their own ideas. In this sense we propose use of the word 'perceptions' in this context.
resemblance' (op. cit.: 36-46) in RT is intriguing and stands to effectively explain what interpreters do, despite his recourse to the term 'representations' which gives the impression that images are swapped and revisited, with no account of the translator's (or interpreter's) active role in the construction of a text. Mason (2004) applies RT to the situation of the dialogue interpreter and warns of the potentially distorting effects of the receiver-oriented strategies that he reviews in his study and suggests we need to rethink the notion that a translation should resemble the original "only in those respects that can be expected to make it adequately relevant to the receptor language audience" (Gutt 2000: 107) because, when faced with possibly conflicting demands, the interpreter is not always able to bring about the mutual cognitive environment between parties so as to ensure successful communication.

In marked contrast to Gutt's perspective, Kendon (1992: 323) considers speakers as embodied entities, suggesting a radical constructivist perspective (see von Glasersfeld 1995), one that completely does away with the notion of representation, be it primary or intermediate (see Setton 1999). In this sense Kendon (op. cit.: 326-334) provides extensive discussion of how attention is organized as an interactive phenomenon. He (op. cit.: 328) speaks of a:

tacit agreement sustained by participants to maintain this distinction between 'relevant' action and 'non-relevant' action that makes it possible for people to embark upon lines of action in respect to one another, and to observe each other's modes of dealing with those lines of action without, as it were, officially doing so.

He draws on Goffman's concept of 'attentional tracks' (see Goffman 1974: 201-246) to specify how relevant and non-relevant action is perceived by communicating parties. It is worth noting, in order to further our argument, that Goffman (1974: 210) mentions the 'regulating' of activity:

There is to be found a stream of signs which is itself excluded from the content of the activity but which serves as a means of regulating it, bounding, articulating, and qualifying its various components and phases.

Rather than making up a separate nonverbal level, the context provided by the behavioural environment of talk is reflexively linked to it within larger patterns of social activity.
The notion of context, especially with respect to interaction and discourse, is commonly understood to concern two types of context (see Schegloff 1992: 195): that which can be referred to as 'external' or 'distal' and that which can be considered 'internal', 'intra-interactional' or 'proximate'. The first type of context usually includes aspects of interaction in terms of class, ethnicity and gender that are understood as either a constraint on and ordering of social life, or as the embodiment of power concerns. Here the institutional setting plays a major role in shaping what goes on. Through the second type of context it is possible to understand the type of occasion or interaction that participants, through their actions, create. It is in this sense that we view interpreters as active participants in the creation of an interpreting event and, after Schegloff (op. cit.: 196-197), we feel that interpreters, by "marking the setting by so conducting themselves" become fundamental to the analysis of their conduct, implying a self-referential approach to the analysis of interpreters' behaviour.

Gumperz (1992) speaks of three levels or planes involved in creating a context. The first, a perceptual plane, concerns chunking what is perceived into information units or phrases before it can be interpreted. Accents and shifts in pitch register and tempo are part of this plane since they serve to provide information concerning construction units, the foregrounding and backgrounding of items of information, distinguishing between main points and qualifying information or side sequences (Gumperz 1992: 232). The second level concerns local assessments of sequencing and speech-act-level implicatures. Inferences at this level yield situated interpretations of 'communicative intent'. The third level is more global and involves framing, which signals what is expected in interaction at any one stage (Gumperz 1992: 233).

Differently from Hatim and Mason (1997) who suggest that local textural clues guide the simultaneous interpreter (perhaps similar to Gumperz's first and second level contextualization cues), we suggest interpreters' self-regulatory moves are guided by cues at all levels when exercising autonomy (see §2.1.2, p. 15) in the interpreting domain of communication (Figure 3.2).

Ochs (1979) charts broad contextual attributes and provides a range of phenomena that the notion of context must cover, which may in turn be divided into the two broader categories mentioned above, 'internal' and 'external' attributes. We mention them here so as to single out the best analytical tools with which to examine shifts in context. The
first is 'setting' or the social and spatial framework within which events occur. Hanks 
(1992: 46-76) offers evidence of how deictic systems provide communicating parties 
with systematic, interactively based resources for organizing their mutual access to their 
shared environment. He makes it clear, however, that neither the physical nor the social 
setting for talk is something that is fixed or immutable but that they provide constraints 
and are, however, dynamically and socially constituted by the actions and activities of 
the participants in communication. Indeed they stand in a reflexive relationship to the 
context created.

The second group of attributes proposed by Ochs (op. cit.) concerns the behavioural 
environment, or the way in which communicating parties use their bodies and behaviour 
as a resource for framing and organizing their talk. Of course, this may seem to concern 
only primary communicating parties. However, as active participants, interpreters are 
indeed called upon to follow their text through and in our perspective not only does the 
source text establish constraints for professionals, but their own unfolding text also 
does.

The third group of contextual attributes established by Ochs (1979) is 'language' as 
context. Among other things, it includes the way in which genres contextualize talk and, 
in contrast to views of context that conceptualize genres as frames that surround talk, 
Ochs emphasizes the way in which talk itself constitutes a main resource for the 
organisation of genres. This group of contextual attributes (language), Ochs suggests, 
emphasizes the dynamic nature of context and the ability of participants in 
communication to repeatedly invoke alternative contextual frames within the talk of the 
moment, which is one of the key insights provided by the notion of 'contextualization 

The notion of 'extra-situational context' constitutes Och's fourth set of attributes that 
define context. This typically involves background knowledge that extends far beyond 
the local talk and the immediate setting. Phillips (1992), for example, describes how 
phenomena once taken to be locally organized, such as hesitations and forms of repair, 
can in fact be seen as systematic features of larger processes when repetitive examples 
of comparable events are collected within a particular setting. Lindstrom (1992) 
examines discursive rules and conditions that give different people unequal rights and 
opportunities to contribute to a debate and to control the public meaning of what gets
said. This brings to mind samples 1.3 (ST) and 1.4 (TT) where what the interpreter says on behalf of the ST speaker can be imputed to the rules and conditions Lindstrom invokes as creating unequal rights and opportunities in voicing their opinions.

In this study we postulate language as residing in a cognitive-linguistic domain that is social in nature (§2.1, p. 10). Thus, in our definition of context as a linguistic phenomenon, we consider it interactional, as described in this section.

A discussion of interaction in talk in which the speaker holds the floor for an extended period, such as when giving a lecture or making a speech, requires us to analyse the notion of context in terms of shifts in context of both ST and TT speakers. Charles Goodwin investigated how talk emerges through the systematic processes of interaction, in which recipients are active co-participants. He has demonstrated that processes of interaction occur within an individual turn of talk (see Goodwin 1981). Goodwin and Goodwin (1992: 151-189) convincingly argue that the analysis of the participation framework within activities makes it possible to view communicating parties as not simply embedded within a context but actively involved in the process of building context.

Goffman (1981) suggests there are two sets of conditions required in order for interaction to occur: the first is what he calls system conditions or the structural requirements of talk, and the second he calls ritual conditions or the interpersonal requirements of talk, e.g. how to manage oneself and others. We draw inspiration from these two sets of conditions when assessing contextual shifts in simultaneous interpreting: constraints posed by different language systems (structural) and the interpersonal (ritual) constraints posed by the situation, alongside Goodwin's insight, i.e. that interaction occurs within an individual turn of talk. We analyse personal reference in our data (§6.1) in order to begin to understand how interpreters deal and interact with their professional environment shared with other communicating parties. We also examine how processes are presented in our data (§6.2) by considering shifts in transitivity patterns and agency. Finally, we explore how interpreters deal with threats to face (§6.3), since their face-work directly attests to behaviour geared toward professional survival.
Figure 3.1 illustrates our model of context and the analysis that flows from our data to assess contextual shifts.

Figure 3.1 Model to analyse contextual shifts

Figure 3.1 illustrates the interaction of contextual elements and the enactment of specific behaviour that is constitutive of a dynamic, shifting context. Figure 3.1 should be read as follows: personal reference, patterns of transitivity and politeness are the phenomena analysed in our data and the thesis discusses how they relate to the model of context we outline in this section; the phenomena examined belong either to structural or interpersonal constraints, structural relating to the internal context and interpersonal relating to the external context. The basic ingredients of this model, as culled from the discussion of context in this section, are thus summarised:

1. extra-situational context (Ochs, 1979) concerns background knowledge, local phenomena that are systematic features of larger processes (Phillips, 1992);
discursive rules and conditions giving people unequal power and control (Lindstrom, 1992);

2. internal/external context (Schegloff 1992): participants create internal context through their actions; external context concerns aspects of interaction understood as constraints on social life or the embodiment of power concerns;

3. structural constraints have to do with language systems; interpersonal constraints have to do with ritual constraints posed by the situation;

4. perceptions/implicatures/framing, etc. are three levels or planes in creating a context (Gumperz, 1992); setting/behaviour/genres, etc. are contextual attributes (Ochs, 1979), where genres both constrain and are constructed within contexts;

5. personal reference: deictic systems provide resources for organizing mutual access to shared environment (Hanks, 1992), which is not fixed but dynamic;

6. transitivity patterns: illustrate how processes are presented and agency is attributed;

7. politeness: face-work flowing out from perceptions, implicatures, and framing that are, in turn, contextualized in a specific setting, where particular behaviour occurs and genres construct and constrain.

From this summary of our contextual model there emerges a fundamental characteristic: context is dynamic and parties to communication interact with contextual elements and, at the same time, their interaction constructs context.

Bearing in mind contextual factors outlined in this section, it is important to stress that Brown (1995: 102) observed there to be "dissonance between how the speaker thinks of an object and how the listener thinks of an object (revealed by the way they each construct referring expressions in their turns as speaker)" but that this "does not necessarily block communication". Brown (op. cit.: 103) also notes that "there are occasions when a speaker cannot know what is the relevant information to offer a listener [...] and where the listener apparently ignores information provided by the speaker which is not currently relevant to the listener's own interests".
In the following sections we discuss the activity of interpreting (§3.1.2) and interactional patterns in the domain of interpreting (§3.1.3). Since interpreters, we submit, may be motivated by different factors with respect to the ST speaker (their "own interests"), we indeed expect to observe contextual shifts throughout our corpus. What remains to be seen is the nature, entity and effects of these shifts. We examine and describe those phenomena that have emerged as characteristic of contextual shifts in all corpus texts (Chapter 6). In order to clarify how contextual shifts occur, we now describe various aspects of the activity of interpreting and call on different scholars who have, in some way, discussed interpreting in terms of contextual concerns.

3.1.2 Participation framework in the interpreting event

Conferences, as events, are considered by de Beaugrande (1992: 223) as "discourse transactions wherein specialists gather to develop strategies of making 'progress' in defining issues and solving problems". The notion of 'transaction' in his definition serves us well in considering simultaneous interpreting as an interactional phenomenon. Few authors have described the primary activity involved in simultaneous interpreting - speechmaking - as an interactional phenomenon. Among these is Erving Goffman who dedicates an entire lecture on "The Lecture", a paper collected in his celebrated volume *Forms of Talk* (1981: 162-196) and an excellent example of self-referentiality. He describes the 'production shifts' that may occur throughout a lecture and the possible 'distance-altering' alignments experienced in this form of communication. He suggests it is possible to get at interactional issues by directing full attention to how a speaker manages him or herself since footing in lecturing is a measure of the multiple senses in which the self of the speaker can appear, or "the multiple self-implicatory projections discoverable in what is said and done at the podium", with at the centre the 'textual self' that is of long standing (op. cit.: 173). However, Goffman stresses that the interesting analytical point about lecturing is not the textual stance projected but the additional footings that can be managed at the same time, the distance-altering alignments (1981: 174). We have seen, in samples 1.1 and 1.2, that distance-altering alignments occur in the target text where the interpreter distinguishes between the "I" of the source text and the "I" of the interpreter and addresses her audience directly. In this sense, after Goffman (1981), it is clear how distance-altering alignments do not appear in the substance of a text but in the mechanics of transmitting it. Broadly speaking, Goffman (op. cit.: 181) describes the mechanics of lecturing as comprised of the following:
keyings (a removal of the self from the literal meaning of one's utterance as in the use of irony or sarcasm); text brackets (text introduction and closing); text parenthetical remarks (e.g. digressions, apologies, hedging) are signs of interaction that are oriented to the text and fit the mood and special interest of the audience; and the management of performance contingencies, or noise. Goffman suggests that when communication occurs, noise will also and a communication system "can be seen as a layered composite structure - electronic, physical, biological, and so forth; and that effective communication is vulnerable to noise sources from different layerings in the structure of the system that sustains it" (op. cit.: 182). Goffman refers to the structure and organisation (two concepts we define in Chapter 2) of lecturing and states that what is structurally crucial is the "partition between the inside and the outside of words, between the realm of being sustained through the meaning of a discourse and the mechanics of discoursing" (op. cit.: 173).

In his discussion of lecturing mechanics (op. cit.: 174), Goffman distinguishes these from 'structural' positions for speakers, linking his description of the lecture to context by explaining that the main difference between giving a speech and having readers read a speech is the 'access' audiences have to the speaker (op. cit.: 186-7). In the participation framework of a conference mediated by simultaneous interpreting (see §3.1.3, Fig. 3.2), the way a ST audience reacts (e.g. audibly) to a speaker can influence interpreter behaviour. In this sense they are a separate participant group. TT receivers are also aware of ST receivers and the way they react before them because of the time lag with which TT receivers hear the interpreter's TT. The text becomes tied to the occasion through a series of "contextualizing" devices (op. cit.: 188): through topical statements made in the lecture the speaker fulfils the audience's assumption that what they are about to hear was formulated just for the occasion; bracketing comments and parenthetical remarks, as mentioned, serve to maintain an air of 'fresh talk' or a simulation of fresh talk; scanning a text and addressing the audience directly without reading; a 'hypersmooth' delivery, one without the hesitations and repetitions characteristic of problems occurring when reading a text; 'high style' in the delivery of a text denoting elegance of language that implies the speaker's commitment to his speech in the particular occasion. In the participation framework of a conference it follows that these contextual devices imply a contextually shifting environment, one where the
interpreter alters his or her alignment both to adjust to and to construct his or her context.

Goffman's 'contextualizing' devices are indications of self-referentiality: they point to the lecture itself. It is in this direction that our analysis will develop so as to fully determine and assess context and possible shifts in the TT. Indeed Goffman himself states that through the delivery of the lecture the speaker-author warrants claims to his or her authority, rank, office, reputation, and so on, thus providing a "link between institutional status, reputation, and the occasion" (1981: 191). Addressing the occasion, the speaker takes part in a ritual that is carried out 'under cover of conveying his text' (ibid.). And, in this sense, we espouse this 'link' as a workable definition of 'context' for our premises, one that guides the analysis self-referentially, which reflects the object of study, self-regulation (see Chapter 2). In our discussion of a model with which to analyse contextual shifts (Fig. 3.3) we pointed out that the fundamental premise of the model is that, through their interaction, parties to communication construct context. Thus the 'link' we explore is the dynamic, constructive nature of context.

In terms of the participation framework of communicative events, Edmondson (1986) proposes that, even if interpreters may have some of the ST speaker's responsibilities such as formulating and creating utterances, they are not responsible for the content of utterances and thus their participation status is unique, being neither only hearers or speakers. However, various scholars have begun to argue that interpreters indeed have an active role in shaping the discourse of their texts (Berk-Seligson 1990; Wadensjö 1998; Roy 2000), even though their argument concerns face-to-face interpreting. For example, Cecilia Wadensjö (1998) theoretically grounds her work of situated interpreted encounters (liaison interpreting) in the analytical frameworks of Goffman's work on the nature of social encounters and organisation, and of Bakhtin's work on the dialogical theory of language and interaction. Wadensjö complements Goffman's production format with a breakdown of the listener's role in order to include those listener roles taken on by the interpreter. She proposes the following three roles under what she calls 'reception format' (1998: 91-93): listening as a 'reporter' (who only repeats what is heard), listening as a 'recapitulator' (who is expected to give an authorized voice to a prior ST speaker), and listening as 'responder' (who is addressed so as to make his or her own contribution to the communication). The listener's role in interpreting is also emphasized by Mason (1990) who models the interpreter's response
during performance within a situation that contemplates "formal monologue within a one-to-many addressee/addresser framework" (op. cit.: 149) as a reflection of the listening process. He notes that in simultaneous interpreting the listener often provides evidence of the listening process, which differs from that of conversational interaction (op. cit.: 156). In fact our focus on self-regulation in simultaneous interpreting brings us to adopt a perspective that is not dialogic in nature, as Wadensjö's, but rather autopoietic (see §2.1, p. 10), which views the activity as being subordinated to its own (professional) survival (see §2.1.3, p. 18).

Wolfgang Dressier (1994) discusses the text pragmatics of participant roles in simultaneous interpreting in one of the few studies - if not the only one - to address this subject. He raises the issue of how the interpreter should behave in order to put TT receivers in the position of recovering ST meaning (op. cit.: 98). Dressier defines the interpreter as having a 'side participant' role and describes the target text as having two co-speakers: the interpreter as 'overt speaker' and the source text speaker as 'covert speaker' (op. cit.: 104). Dressier does not explore these concepts further and, in theory, they are quite acceptable to explain how the activity of simultaneous interpreting is to be carried out. However, in practice, other types of communication also take place, as witnessed in Sample 1.2.

Ebru Diriker's (2001) ethnographic conference case study of English/Turkish simultaneous interpreting at a symposium on philosophy bears out the fact that the performance of conference interpreters is not limited to reproducing the intended ST meaning but includes active forms of involvement in the social and interactional context. She examined these conference texts for shifts from the ST speaker's first person (or "alien 1") to the 'l' of the interpreter. Diriker shows that the interpreters in her study not only spoke on behalf of the ST speaker but also addressed their listeners directly, communicated the reason behind problems and interruptions, voiced their comments and criticism towards the speakers or other aspects of the interaction and, quite interestingly, responded in self-defence to accusations of misinterpretations (see Diriker 2001: 269).

The following section explains simultaneous interpreting in terms of interactional patterns in the domains of communication that the activity creates.
3.1.3 Interactional patterns in the domain of interpreting

What is the communication going on in an interpreter-mediated event when a speaker takes the floor? What communication occurs when other parties intervene? In his recently published work entitled *Introducing Interpreting Studies*, Franz Pöchhacker (2004: 88-92) includes a section on interaction models and divides these into those which model the constellation of interacting parties, those which focus on the process of communication and those dealing specifically with the role of text or discourse in the communicative interaction. Pöchhacker offers excellent coverage of research carried out to date in his volume and has provided us with a springboard from which to move our analyses. We learn from the three different foci that none of the interaction models has yet considered participation framework in simultaneous interpreting and the interactional nature of texts.

Alexieva (1997/2002), however, offers a starting point in this sense. She outlines a proto-typology of interpreter-mediated events on the basis of seven scales relating to contextual aspects of the interacting parties. She locates the following scales along a continuum of 'universality' vs. 'culture-specificity' (op. cit.: 230):

"distance" vs. "proximity" (between speaker, addressee and interpreter);

"non-involvement" vs. "involvement" (of the speaker);

"equality/solidarity" vs. "non-equality/power" (related to status, role and gender of speaker and addressee, as well as the interpreter in some cases);

"formal setting" vs. "informal setting" (related to number of participants, degree of privacy, and the relative distance of the event from participant's home country);

"literacy" vs. "orality";

"cooperativeness/directness" vs. "non-cooperativeness/indirectness" (relevant to negotiation strategies);

"shared goals" vs. "conflicting goals".
Alexieva argues (op. cit.: 230-231) that events located towards the "universal" end of the continuum (those closer to the left side of the scales above) require the interpreter to act as an interlingual mediator, and his or her presence may even remain unnoticed (in simultaneous interpreting, as opposed to consecutive or liaison interpreting). The role of the interpreter in events located towards the "culture-specific" end of the continuum (the righthand side of the scales above) requires interpreters to actively intervene in communication to avoid misunderstandings. This extremely interesting list of prototypical interpreting events indeed lists most, if not all, aspects of 'external' contextual constraints characterizing the work of interpreters. In other words, Alexieva presents analytical distinctions for the speech event, or macro-level of mediated encounters, and disregards the 'internal' context or utterance level. We argue, however, that the interactional nature of the interpreter's task while working in the simultaneous mode sees professionals constantly negotiating at the textual level, despite the physical 'distance' that may exist between the speaker, addressee and interpreter. Our analysis indeed seeks to measure certain parameters indicated in her scales, but at the textual level (for example directness vs. indirectness, distance vs. proximity, shared goals vs. conflicting goals), using tools outlined in Chapter 5 (methodology) and implemented in Chapter 6 (analysis).

Keith (1984) suggests that although simultaneous interpreting communication is directed to a known group of listeners whose immediate reaction can be monitored during the ongoing process and hence the unfolding text can still be modified (1984: 309), interpreters are compelled to follow the original text at sentence level and the booth where they are located is rather remote from their audience. Keith holds that the various interpreting situations differ in terms of "a) the degree of interactionality involved, and b) the nature of the text produced by the speakers, whereby b) is obviously partly a function of a)" (Keith, 1984: 311). Interaction, in terms of the external context, is limited during simultaneous interpreting. Nonetheless our interactional perspective implies text negotiation carried out at the 'internal' contextual level. In what follows we try to tease apart the domains of communication which emerge during the interpreting activity in order to understand where behaviour such as that occurring in Samples 1.1 and 1.2 take place, so as to discern which roles are involved in such behaviour (see Chapter 7).
Figure 3.2 illustrates the basic communicating parties in an event mediated by simultaneous interpreting. In terms of the listeners/speakers involved, A and B communicate in one language, an Interpreter I (or II) mediates the event, and D communicates in another language.

Figure 3.2 The domain of interpreting

Key: A - ST speaker; I - interpreter; I I - interpreting team member; D - primary TT receiver; B - primary ST receiver; solid arrows, one-to-many communication; dash arrows, occasional communication, e.g. questions during discussion session; dotted arrows, interpreters' turn-taking.

An essential lack of balance, or disequilibrium, is readily distinguishable among the participants (listener/speaker A, interpreter I (or II), listener/speakers D and B), in terms of their listening/speaking behaviours in a conference setting:

1. interpreters are observed to speak more times than any of the listeners/speakers, since only two or three interpreters man a booth and turn-taking is observed;

2. A, I (or II), D and B each listen to the same number of speeches (their own plus those of the others).

It is the listening/speaking pattern - of which quantity and turn-taking are observed characteristics - that allows us to pick out the interpreters. Differing from conversational phenomena, here turn-taking occurs after one interpreter of a team finishes delivering a target text; each interpreter delivers a text to a varied number of listeners (in a one-to-many style, like listener/speaker A, solid arrows) and a turn marks both the beginning and end of a new delivery (dotted arrows mark turns between I and II).
Let us assume, in Figure 3.2, that A is a ST speaker and B a ST listener. I (or II) is both ST listener and TT speaker, whereas D is a TT listener. The only two parties that address an audience in a one-to-many style are A and I (or II). Both ST listener B and TT listener D may occasionally take the floor for brief periods of time during a discussion session. In the same vein, I (or II) may occasionally need to address A when, for example, the microphone is not turned on or to interpret D's comments to A. The domains thus created by the speaking patterns in Figure 3.2 are A-B, B-A (speakers of one language), I(or II)-D, D-I(or II) (speakers of another language), and I(or II)-A, A-I(or II) (speakers of one language). Interpreters' autonomy, i.e. the characteristic of setting themselves apart from a background by their own operations, distinguishes them from the communication as a whole. Indeed the listening/speaking pattern, i.e. the autonomy of the listeners/speakers, affects the interactional context of the communication, while this interactional context, in turn, determines, modifies and affects the listening/speaking pattern.

A case in point was seen in Sample 1.4. When the interpreter lowers his voice, he reports what happens at the podium when the Chair interrupts the delegate and speaks to her in the same language (<lowers voice> [the Chair tries in vain to interrupt the delegate] <raises voice>). The interpreter then turns his microphone off in a domain where he has no autonomy (according to our theoretical perspective), i.e. a domain where both parties speak the same language since the Chair addresses the ST speaker in English.

The same analysis can be extended to Samples 1.1-1.2 from our corpus. When the person communicating in English has an exchange with the Chair, the interpreter first reports what the person holding the floor is doing ("the woman says she was running to gain some minutes"), then interjects a comment of her own ("but if she runs like this it is impossible to follow"). In her reporting, the interpreter exercises autonomy within the domain of interpreting (Fig. 3.2). When the interpreter makes a comment of her own, however, she does so within one of the domains of the interpreter-mediated communication (I-D domain, Fig. 3.3), even if not within the domain of interpreting (Fig. 3.2).
This tells us that other kinds of communication take place within interpreter-mediated communication that are not part of the domain of interpreting (see also Diriker 2001). This discussion is extended in Chapter 6 (Fig. 6.1) when examining whose face is at stake during simultaneous interpreting.

3.2 Self-regulatory participation framework and interactional politeness

Several authors have highlighted the autonomous nature of performances in interpreting. For example Setton states (1999: 240) that the "relatively high autonomy an interpreter exercises in speech production in professional SI is confirmed by the 'additional' cohesive and directive packaging elements found in the output, and not least, in articulation, by the rich prosodic contour of the interpreters' versions". Garwood (2002) attempts to examine some of the reasons for this autonomy. On the one hand it is difficult to understand what these authors mean when they speak of autonomy. On the other, since they do not account for the interpreter's autonomy epistemologically, it is even more difficult to understand the essence of such behaviour and offer explanatory and predictive principles.

For Pöchhacker (personal communication) the notion of autonomy, concerning the target text, stems from Vermeer's (1989/2000) claim that the functional approach consists in getting away from the ST and focusing mainly on the production of a fully functional text in the target situation and culture. In discussing his own corpus Pöchhacker (1994) mentions the instances in which the TT is necessarily closely bound up with the ST: the speaker's slides accompanying the talk, long pauses during which
interpreters switch off the mike so that the first part of the speaker's resumptive utterance becomes audible in the headsets, target-culturally irrelevant explanations that would be cut in a translation but cannot be tampered with under the processing conditions of SI, and so on, all concerns of a contextual nature (see §3.1.1). He states that the target text in SI is indeed a text in its own right but concedes that, in theoretical terms, the TT is closer to a cultural/linguistic hybrid status as a result of the particular working mode. This intriguing account of the TT status in simultaneous interpreting also begs the question of interpreter role/s during performance and merits further analysis.

On the one hand participation framework and interactional politeness may seem to imply the conceptualization of an interlocutor. But, on the other, if we consider interaction as that which text producers and receivers experience during text negotiation (and bear in mind the interpreter is a special producer and receiver), it may seem to imply a more personal rapport with the text. In the first case we would invoke Bell's 'audience design' (1984, 2001) in order to come to grips with how a text is fashioned for an intended audience. In the second case Bell's model falls short of accounting for behavioural patterns that emerge in our data. In what follows (§3.2.1) we discuss Bell's model and various attempts to adapt it in translation studies, in order to weigh the value of applying Bell's design to our study. We then turn to discuss interactional politeness (§3.2.2) and what it can tell us in terms of participation framework and self-regulation.

### 3.2.1 Audience design and participation framework


- addressees (ratified participants in the exchange, whose presence is known to the speaker who addresses them directly);
- auditors (their presence is known and ratified but they are not addressed directly);
- overhearers (their presence is known but not ratified and they are not addressed);
Aside from these groups, communicators are also influenced by what Bell calls 'the referee group', i.e. third parties not physically present but whose salience influences the interaction even in their absence (Bell 1984: 186). The communicating party may be a member of the referee group (in-group) or not (out-group) and Bell links referee design to the concept of 'initiative design'. Initiative and responsive design are two dimensions of Bell's model. The responsive dimension accounts for interactions where speakers can adjust their behaviour in response to the audience. The initiative dimension distinguishes a situation in which it is impossible to obtain feedback because of spatial and temporal dislocation between the speaker and his or her audience, as in most written or media communication, or in out-group referee design. In refining his model, Bell (2001: 165) adds that "response always has an element of speaker initiative; initiative invariably is in part a response to one's audience".

Mason (2000) places the notion of audience design in translation in the context of target-oriented and functionalist theories of translation, arguing that the relationship between different participants may be explored from the perspective of pragmatics. Through his analysis of three translations, Mason finds translational shifts that can be attributed to systematic differences between the audience design of ST producers and that of TT producers. He concludes suggesting the usefulness of an audience design component to functionalist translation theory as a means of investigating interpersonal (between participants) and intertextual (socio-textual practices) relations in various target texts and translation situations.

In an unpublished PhD thesis investigating audience design in literary translations from Romanian into English, Serban (2003) draws on pragmatics, translation theory and sociolinguistics. Components of her analytical model are deixis (temporal, spatial and person) and presupposition (existential and cultural). Her most significant findings reveal the distancing nature of the audience design in the corpus translations and a consistency of distancing across the entire corpus (Serban 2003: 214). Besides identifying the patterns and analyzing how they work in her corpus texts, Serban also discusses factors that could potentially be involved in shaping the distancing audience design in the corpus, such as translator accommodation to the audience, politeness considerations and assumptions about relevance. Serban concludes that - although a
major factor in shaping translations - audience design is but one of the necessary components of a full account of the processes involved in translated texts (2003: 215).

In her discussion of audience design applied to translation, Serban turns to accommodation theory to explain how communicators adjust to their interlocutors, or to their own perception of or assumptions about them, stressing that the leading motivation for this is the need for approval, identification or integration (she cites Giles et al. 1991: 18, and Bell 1991: 74). Accommodation appears to be a process whereby people adjust to their assumptions about other people and to what they think others expect them to do (Serban 2003: 8). This recalls normative behaviour, which undoubtedly plays a leading role in explaining much professional behaviour and indeed Bell suggests that stylistic meaning has normative value. We discuss norms in §4.1.

From this brief account of audience design and its adaptation to translation studies we also find an interpersonal dimension to further explore in order to get to the root of self-regulatory behaviour, namely interactional politeness. In what follows we discuss the major politeness theories so as to find the most suitable aspects of politeness theory to explore in our study, to suit our theoretical perspective.

3.2.2 Face-work

Like modality and hedging, linguistic politeness cuts across the grammar and discourse of a language, in response to unfolding pragmatic needs and textual constraints. It is concerned primarily with the social negotiation of meaning, and only marginally with form or etiquette. Brown and Levinson (1987) propose in their seminal work on politeness that face is the key motivating factor for politeness. Even though face is a concept that is intuitively meaningful to people, it is one that is difficult to define in precise terms. Because of its psycho-biological foundations, borrowed from anthropologist Erving Goffman (1967), Brown and Levinson argue that politeness is a feature of every age and culture, thus a universal construct. They maintain that there are two main types of face concern: desire for autonomy, independence and freedom from imposition (negative face) and the desire for approval and appreciation (positive face). In their politeness model they advance the notion of face-threatening acts (FTAs) and do so primarily in relation to speech acts, such as requests, offers, compliments, and criticism. Table 3.1 lists those kinds of acts, after Brown and Levinson (1987), which intrinsically threaten face.
Brown and Levinson (1987: 68-71) provide a decision-making model for managing face and identify four major strategies (primarily in terms of illocutionary force):

carry out the FTA baldly, without redress (clear, unambiguous and concise speech);

employ positive politeness (speech which is avoidance-based and treats the hearer as an in-group member);

employ negative politeness (speech which is avoidance-based and respects the hearer's desire for freedom and autonomy);

carry out the FTA off-record (indirect and comparatively ambiguous speech).

Table 3.1 Intrinsic FTAs (source: Brown and Levinson 1987: 65-68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other-threatening acts</th>
<th>Self-threatening acts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative face</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts that predicate some future of act of Other: orders and requests; suggestions, advice; reminding; threats, warnings, dares</td>
<td>expressing thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts that predicate some future act of Self: offers; promises</td>
<td>acceptance of Other's thanks or apologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts that predicate some desire of Self over Other and his goods: compliments, expressions of envy or admiration, expressions of strong negative emotion towards Other</td>
<td>excuses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>acceptance of offers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>responses to Other's faux pas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unwilling promises and offers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive face</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts that show Self has a negative evaluation of the Other's positive face; expressions of disapproval, criticism, accusations, insults; contradictions, disagreements, challenges</td>
<td>apologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts that show Self does not care about Other's positive face: expressions of violent emotions; irreverence, taboo topics; bringing bad news about Other or good news about Self; raising controversial or strongly emotional topics; blatant non-cooperation in an activity; misuse of address terms and status-marked signals in initial encounters</td>
<td>acceptance of a compliment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>breakdown of physical control over body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>self-humiliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>confessions, admissions of responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>emotion leakage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It must be highlighted, however, that as Hatim and Mason have pointed out (1997: 81), the weight of an FTA is a cultural variable and different socio-cultural settings may attribute different degrees of seriousness to FTAs.

There have been many attempts to go beyond the framework developed by the groundbreaking work of Brown and Levinson (1987). One of these is the collection of essays edited by Spencer-Oatey (2000). As a whole, the essays examine cross-cultural interaction in general by comparing linguistic strategies of particular cultures, focusing frequently on the notions of directness and indirectness, which have always been a major issue in politeness research. Many of the essays on misunderstandings and breakdowns in communication, which have rarely been examined, provide a useful addition to the general concerns of politeness theory. Spencer-Oatey's own work argues that the term 'face' as used in politeness research only concentrates on the needs of the individual that, she submits, is a particularly Western bias and hence makes it particularly unsuited to cross-cultural interaction except within the West. For example, in interactions between Asian and Western communicators, the way the group is represented, or the way in which the individual fits into a role defined by the group, may be more of concern. She uses the term 'rapport management' (op. cit.: 11-46) to define the relation between the group and self. Further, she challenges the distinction between positive and negative face that Brown and Levinson propose, and suggests that their conception of face is underspecified, concluding that what they define as negative face issues are not necessarily face concerns at all (op. cit.: 13). She adds to face (that has to do with the personal and social value of the individual) a notion of sociality rights that are "concerned with personal/social expectancies and reflect people's concerns over fairness, consideration, social inclusion/exclusion and so on" (op. cit.: 14). Therefore, in addition to the notion of a face-threatening act, she suggests we reason in terms of right-threatening behaviour, which represents a significant modification of Brown and Levinson's work, making it more amenable to cross-cultural analysis. Nonetheless, our theoretical perspective designed to analyse self-regulation during simultaneous interpreting brings us to focus on the self and on the relation of this self to the external context. Hence we indeed emphasize the individual over the socio-cultural in the sense that the very construct of survival is itself self-oriented (see §2.3, p. 24). In this regard Spencer-Oatey's construct of 'rapport management' is well suited to our needs, since the interpreter indeed is in a position of managing a rapport between ST speaker and TT.
audience. In the domain of interpreting (Fig. 3.2) the conference interpreter has an established role for which he or she is called upon, the duties of which are partly sanctioned by the presence of simultaneous interpreting equipment. However, Spencer-Oatey's notion of sociality rights, composed of equity rights (personal entitlement, i.e. the extent to which we are exploited or disadvantaged and the extent to which people control us or impose on us) and association rights (our entitlement to an association with others) mainly concern the extra-situational context (Fig. 3.1) which goes beyond the scope of this study, since we are here concerned with linguistic politeness.

Bayraktaroglu and Sifianou (2001) edited another collection of articles dealing with politeness across cultures. The articles, all empirically based, concentrate on specific discourse situations in Greek and Turkish. In their introduction (op. cit.: 3), the editors suggest that definitions of politeness reflect northern European norms, where it is conceptualized as a means of avoiding conflict in interactions. The volume attempts to redress the balance, examining politeness in different cultural contexts. It highlights the fact that in other cultures politeness can be 'face-boosting' or 'face-enhancing', where sociability at times even overpowers respectability (op. cit.: 4). Our study focuses on interpreters mediating across cultures, whose main loyalty - according to our theoretical perspective - is ultimately to themselves and to the furthering of their professional capacity. Nonetheless we, too, can conceive of moments where sociability may overpower (personal) respectability within the social organisation of the interpreting profession but, again, these are concerns of the extra-situational context that are beyond the scope of this study.

Gino Eelen (2001) also considers that the notion of politeness differs from one culture to another, but even from one regional and social variety to another. He is very critical of Brown and Levinson's theoretical assumptions because they rely on Speech Act theory, focus too heavily on the speaker at the expense of the hearer, i.e. speaker's manipulation of the hearer to comply with a request (op. cit.: 22) where empirical hearer variability is left unexplained (op. cit.: 158), and because they also assume that all politeness is strategic. Whereas he argues that the only place where hearer variability is recognized in politeness theories is at the level of culture, he himself falls short of clearly defining culture, overlapping it with terms such as 'norms' (op. cit.: 198) 'society' (op. cit.: 190, 198, 216-218) and 'evaluation' (op. cit.: 230-231) in an attempt to present
his own ideas on a distinction of two types of politeness. He holds that most theorists of politeness confuse what he calls politeness1 (the common-sense notion of politeness) and politeness2 (the scientific conceptualization of politeness). He argues that, unlike politeness1, which is restricted to the polite end of the polite-impolite continuum, politeness2 should cover the whole range of the continuum. Eelen claims that the main politeness theories do not distinguish between politeness1 and politeness2 because of the normative value of most of the theories. His criticism is based on the work of Pierre Bourdieu's notion of 'habitus' that, he suggests, should be used as a guide in the development of a theoretical framework where the socio-cultural is the result of human interaction rather than the opposite. After Bourdieu, he considers culture to be the core issue in the field of politeness. Although Eelen's book is a provocative critique of politeness theory, it does not offer an operational model of analysis. For example, because key terms such as 'norm' and 'culture' are underdefined, a feasible distinction is not made between his concepts of politeness1 and politeness2. As suggested in our discussion on 'context', we feel that all interaction is fundamentally social, and takes place in a cognitive-linguistic domain (see §2.1, p. 10). However, our theoretical perspective contemplates that professional interpreters subordinate all behaviour to the maintenance of their own (professional) organisation (see §2.1.3, p. 18). And, although we too stress the prominence of normative behaviour in professional interpreting, the nature of our object of study - professional self-regulation - takes us one step beyond a 'mutual' interaction to consider behaviour geared primarily to ensuring the maintenance (survival) of an interpreter's professional status.

How, then, does our study stand in terms of politeness theory? After Brown and Levinson (1987), we hold that face is indeed the key motivating factor for politeness. We thus have the burden of getting to the root of what maintaining one's professional face in interpreting actually means. Though the concept of politeness may vary in extension across cultures, gaining more prominence in individualist than collectivist societies, a fundamental distinction remains between negative face and positive face. This distinction theorises a need to avoid external constraints and the desire to be appreciated for what we are, have and do. Conceding that the maintenance of one's face - in different cultural contexts - may even mean temporarily sacrificing one's face in order to redress an interpersonal balance within a given socio-cultural context, our working definition of politeness straddles that of Brown and Levinson on the one hand,
and Spencer-Oatey's on the other. However, although our data are comprised of both corpus texts and briefing/debriefing interviews (see Chapter 5), information concerning the wider (or external) social context in this study is rather limited since a study of such a context would require data covering the span of a wider temporal range, with perhaps the contribution of a far greater number of subjects than this study contemplates (§5.2.1). We thus conceive of politeness theory as an attempt to model interpersonal language behaviour as a whole. In this sense Brown and Levinson's list of actual linguistic moves still seems not to have been superseded, and thus are used in this study as workable tools for analysis applied to our data (Table 3.2), bearing in mind the particular participation framework in interpreter-mediated conferences. The five communicating parties outlined in Figure 3.2 (ST speaker A, ST receiver B, TT receiver D, interpreters I, II) are our starting point in assessing the possible dynamics of threats to face within a professional environment. A ST speaker may perform FTAs to ST and TT receivers (interpreters excluded) or interpreters may perceive an act as threatening his or her own face or jeopardizing professional survival (see Table 3.1). Threats may also be made towards TT receivers and perceived by interpreters as such. Our analysis aims to detect interpreters' behaviour in these cases. Of course these three types of threats imply that the analyst, first and foremost, is the broker of all perceptions, insights, statements and claims made in this study. Therefore we can safely say that all three scenarios concerning threats are primarily, in this study, perceived as such by the analyst.

Table 3.2 lists a summary of specific negative and positive politeness strategies for managing face, after Brown and Levinson (1987). We hold the notion of face redress to be autopoietic in nature. Maturana (1975) describes systems as self-referring (see §2.1, p. 10. Thus, in a system dynamics perspective, any linguistic move interpreters make that aim to redress face (Table 3.2) are made so as to maintain their autonomy (as defined in this study, see §2.1.1, p. 14) and, as mentioned, interpreters subordinate all behaviour to the maintenance of their own (professional) organisation.

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*S, speaker; H, hearer.*
Table 3.2 Linguistic moves as face-saving strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Claim common ground</td>
<td>Show interest in H (exaggerate, intensify interest in H)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use in-group identity markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seek or avoid agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Presuppose common ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Joke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Convey S and H are cooperators</td>
<td>Offer, promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Be optimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>include both S and H in activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Give (or ask for) reasons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fulfil H's wants</td>
<td>Give goods, sympathy, cooperation to H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Be direct</td>
<td>Be conventionally indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Don't presume, assume</td>
<td>Question, hedge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Don't coerce H</td>
<td>Be pessimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Minimize the imposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate desire not to</td>
<td>Give deference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>impinge on H</td>
<td>Apologize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impersonalize S and H</td>
<td>State FTA as a general rule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Redress other H wants,</td>
<td>Nominalize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deriving from neg. face</td>
<td>Go on record as incurring a debt or as not indebted H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We refer to this table in §6.3 when discussing our findings in terms of face-work.

3.3 Concluding remarks

In discussing SI as situated activity we have first reviewed the notion of context as conceived by various scholars in Translation and Interpreting Studies (§3.1). We have dealt specifically with the context of interpreting (§3.1.1) and drawn upon the work of Schegloff (1992) in order to determine two types of context in relation to interaction and discourse: 'internal' and 'external' context. We have presented a model to analyse contextual shifts in interpersonal language behaviour (fig. 3.1), which is also inspired by the work of Ochs (1979), Goffman (1981) and Gumperz (1992) in terms of structural constraints relating to the internal context (perceptions, implicatures, framing) and of interpersonal constraints relating to the external context (setting, behaviour, genres). We have established that the analysis of contextual shifts is best carried out through an
examination of personal reference, transitivity patterns and the attribution of agency, and linguistic politeness. We have stressed that the fundamental characteristic of this model is its dynamic nature whereby communicating parties both interact with and construct context.

Having established a model of context, we then examined the interpreting event through the perspective of participation framework. Here we considered the interpreter's potential shifts in alignment in relation to the internal context and have drawn upon Goffman's (1981: 188) notion of 'contextualizing' devices as indications of self-referentiality in texts. We have argued for the interpreter's autonomy in shaping the discourse of their texts (§3.1.2) and emphasized that other types of communication also take place within the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event (fig. 3.3). Interactional patterns in the domain of interpreting were fleshed out (§3.1.3) in order to conceive of a self-regulatory participation framework through the perspective of interactional politeness (§3.2). Here audience design was briefly discussed (§3.2.1) along with politeness theories (§3.2.2) in order to establish the relevance of strategic linguistic moves as face-saving strategies in answer to contextual constraints in the negotiation of source texts during simultaneous interpreting (Table 3.2).

This chapter has mainly focussed on describing simultaneous interpreting as communicative interaction. Chapter 4 examines Interpreting Studies as system by taking into consideration the nature of texts published in the field. These are divided into 'extratexts' (the literature on norms), 'paratexts' (the collocation and nature of recent texts published in the English language) and 'metatexts' (recent works which critically examine Interpreting Studies).
In Chapters 2 and 3 we have reviewed the literature of relevance to this study, i.e. the literature underlying our theoretical perspective of simultaneous as an activity governed by self-regulation. This chapter examines Interpreting Studies as system from a self-reflexive perspective. Since the concept of autonomy, as defined in this study, indeed lies at the basis of self-regulation, we submit that an analysis of the autonomous nature of Interpreting Studies with respect to other disciplines may illuminate the development of prevalent norms and constructs in interpreting. Leydesdorff (2003: 166) suggests the importance of taking a systems perspective.

The systems perspective originates from taking a reflexive turn. Observations, for example, were defined by Luhmann (1984) from his 'second-order' perspective as the operation of first distinguishing and then indicating the distinctions made. [...] It should be noted that the operation of 'observation' thus defined implies two operations. By (re)combining the network operation with the historical information, the analytical perspective adds to an understanding of the historical cases. For example, one may wish to raise the question why some things did not happen? (original emphasis)

In an attempt to understand the interpreter's self-regulatory moves within the framework of an evolutionary process, we take on a systems perspective in this review of Interpreting Studies as system. We divide this review into three sections: extratexts (§4.1), paratexts (§4.2) and metatexts (§4.3).
4.1 Extratexts

Arguing that the professional meta-discourse constitutes its social context, Diriker (1999) highlights that norms prevalent in interpreting convert the values shared in the profession into performance prescriptions. This section discusses what we define as 'extratexts', the general meta-discourse on interpreting circulating independently of individual interpretations (e.g. oral texts used in empirical studies), therefore 'detached' from a description of these oral texts (see Tahir-Gürçaglar 2002 and Gile 1999). We thus review the body of literature, albeit scarce, which discusses norms in interpreting to some extent. The section opens by describing initial attempts to entertain a discussion of norms (§4.1.1) and then reviews the development of this discussion, as witnessed by literature produced primarily in the 1990s (§4.1.2). The section ends with a discussion of more recent attempts to focus on interpreting norms (§4.1.3).

4.1.1 Initial discussion of norms

In an article that appeared in Target in 1989, Miriam Shlesinger attempted to launch a discussion of simultaneous interpreting as a norm-governed behaviour and proposed examining the possibility of extending the notion of translational norms to interpreting. She began by highlighting how the emergence of shared values and ideas in interpreting contexts was difficult because of the rarity of recurrent situations of the same type. Further, even though interpreters may be exposed to spoken texts in a particular target language, it is unlikely they would relate - and compare - this output to interpreted target texts. Lamenting the lack of textual corpora from which to analyse normative behaviour, she suggested looking for norms in interpreting schools. Since many practising interpreters have been trained in a restricted number of schools, those professionals who teach may be a factor in the dissemination of interpreting norms (Shlesinger 1989: 111-112). In sum, Shlesinger stresses the obstacles inherent to the interpreting 'system' that restrict the proliferation of norms governing interpreting.

In answer to Shlesinger's call, Harris (1990) used the same forum to advance the discussion on norms in interpreting. He essentially presented a more optimistic view concerning the possibility of extracting norms from professional practice and mentioned a series of constructs prevalent among conference interpreters. These include speaking in the first person, turn-taking thresholds in booth, working into one's native language,
and norms concerning the acceptability of target language production (op. cit.: 115-117). He concluded his discussion by highlighting one other "more fundamental and universal" norm: the "honest spokesperson", i.e. this norm "requires that people who speak on behalf of others, interpreters among them, re-express the original speakers' ideas and the manner of expressing them as accurately as possible and without significant omissions, and not mix them up with their own ideas and expressions" (op. cit.: 118). Harris clarifies that "the whole system" (ibid.) would break down if this norm did not exist, since it represents the foundation on which interpreters are entrusted with the responsibility of their activity and as such it merits mention "at least once" (ibid.) in a discussion on norms. Our study challenges the 'universal' norm suggested by Harris, in as much as the construct of survival (self-regulation) implies, first and foremost, personal (professional) survival and thus may preclude interpreters from heeding text receivers' expectations when their professional survival is at stake.

It is significant that both Shlesinger's and Harris' pioneering attempts to discuss norms in Interpreting Studies appeared in Target, a journal that "has as one of its explicit aims to focus on translational norms" (Schjoldager 1995/2002: 301). We consider the particular collocation of Interpreting Studies literature in the section devoted to paratexts (§4.2). The following section reviews the discussion on norms in conference interpreting that primarily developed in the 1990s.

4.1.2 Development of a discussion on norms

In 1995 Anne Schjoldager regenerated the discussion on norms and was the first to search for translational norms (Toury 1995) in a corpus of interpreted texts. She concedes that it is difficult to determine to what degree working conditions constrain interpreters' choices and thus acknowledges this as a methodological problem for the extrapolation of norms in a corpus. Schjoldager proposes introducing specific norms for simultaneous interpreting that govern "what the interpreter ought to do - or is allowed to do - when the task becomes difficult or impossible" (Schjoldager 1995/2002: 303). Data collected from her experimental corpus suggest one norm to be that "an interpreter is allowed to say something which is apparently unrelated to the source-text item in question ... provided that s/he can say something which is contextually plausible" (op. cit.: 310).
Despite Schjoldager's attempt, more recently Shlesinger (1997: 124) again voiced her doubt concerning the issue of interpreting norms by repeating her claim that "the history of interpretation has not been conducive to the development of either synchronic or diachronic norms." An example of the difficulty in this sense is represented by an article written by Gile (1999) that appeared in a volume dedicated to translation and norms (Schäffner 1999), which dealt specifically with norms in research on conference interpreting. Admitting that he has always "focused on topics in which either the norms were taken for granted and prescriptive (in the didactic field), or cognitive issues were at the centre of attention (in conference interpreting)" (Gile 1999: 98), he mentions a series of norms prevailing in simultaneous interpreting: "maximizing information recovery", "maximizing the communication impact of the speech", the latter being a hypernorm covering other norms, such as "making the meaning sufficiently clear", "avoiding potentially offending translations", "finishing one's interpretation as rapidly as possible", "in a setting with many non-native speakers of the target language, making one's language neutral", and "minimizing recovery interference" (op. cit.: 99-100). Even though, as Toury (1995: 55) states, verbal formulations of norms are an indication of the awareness of existing norms and a measure of their significance, they also imply the desire to dictate norms rather than account for them. Thus Gile's discussion of these norms becomes an exercise in prescription rather than definition or description, as Diriker (1999: 76) points out.

Indeed it is Diriker (1999) who, at the end of the decade, begins problematizing the discourse on interpreting in an article she subtitles as "a quest for norms in simultaneous interpreting". Diriker results as being at one remove from the other scholars discussed in this section, in the sense that she discusses others' discussions of norms, from a position of second-order observation. This would indeed make her an excellent candidate to be included in the section dedicated to metatexts (§4.3). We in fact include her recent publication (Diriker 2004) there (§4.3.2) in order to 'de-/re-contextualise simultaneous interpreting'. In her former contribution (Diriker 1999: 73) she attempts to show that "certain norms seem to prevail for simultaneous interpreting which can challenge the general disinterest in norms in the field and give impetus to further research on this topic". After examining work done, Diriker critically analyses the written discourse on SI, but makes clear that we cannot "assume a direct correlation between the norms prevailing in the discourse on SI and actual interpreting behaviour" (op. cit.: 78). She
clarifies, however, that analyzing discourse on SI makes it possible to "point to the larger social framework where interpreters have to survive" (ibid., my emphasis). Her mention of "survival" indeed brings the emphasis to bear on prime intentions that reign in an internal context (at a textual level) to satisfy external contextual ('larger social framework') priorities. Diriker extracts two, fundamental norms that emerge in the discourse on SI: "the interpreter is expected to produce an immediately intelligible output" and "the interpreter is asked to remain faithful to the meaning by accessing and reproducing the meaning in the source text" (op. cit: 84). She of course highlights the contradiction in these two norms by questioning the plausibility of being 'immediately intelligible' and 'faithful to the meaning' of the source text. One may also question the epistemological validity of separating the 'what' is being said from the 'how' it is said. But, "after all, SI has to survive as a profession" (op. cit.: 85, my emphasis). Diriker once again puts the issue in self-regulatory terms ('survival'), a clear indication that something more is at stake than transferral and fidelity. In this thesis, we argue that survival is indeed the agenda, hidden or otherwise, underlying professional behaviour.

The following section reviews two recent articles that examine norms from different perspectives: Garzone (2002) proposes a discussion on norms at the service of quality in interpreting; Inghilleri (2003) reiterates the discussion on 'translational norms' in relation to interpreting as a socially situated activity.

4.1.3 A discussion on norms in conference interpreting today

Garzone (2002: 109-110) proposes looking beyond the texts or the situation in which the interpreted event is framed and devising a generalised principle to explicate what lies at the basis of an interpreter's behaviour. She suggests using norms as such a principle and distinguishes them as "internalised behavioural constraints which govern interpreters' choices in relation to the different contexts where they are called upon to operate, the aim being to meet quality standards" (op.cit.: 110). She clarifies that this definition of norms has its counterpart in text reception, and reminds us that users' expectations can also be seen as norm-based. She cites Hermans (1999a: 57) to stress that the norms concept can be used as a guide, not necessarily as regularities to be extracted from corpora, but as prevailing normative and cognitive expectations, as well as professional choices made among a range of alternatives.
She goes on to discuss how norms operate in SI (op. cit.: 112-115) and adopts Toury's (1995:57ff) classification of norms as 'preliminary' and 'operational'. She includes 'matricial' norms as a subcategory of operational norms in interpreting. Garzone highlights interest in these specific norms, since they "govern omissions, additions and changes" (op. cit.: 114), and emphasises the problematic nature of matricial norms in the assessment of quality. Often thought of as errors, she stresses that they are used as emergency strategies and as such contribute to the quality of the performance.

Although our study challenges the notion of an interpreter's behaviour geared toward norm-based quality, we agree with Garzone in terms of neither quality nor norms being absolute, but rather dependent on the context. Also, her mention of emergency strategies (seemingly the rule rather than the exception in simultaneous interpreting) supports our claim that an interpreter's behaviour primarily aims toward professional survival.

To further her argument, Garzone uses the concept of 'habitus' (Bourdieu 1977, 1990), also proposed by Hermans (1999a: 58), to point up the social nature of norms. Inghilleri (2003) develops this notion and proposes a theoretical framework with which to analyze public service interpreting as a norm-governed translational activity.

Inghilleri's model seeks to explain the generative nature of norms, considering norms both "as socio-cultural constructions and as constructive of socio-cultural practices" (Inghilleri 2003: 243). In an attempt to address the limitations of Toury's (1995) descriptive approach, Inghilleri focuses her attention on social structures and institutions and stresses the cultural, historical and political specificity of contexts within which interpreting takes place. She explores the constitution of 'field' (Bourdieu 1977, 1990) and views interpreting as a 'pedagogic discourse' (Bernstein 1990, 1996), suggesting that these theoretically support the view of interpreting as a norm-based, socially constituted activity. The theories of field and pedagogic discourse, Inghilleri claims, view norms as "realisations of discursive practices, recontextualised from a structure of inter-related fields and their corresponding sets of inter-locking habituses" (Inghilleri 2003: 246). Her model reflects the fundamental notion underlying our study, i.e. that language (and consciousness) resides in a linguistic-cognitive domain and is essentially social in nature (Monacelli 2000: 195-197).
Inghilleri offers a framework for the empirical and theoretical investigation of norms consisting of four interlocking components (op. cit.: 250): the explicit or implicit, inter-related and potentially divergent norms for interpreting found in specific formal and informal settings, the sources from which norms are generated, official and unofficial discursive sites where norms reside, and the text located in a wider social context. She bases her model on Toury's three types of translational norms (initial, preliminary, operational) and suggests that any initial norms influencing interpreter's choices in terms of adequacy and target acceptability are generative of the context-specific cultural/linguistic habitus, established through a variety of fields, e.g. educational, political, or economic, in which dispositions towards language(s) through official language policies, social/linguistic practices of inclusion/exclusion and material provision for bi- or multi-lingual resources are evident. (op. cit.: 250-251, original emphasis)

In this manner, Inghilleri proposes any initial norm as the relationship between the source and target language and possible issues of cultural/linguistic dominance. She also stresses that any initial translational norm may be influenced by a non-translational norm educed from within the same cultural/linguistic habitus, but with a specific set of realisations operating independently of the interpreting context (ibid.).

Preliminary norms in her model are generative of what Inghilleri calls the 'local/global political habitus' operating in a given context. She uses as an example any stated policies concerning a non-native speaker's right to an interpreter. In conference interpreting this would signify any formal or informal policies governing the choices of which language combinations to cater for.

At the next level in her model, Inghilleri points to an inter-related habitus within social institutions and the operational norms enacted in both official and unofficial discursive practices. She suggests that translational operational norms are evident in the pedagogic content of training institutes and that a text shows the impact of norms on interpreting activity. Inghilleri stresses that this is the place where we can observe norms as they are adopted, adapted, negotiated and contested and specifies that these processes can occur at all levels of the interpreting context. Since norms are always performed in and through interaction, and since these interactive relationships are
negotiated, Inghilleri highlights the conflicting agendas (interpreters vs. other participants in internal and external context) that potentially arise. She discusses data reported in Anker (1991) in relation to asylum hearings in order to investigate interpreting norms at both a theoretical and methodological level. Anker's study raised the following issues concerning interpreter decision-making: the role of the interpreter's background knowledge of the event; the potential for conflicting skopos emerging among the parties to the event; the inter- and intra-cultural nature of the interpreting activity. Inghilleri suggests that the potential for translational activity to operate as "open and active negotiation over meaning(s), however, is mediated by the relationship between the set of inter-related fields and the accompanying habitus which impact on the interpreting context" (Inghilleri 2003: 260, original emphasis). In other words, interpreters act within, and are constituted by, the external context in which the interpreting activity takes place. Inghilleri concludes that it is at the discursive gaps resulting between the local, interactional practices, and the social norms that function to suppress these contradictions, that the possibility arises to challenge existing social relations and practices.

She indeed acknowledges Simeoni's claim (1998: 12) that translators have a tendency to be subservient to established norms and their informing habitus (Inghilleri 2003: 261). However, her paper argues for an alternative view: interpreters are "the embodiment of distinctive, contradictory and conflicting habitus among the participants" in a mediated encounter (ibid.). This model emerged from her analysis of political asylum interviews, which raises the issue of its adaptability to other interpreting contexts. In any case her view that "the relationship between micro-interactional and macro-structural relations is fundamental to and informs all interpreted interactions" (op. cit.: 262) is similar to the position adopted here.

Our data analysis aims to contribute to elucidating the relationship between the internal and external contexts in an event mediated by simultaneous interpreting in this sense. The following section discusses the Interpreting Studies literature as a system, from a paratextual perspective.
4.2 Paratexts

Our decision to include this category in a review of Interpreting Studies as system was inspired by an article entitled 'What texts don't tell: The uses of paratexts in translation research' (Tahir-Gürçaglar 2002) on the relevance of "prefaces, postfaces, titles, dedications, illustrations and other in-between phenomena" in mediating between readers and texts in translation research. Since this chapter focuses on Interpreting Studies as system, we here consider three influential publishers in the field and the paratexts of recent volumes on interpreting, focussing also on the 'collocation' of these works in terms of the series in which it is included. In particular, we identify the specific publication in contrast to others included in the same series in order to distinguish its significance to Interpreting Studies.

The following subsections discuss the three influential publishing fora for scholarly work in the discipline, that primarily publish in the English language: St. Jerome (§4.2.1), Routledge (§4.2.2), and John Benjamins (§4.2.3).

4.2.1 St. Jerome series

St. Jerome is a small independent publisher "committed to promoting high quality research and publication in all areas of translation studies and cross-cultural communication". We understand from this brief description of St. Jerome Publishing's mission that Interpreting Studies is considered an 'area' of translation studies. In 1995 it launched its first refereed international journal, The Translator. The journal also includes studies on interpreting under this title.

Currently St. Jerome publishes two series: Translation Theories Explored (Theo Hermans, series editor), and Translation Practices Explained (Dorothy Kelly, series editor). The volume published by St. Jerome on interpreting, Conference Interpreting Explained (Roderick Jones 1998), was originally to be included in a series entitled Translation Theories Explained (Anthony Pym, series editor). Titles in that series included:

1. Translation as Purposeful Activity (Christiane Nord, 1997)
2. Translation and Gender (Luise von Flotow, 1997)
3. Translation and Language (Peter Fawcett, 1997)
4. Translation and Empire (Douglas Robinson, 1997)
5. Translation and Literary Criticism (Marilyn Gaddis Rose, 1997)
6. Translation in Systems (Theo Hermans, 1999b)

The above series (Translation Theories Explained) was then substituted by the two series mentioned previously and Jones' work was subsequently included in the Translation Practices Explained series. This series is a collection of course books that offer "something more than elaborate abstraction or fixed methodologies". Indeed in his foreword to the volume Jones explains that the book was commissioned to "fill a gap in the existing literature on interpreting" (op. cit.: 1). He specifies that he wrote the book as a practitioner and not as an academic, nor as a theorist or researcher, and in no way did he intend to rival theoretical works in interpreting.

The collocation of this work in a 'practical' series (Translation Practices Explained), and the few interpreting volumes published by St. Jerome Publishing with something more than a practical slant, project Interpreting Studies as having two essential characteristics: on the one hand the discipline is perceived as one area of translation studies rather than an independent discipline in its own right; on the other, interpreting is often removed from theoretical discussion, which reinforces the notion of it being one of the many sub-areas of translation studies.

4.2.2 Routledge series

This section reviews two volumes published by Routledge: The Interpreting Studies Reader (Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002), and Introducing Interpreting Studies (Pöchhacker 2004) and does so by comparing them with the two volumes published in the same series dedicated to translation studies, The Translation Studies Reader (Venuti 2000) and Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and applications (Munday 2001). We concentrate on the two 'Reader' volumes since they may be defined as compendiums, i.e. concise but comprehensive summaries of longer works, thus offering an array of works that are to some degree representative of the literature produced in each discipline. We discuss the 'Introducing' volumes because they offer readers a showcase of how the discipline describes itself.

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The Translation Studies Reader was edited in 2000 by Lawrence Venuti. In smaller printing under the editor's name we read "Advisory editor: Mona Baker" (volume front cover). The work is organized into five chronological sections, divided by decade. There is an introductory essay prefacing each section, a detailed bibliography and suggestions for further reading.

The introduction to the volume includes the following subsections: Translation Studies, an emerging discipline; What is translation theory?; Classroom applications. Venuti proposes the work to be read historically or thematically and suggests readers to use supplementary readings. At the end of his introduction Venuti invites instructors who have adopted it for classroom use to offer feedback, basically for the purposes of revision and subsequent editions. In the subsection entitled 'What is translation theory?' Venuti suggests (2000: 5) that underlying any translation research is the 'autonomy' of translation, and the textual features or strategies that distinguish it from unmediated communication. He stresses that it is precisely these features that make translation emerge as an object of study and he proposes the history of translation theory as the relationship between the "relative autonomy of the translated text, or the translator's actions, and two other concepts: equivalence and function" (ibid.).

The Interpreting Studies Reader was edited by Franz Pöchhacker and Miriam Shlesinger in 2002. It is proposed as a "comprehensive guide to the growing area of interpreting studies" (volume back cover) and puts the different approaches to interpreting in their thematic and social contexts. Its features include an introductory essay reviewing the evolution of Interpreting Studies. The volume is organized into seven thematic sections, each with an editors' introduction, added to a comprehensive bibliography and suggestions for further reading.

Differently from the translation studies reader, this volume has both a preface and an introduction. The preface makes mention of the need to devote a separate volume to Interpreting Studies rather than relegating it to a subsection of Venuti's Translation Studies reader by stating that the idea "was not immediately evident, but was readily espoused in consultations with Advisory Editor Mona Baker" (Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002: ix). In the preface the authors say they are grateful to their editor for embracing Mona Baker's proposal for a separate Reader on Interpreting Studies.
The volume's introduction includes the following subsections: Interpreting Defined; IS: the name and nature of Interpreting Studies; IS in relation to TS and to other disciplines; The evolution of IS; IS as a discipline; About this Reader: Selection, Structure. Compared to the *Translation Studies Reader* the introduction here is entirely concentrated on defining IS and distinguishing it from TS. Another major difference worthy of note is that the TS reader introduction contains an entire subsection dedicated to translation theory, whereas the IS reader focuses mainly on mapping out the discipline. The TS reader introduction also includes a sub-section on how best to make use of it in the classroom.

Routledge also published a volume on interpreting in its 'Introducing' series. This is compared below to the same volume dedicated to translation studies in the series.

*Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and applications* was written by Jeremy Munday and published by Routledge in 2001. The very first (unnumbered) page tells us that each chapter includes the following features: a table representing the key concepts; an introduction outlining the translation theory or theories; illustrative texts with translations; a chapter summary; discussion points and exercises. The volume is specifically defined as follows: "Including a general introduction, an extensive bibliography and internet sites for further information, this is a practical, user-friendly textbook that gives a balanced and comprehensive insight into translation studies". Munday's book is a practical, introductory textbook that provides an overview of main contributions to translation theory. The author examines each theory in single chapters, testing the different approaches by applying them to a wide variety of text types. The texts discussed are taken from a range of languages and English translations are provided.

*Introducing Interpreting Studies* was written by Franz Pöchhacker and published by Routledge in 2004. The first (unnumbered) page informs us that the book guides the reader through the evolution of the field, reviewing influential concepts, models and methodological approaches. It then presents the main areas of research on interpreting, and identifies present and future trends in Interpreting Studies. The reader is also told that chapters include summaries, guides to the main points covered, and suggestions for further reading. This page mentions that Pöchhacker's book is a practical and user-friendly textbook and "is the definitive map of this important and growing discipline".
Further, the page mentions that the volume offers a "comprehensive overview of the field and offers direction to those undertaking research of their own. The book is ideally complemented by the IS Reader, a collection of seminal contributions to research in Interpreting Studies". The volume features chapter summaries, guides to the main points covered in the book and suggestions for further reading.

The author of the volume includes an introduction entitled "Introducing Introducing..." (Pöchhacker 2004: 1) which is divided into three parts: Foundations; Selected topics and research; Directions. Indeed Pöchhacker comes through with the purported outline of the work, which is essentially research-oriented. Interestingly, and differently from the TS reader, this work makes no mention of 'theory' in a subtitle.

An examination of the volumes dedicated to interpreting, one in the Reader series and the other in the Introducing series, has brought to light a number of substantial differences when compared to the two volumes dedicated to translation in the same series. For example, Venuti stresses in his TS Reader that it is indeed the 'autonomy' of translation and textual strategies used that distinguish it as an object of study (Venuti 2000: 5). This concept is the hallmark of self-referentiality and indeed it is this inherent self-producing that strengthens, perpetuates, enhances and further defines the very nature of TS as a discipline. On the other hand, Pöchhacker and Shlesinger's volume is bent on distinguishing IS from TS. This 'pointing to' indicates the dependent nature of IS to TS. One is brought to question what distinguishes IS as an object of study. The IS Reader maps out the discipline but without ever offering insight, we feel, into this fundamental question. It must also not be neglected that a specific discussion of IS theory is not addressed by the authors in the IS Reader, whereas theoretical concerns are fully addressed in the TS Reader. A similar observation can be made with respect to the IS volume in the Introducing series, when compared to the TS volume in the same series. Theories are fronted and this is even announced in the books subtitle.

This section has shown to some degree that Routledge seems to compartmentalise TS and IS as disciplines. A close look at the paratexts of the volumes also suggests that IS theory has not been dealt with to the same extent as TS theory in the volumes in the same series discussed.
4.2.3 John Benjamins Library

This publishing house's website describes the John Benjamins Library as a stimulus for research and training in translation and interpreting studies. The Library provides a forum for a variety of approaches and includes scholarly works, reference books, postgraduate textbooks and readers in the English language. Within the Library is a subseries publishing works promoted by the European Society for Translation Studies (EST). The emphasis is on new trends in research, giving more visibility to young scholars' work, publicising new research methods. We discuss here the relevance of two recent works published in the Library in order to gain insight into recent trends and future perspectives: Interpreting in the 21st Century (Garzone and Viezzi, eds. 2002) in §4.2.3.1, and De-/Re-contextualising Conference Interpreting: Interpreters in the Ivory Tower? (Diriker 2004) in §4.2.3.2.

4.2.3.1 Interpreting in the 21st Century

Garzone and Viezzi edited a selection of papers presented at the First Forli Conference on Interpreting Studies, held on 9-11 November 2000. As the title states (Interpreting in the 21st Century) the volume offers an overview of the current trends and future prospects in Interpreting Studies, and in the interpreting profession at the beginning of the new century. The range of subjects covered is broad and comprehensive: topics addressed include not only theoretical and methodological issues, but also applications to training and quality. Published as part of the John Benjamins Library series, this volume thus takes on the significance of a research-based publication on the one hand, and of a tool with practical implications.

In this vein, three papers included in the collection merit mention here, in terms of providing a self-reflective perspective with which to consider the development of the discipline. The first is by Riccardi entitled 'Interpreting Research: Descriptive aspects and methodological proposals'. She specifies (2002: 15) that since its early stages the discipline has had to rely on instruments of analysis from other sciences, mainly due to the complex nature of the phenomena under study. Riccardi discusses the influence of Translation Studies and suggests that the interpreted text be considered a new text type, offering a 'descriptive sheet' for the interpreted text (op. cit., 20-26) that includes four 'macro-areas': delivery, language, content and interpretation. In her concluding remarks
she mentions that Interpreting Studies is "gaining autonomy through the development of their own methods and instruments of analysis" (op. cit.: 27). It is significant that she uses the term 'autonomy' in this context and even more telling that she ignores any contextual elements in her descriptive sheet. In Chapter 3 (§3.1) we posit interpreting as an autopoietic system and describe it as an adaptive, self-regulating, self-reflexive and self-producing system. Thus autonomy (and heteronomy), as defined in this study, involves contrasting self-reference and external reference in interpreting. External reference is to be understood according to our model of context (§3.1.1, figure 3.1, p. 41). This principally implies viewing interpreters as embodied entities (Kendon 1992: 323) in an interactive phenomenon, where the behavioural environment of talk (external context) is reflexively linked to it with larger patterns of social activity. Hence, in our view, speaking of autonomy also requires a discussion of context. Riccardi's work focuses on the autonomy of IS as a discipline and, although she concludes that IS is gaining autonomy through the development of its own methods and instruments of analysis (op. cit.: 27), her paper contributes little in elucidating contextual matters that, we argue, are fundamental in distinguishing the autonomy of the discipline.

Riccardi's paper is the first in the volume under the heading 'Focus on research' and as such may signal to the reader that there is a progression in the volume, and in this subsection in particular, in terms of new approaches to research. Two other papers follow Riccardi's in sequence: 'A methodology for the analysis of interpretation corpora' (Setton 2002) and 'Resurrecting the corp(us/se): Towards an encoding standard for interpreting data' (Cencini and Aston 2002). We discuss these as relevant to distinguishing Interpreting Studies as a discipline in its own right.

Setton (op. cit.) proposes a rigorous methodology for work on interpreting corpora. His basis is a composite of linguistic analysis at varying levels, including the pragmatic and cognitive dimensions, with the aim of illuminating the psycholinguistic process involved in simultaneous interpreting but also of formalising them in a model. He states that tools from linguistics and logic offer descriptive benefits for the analysis of simultaneously interpreted corpora. Setton further stresses that they may even "help to elucidate such venerable theoretical issues as the relative importance of language and context" (op. cit.: 44). Indeed his considerations seem to begin to bridge the gap
between past research practices and methodologies and potentially new ones, such as our study, which discuss context in relation to language.

In terms of future perspectives in IS research, Cencini and Aston (op. cit.) discuss encoding standards for the transcription of oral language and data collection in Interpreting Studies. They argue for enhanced "machine readability" (op. cit.: 48) in order to favour data storage, retrievability and analysis by different computer systems and suggest ways in which particular features of oral data can be encoded in an application- and platform-independent machine-readable format using TEI (Test Encoding Initiative) guidelines. Cencini and Aston stress the flexibility of TEI to cover various features of interpreting data such as pause length, prosody, voice quality, kinesics, décalage and the coding of correspondence between utterances, shifts in footing, etc. (op. cit.: 61). They conclude their contribution by reiterating that the development of encoding conventions is a necessary step in the compilation and comparison of corpora in Interpreting Studies. Cencini and Aston's contribution is - to the best of my knowledge - the first to discuss standards for the purpose of machine encoding of data in the discipline and, as such, could signal the beginning of a marked distinction of Interpreting Studies with respect to Translation Studies and other disciplines. It remains to be seen whether encoding conventions for interpreting develop and if they have an impact on Interpreting Studies as system.

The following section discusses a volume recently published by John Benjamins (Diriker 2004) that seems to contrast with Cencini and Aston's contribution. Although Diriker's book in many ways is a forward-looking, groundbreaking publication, the method used to collect and transcribe her data was fraught with numerous difficulties, as she herself admits (op. cit.: 56-57).

4.2.3.2. De-/Re-contextualising Conference Interpreting: Interpreters in the Ivory Tower?

A recent addition to the John Benjamins Library is Ebru Diriker's De-/Re-contextualising Conference Interpreting: Interpreters in the Ivory Tower? (2004). It marks a new turn in interpreting research, which has been largely dominated by cognitive and psycholinguistic approaches. Diriker explores simultaneous interpreting in relation to the broader and more immediate socio-cultural contexts by investigating the representation of the profession and the professional in the meta-discourse and by
exploring the presence of interpreters and the nature of the interpreted utterance at an actual conference. Diriker uses participant observations, interviews and analyses conference transcripts, challenging some of the widely held assumptions about simultaneous interpreting. She suggests that the interpreter’s delivery represents not only the speaker but a multiplicity of speaker-positions, and that this multiplicity may well be a source of tension or vulnerability, as well as strength, for interpreters. Her analysis also highlights how interpreters negotiate meaning and underscores the need for more concerted efforts to explore simultaneous interpreting in authentic contexts. Her findings are discussed in detail in the following section (§4.3.2).

John Benjamins, differently from both Routledge and St. Jerome publishers, seems to place a premium on research and training, as mentioned earlier. In any case, the publishing house describes itself as doing so. It is also worth mentioning that all volumes in the John Benjamins Library are bound only in hard cover, sold at considerably higher prices than most paperback versions. This, too, may be an indication that - rather that targeted to an individual reader - these volumes find their most suitable place in institutional bookshelves as reference items, one further reason to describe them as research-oriented.

4.3 Metatexts

All published texts that relate in one way or another to Interpreting Studies can be considered metatexts, since they inform readers on the discipline. In the intent to promote the autonomous development of IS, in this section we review two, specific contributions that call for a move away from the focus on positivism in interpreting research in the past to the consideration of interpreting as a situated activity. As mentioned above (§4.2.3.1), we suggest that it is through an analysis of (internal and external) contextual matters that IS as a system distinguishes its autonomy. In §4.3.1 we discuss Cronin’s call for a cultural turn (2002) in this respect and in §4.3.2 we examine Diriker’s recent publication (2004) mentioned above more closely.

4.3.1 A call for action

Michael Cronin (2002) explores the fundamentally oral nature of interpreting and calls for a 'cultural turn', similar to what has occurred in Translation Studies. This would entail explicitly dealing with issues of power since, throughout history, "the role of
interpreters has been crucially determined by the prevailing hierarchical constitution of
power and their position in it" (Cronin 2002: 387). Cronin also points out, "little critical
attention has been paid to the conditions of production (and reproduction) of the theory
of interpreting, including the siting of interpreting research centres in academic
institutions in the developed world" (op. cit.: 390). He warns of the danger in
privileging positivism in interpreting research, which would favour "depoliticized,
minimally contextualized experiments" (ibid.).

In his argument espousing the need for a cultural turn, Cronin highlights the social
framework within which interpreters operate, that needs to be foregrounded, in an
attempt to illuminate the linguistic and cultural boundaries interpreters cross. He cites
Anderson (1976) as having anticipated a possible cultural turn through his investigation
of "the variables of social class, education, gender, age, and situational factors, such as
arena of interaction (political, military, academic, religious) and levels of tension",
where he also pointed to factors involving the prestige of groups involved in the
mediated communicative event and attitudes towards the languages spoken (Cronin

Of particular interest to our study is Cronin's emphasis on the interpreter's self-
preservation, whether a conscious and/or covert strategy, and on the central problem of
interpreting, i.e. control (op. cit.: 392). Mention of these concepts leads him to a
discussion on 'autonomous' and 'heteronomous' systems of interpreting. autonomous
systems being ones where colonizers train their own interpreters in the language/s of the
colonized, and heteronomous systems involve the recruitment of local interpreters and
teaching them the imperial language (op. cit.: 393). Cronin stresses, however, "the
dilemma for interpreters in colonial contexts is whether they can return as native. If they
do, the risk, of course, is that they go native" (ibid., original emphasis). He makes use of
key concepts in our study (autonomy, self-preservation, survival) to describe
phenomena that are nonetheless characteristic of the activity of interpreting in different
contexts, where self-regulatory behaviour is geared primarily toward professional
survival.

The tension that Cronin describes involving heteronomous and autonomous systems
of interpreting within the context of colonization, as system, may also be extended to
any interpreter-mediated context. In our adaptation of autopoietic theory to the analysis
of interpreting as system we reiterate that systems are operationally closed entities that subordinate all changes to the maintenance of their own organisation (see Chapter 3). Since this applies to all systems, the survival of competing systems necessarily implies a level of underlying tension. This may hold true even where competing systems do not seem to coexist. For example, the survival (self-preservation) of interpreting as system means the perpetuation of the interpreting service. The professional survival (self-preservation) of the interpreter as system means even interrupting that service, as illustrated in Samples 1.2-1.4 (Chapter 1). It is significant that Cronin suggests the interpreter's ethical position to be distinguished in terms of "strategies for survival" (op. cit.: 394). His recourse to the term 'survival' calls into question the nature of the interpreters' embodied action that, in turn, raises the issue of their self-regulatory behaviour.

Diriker's work (2004), which deals with the position of conference interpreters as individuals and professionals working and surviving in socio-cultural contexts, may be considered the beginning of cultural turn in Interpreting Studies. Her work is reviewed in the following section.

4.3.2 The beginning of a cultural turn

Diriker's (2004) work in many respects is indeed groundbreaking in terms of conference interpreting, since she not only examines the meta-discourse as social context and the (re)presentation of conference interpreting in the meta-discourse of various actors inside and outside the profession, but also analyses a corpus of situated performances. Her study moves from the assumption that conference interpreters are constrained by but also constitutive of a multitude of intertwined and mutually reflexive context(s) such as the most immediate discursive context(s) during interpreting that are invoked by previous utterances and implied by potential utterances; the conditions and demands of the particular conference context where they work in a given instance, and the conditions and demands of the larger socio-cultural context(s) in which they operate and survive as professionals. (op. cit.: 14, original emphasis)

She therefore views conference interpreting as both context-constrained and context-constituting, adopting a dynamic view of context. She follows Bakhtin, Cicourel and
Linsdstrom in approaching conference interpreting in relation to both the broader (macro) and narrower (micro) contexts and makes use of Critical Discourse Analysis in her examination of the meta-discourse on conference interpreting.

Diriker explores shifts in the speaking subject in her corpus. In contrast to the norm contemplating the presence of only one 'speaker-position' that the interpreter should assume while working (as suggested in the meta-discourse on conference interpreting), her analysis of corpus transcripts suggest there are four possible 'speaker positions' the interpreter adopts (op. cit.: 84):

- the speaker's position;
- the speaker's position (indirectly) where the interpreter reports, paraphrases, inserts explanatory remarks, etc.;
- the speaker's position (implicitly) where the interpreter adds personal remarks into what appears to be the speaker's first person singular ('I') in the delivery;
- the speaker's position (explicitly) where the interpreter adds personal remarks in the delivery.

This leads her to deduce that, while these different speaker positions (speaking about the speaker, when reporting, for example) may create a distancing effect, they also serve to differentiate or distinguish the interpreter from the speaker (op. cit.: 89). Seen through a self-reflective perspective, this indeed appears to be the case. However, since interpreters speak predominantly through the speaker's "I" in the delivery, it is only when a juxtaposition of domains (see §2.1.3, p. 18) occurs - making for misguided interaction among ST listeners and TT listeners - that a distinction is made between the interpreter and the ST speaker. Diriker cites (op. cit.: 90) the following example from her corpus in this respect.

[...] one of the mistakes that was corrected by Interpreter A in the delivery led to repercussions on the floor when some participants in the audience reacted to the "original" mistake [...]. As a result, users of SI who listened to the "corrected" version of the speaker's speech in the delivery ended up being excluded from the ensuing interaction on the floor.
She specifies (op. cit.: 96) that, while speaking in the speaker's "I" does not permit a differentiation with regard to the ST speaker, reported speech enables the interpreter to signal a change of speakers in the delivery.

Diriker also tells (op. cit.: 97) of an incident in her corpus when the interpreter responded to chaotic turn-taking and comments made on the floor without a microphone by assuming the speaker-position in the delivery to establish direct contact with listeners. This is similar to the extreme cases found in our corpus (Samples 1.1-1.2), where the interpreter uses the domain of interpreting to interject personal comments. She also tells (op. cit.: 97) of a similar case in her corpus where, however, the other subject (an interpreter) in her study reacts quite differently. Rather than taking active part in solving ensuing sound problems, she did not communicate directly with her listeners and interrupted her interpreting, waiting until she could hear again.

In terms of juxtaposing domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event, Diriker also cites (op. cit.: 100-1) examples in her corpus when the interpreter first uses the delivery channel to communicate directly with TT listeners, calling them to action ("microphone please"), then switches off her microphone. When this occurs, the channel reserved for the delivery automatically switches to the floor, thus TT listeners hear ST speakers directly. When the microphone is turned on in the floor and the interpreter is able to hear the ST speaker, she turns on her own microphone and resumes interpreting. Diriker notes in this case that there appear to be three, different speakers in the delivery: the interpreter speaking as the speaker, the interpreter speaking as the interpreter, and the ST speaker. Our Samples 1.3-1.4 exemplify a similar case, but with the addition of the Chair who intervenes to entertain an exchange with the speaker holding the floor, to call her to order. In our text samples the interpreter uses reported speech, speaks in the speaker-position and also shuts off his microphone for a brief period.

Diriker notes that there is inherent tension in the coexistence with an alien "I" in the delivery. She suggests that "the seeming non-presence of the interpreters in the delivery - reinforced through their adoption of the speaker's "I" in line with the norm in SI - could easily be subverted, leaving all fingers pointing to the interpreters as culprits of a failed communication (op. cit.: 137-8). We argue that this is the underlying reason why simultaneous interpreting may be characterized as face-threatening and why interpreters' behaviour may be analysed in terms of self-regulation, i.e. their struggle for survival. In
Diriker's example above, the words "microphone please" pronounced by the interpreter actually address the ST speaker, but indirectly via TT listeners. By switching off the microphone, the interpreter signals a number of things to TT listeners: a specific distinction between the ST speaker and the interpreter, the possibility that ongoing and ensuing difficulties or failed communication are not caused by the interpreter, and that unless immediate action is taken (the ST speaker turns on the microphone) interpreting will not be provided. Therefore a potentially face-threatening situation for the professional is countered by the interpreter with a threat.

4.4 Summary

We began discussing Interpreting Studies as system in this chapter by highlighting the importance of adopting a systems perspective for our analysis. We have taken into consideration the nature of texts published in the field. We first reviewed the literature on norms (§4.1, extratexts) from an initial attempt to toss the topic out for debate (§4.1.1) made by Shlesinger (1989), followed by Harris (1990). This initial attempt was developed (§4.1.2) with Schjoldager's (1995/2002) study seeking norms in a corpus of interpreted texts. Diriker (1999) challenged the discourse concerning norms in interpreting, highlighting that it contrasted with actual interpreters' behaviour. We then reviewed the discussion on norms in conference interpreting today (§4.1.3) and have examined Garzone's (2002) proposal that norms serve as a general principle to understand an interpreter's behaviour. We finally presented Inghilleri's (2003) model that illustrates the generative nature of norms.

Our section on paratexts (§4.2) has examined the collocation of a select few of the publications on interpreting in three publishing fora for scholarly work in the discipline that primarily publish in the English language. This was done to analyse the autonomy of Interpreting Studies in relation to Translation Studies. We concluded that IS emerges as one of the many sub-areas of TS (§4.2.1), that both TS and IS are compartmentalised as disciplines (§4.2.2) and that, this notwithstanding, material on interpreting research is valued and supported (§4.2.3).

We have concluded this chapter with a consideration of metatexts (§4.3) where we reviewed two recent works that stress the importance of regarding interpreting as a situated activity. Here we discussed Cronin's (2002) argument for a cultural turn in IS
(specifically conference interpreting), where issues such as power, ideology and ethics are dealt with seriously. The beginning of the cultural turn is envisaged in Diriker's (2004) work which examines the meta-discourse as social context and the (re)presentation of conference interpreting in the meta-discourse of various IS scholars.
Our research methodology, initially conceived as comprising three phases, was tested in a pilot study described in Monacelli (2000). The study was based on a constructivist approach to research and involved collaboration between the analyst and subjects in all phases. Quality data was elicited using personal construct psychology (PCP) (Stewart 1994, Kelly 1991), both to foster the active participation of the subject and to maintain the rigour required so as not to taint the data with the analyst's personal comments. This involved using the technique of the repertory grid, which represents the repertoire of constructions that the subject has acquired from his or her personal observations of the world (Monacelli 2000: 200). In the study quality data (initial interviews with subjects) was elicited in this manner concerning the interpreters' perceptions of strategies used while working in the simultaneous mode. The study concluded that data from individual grids led to problems concerning taxonomy. The study's most valuable finding was that using the grid could bring forth important conceptual structures prominent among interpreters. Problems concerning taxonomy that arose in the pilot study are solved here by including a pre-theorizing phase where taxonomical concerns are addressed and strategies are classified according to definitions used in the IS literature (§5.2.1). Thus the nature of the pilot study's three phases was successively modified, as the focus of our study was refined, but the repertory grid was maintained as a tool during the initial phase of this current study.

This chapter describes our study's research design (§5.1) and corpus (§5.2). We first discuss the selection criteria used in our choice of subjects (§5.2.1) and the variables
considered for corpus texts (§5.2.2). We follow with a detailed description of our textual
data in terms of a spontaneity index of speech (§5.2.2.1) and the discourse levels of
representation (§5.2.2.2) in this study. Finally, we include a discussion of reliability and
validity in relation to our methodology, corpus and subjects (§5.3).

5.1 Research design

The study of self-regulation, a cybernetic construct, stems from a particular
epistemological stance that should also emerge in the research methodology. The
methodology proposed is founded on the principle that an analyst cannot separate his or
her own constructions of viability from the process of research, and techniques used
should reflect research questions when they emanate from a particular epistemological
position (see §2.1, §2.2, §3.1, §3.2). We extend the 'construction' beyond receivers in
the academic community to the subjects in our study who assist in corroborating and/or
refuting findings (§7.3). Fig. 5.1 illustrates our research design, which consists of four
phases. The design is to be read as follows: performance data was first collected;
briefing sessions were held; textual analysis consisted of examining three categories of
linguistic phenomena ('stance', personal reference; 'voice', agency; 'face', mood and
modality, threats to face); debriefing sessions were held with subjects after textual
analysis.

After collecting available performance data, a briefing session was held with all
subjects, which served primarily to collect information concerning the subjects'
backgrounds (education, professional career, field of expertise) and, as mentioned
above, their perception of how they work (strategic behaviour, idiosyncrasies, habits).
Textual data was taken from subjects' normal working environment. Eight subjects had
participated in conferences organized by the Italian Parliament, where both the
proceedings and the Italian versions were recorded for Parliamentary archives (7
subjects in the same conference and 1 in another). The last two subjects are professors
of interpreting who regularly record their output and collect conference proceedings,
thus guaranteeing the availability of both conference proceedings and their
performances.
Our textual analysis is carried out in line with the sociolinguistic perspective adopted in this study (Chapter 2) and proposes three categories of analysis: stance (personal reference), voice (agency) and face (mood-modality-threats). In essence, we discuss interaction in talk where the speaker holds the floor for an extended period. In this we regard the notion of context (§3.1.1, p. 35) as fundamental when examining shifts by both ST and TT speakers in terms of structural constraints posed by different language systems and ritual constraints posed by situation. Since we speculate that interpreters may be motivated by different factors with respect to ST speakers, we expect to observe contextual shifts throughout our corpus. In §3.1.2 we described various aspects of the activity of interpreting in terms of contextual concerns. Our categories aim to analyse how interpreters relate to and construct context and we thus consider their position in the participation framework of the event by first examining personal reference (stance, §6.1) and the extent to which interpreters alter distance in relation to their listeners. Specific roles interpreters assume begin to emerge when we consider how processes are presented in the data and how speakers attribute agency in texts (voice, §6.2). We hypothesize that it is through the shifting of these two parameters ([+distance/-distance], [+direct/-direct]) that interpreters enact self-regulatory strategies. These are further investigated by examining modality systems in texts and how threats are dealt with.
which lead to matters concerning self-preservation and face, elements at the basis of self-regulatory behaviour.

After examining all recordings, the analyst arranged a debriefing session with subjects in the same venue where briefings were held. During this session, we sought subjects' views on phenomena that emerged in the analysis of our data. Our rationale starts from the principle that a fundamental dimension of the self-regulatory process is motivation, which is considered as something that does not operate independently of the self. The self is thus viewed as inherently self-regulatory and SR, per se, is the process of thinking and acting in self-fulfilling ways to perpetuate and/or to enhance one's image of self through time in a given context. Since motivation is a self-determining process emanating out of the ongoing self-regulatory interaction between the self as process (i.e. levels of consciousness, emotion and volition), the self as content (i.e. self-conception), and the environment (Ridley 1991: 31-32), our debriefing phase necessarily aims to illuminate our study as to subjects' motivation in terms of their professional behaviour. Further, we adopt a stance whereby a critical role is attributed to reflective self-awareness (as second-order consciousness) in facilitating a reflectively intentional type of self-regulation. In other words, our view enhances the role of the 'self' in self-regulation.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the essential differences between unreflectively automatic and reflectively intentional self-regulation. In sum, at the first-order level of self-regulation, individuals do not reflect on or volitionally adjust the nature of their self-conceptions or the levels of their consciousness, emotion or volition in a given context. This means individuals are driven by the interaction of unconscious internal processes and external events. At the second-order level of self-regulation, reflection on first-order self-regulatory processes creates the possibility for self-directed changes in the nature of one's first-order self-conception and the self-processes. These changes lead to shifts in the interactive influence of one's self-conception and self-processes in a given context and thus transform a person's perceptual experience. Self-conception, at the reflectively intentional level, is experienced as both process and content, making a person aware that he or she has a part in creating the beliefs and emotions that are experienced in a given context (Ridley 1991: 33-34). This realization is the essence of a sense of agency.
Indeed personal agency is enmeshed in a social network and is conditioned - through a rapport of reciprocal determinism - by the influence a social environment has on self-regulatory dynamics. Even though virtually all research on cognitive motivators has been concerned with how self-regulatory dynamics operate in personal accomplishments, many human endeavours are directed at group goals that are achieved in organisational structures through socially mediated effort. In professional interpreting circles this implies the social organisation of the profession. Therefore a sense of agency, and its characteristics, may be socially governed or dictated, and hence come within the realm of normative behaviour. Interestingly, our findings suggest there is a marked difference between subjects belonging to the same professional organisation and those who do not, concerning their sense of agency (see §7.3).

The inclusion of a third phase in this study aims to understand that which exerts more influence on human behaviour, i.e. a person's perception of personal agency and social environments rather than simply their 'objective' properties (Bandura 1991b: 269), and
consequently their perception of norms. Therefore we also seek professional
interpreters' perception of certain phenomena emerging from the data in order to
determine whether certain behaviour may be considered self-regulatory in nature (i.e.
oriented toward professional 'survival') and/or whether it corresponds to widespread
interpreting norms.

5.2 Corpus

This section discusses subjects and briefing sessions (§5.2.1) and corpus texts (§5.2.2),
firstly concentrating on the selection criteria in both cases and secondly on the technical
aspects concerning the collection of textual data (§5.2.2.1 and §5.2.2.2). A series of
tables are provided to summarize this information: Table 5.1 lists subjects' educational
background and their experience (year they entered the profession and their status,
whether freelance or in-house interpreter); Table 5.2 lists the event, discourse context
and ST length; Table 5.3 discusses speech spontaneity for each corpus text and lists the
source and target languages concerned.

5.2.1 Subjects and briefing sessions

Access to participants was negotiated with interpreters with whom the analyst has an in-
group relationship. Participant permission to use data was obtained through signed
statements specifying that the data collected would be used exclusively for research
purposes. Table 5.1 outlines the information gathered during a briefing, the first phase
of our project. For six subjects these were held at the Lower Chamber, their habitual
work site. Two briefings were held on University premises, and two in private homes.
These sessions lasted from 30 min. to 60 min. and aimed to gather information
concerning subjects' qualifications (educational background, language combinations,
specialisation, other information concerning their perception of how they typically
behave during simultaneous interpreting).

We include in our study ten professional interpreters whose professional experience
ranges from 11 to 30 years (Table 5.1). Of these, 5 subjects are members of the
International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) and 5 are not. Seven
subjects have university degrees, three of which in interpreting, and one has a PhD in
Interpreting Studies. Three subjects received training at a three-year institute for
interpreting. All in-house interpreters had, at one point in their career, also worked on the freelance market.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subj.</th>
<th>Educational background</th>
<th>Experience since</th>
<th>Professional Practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>University degree in interpreting</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Three-year interpreting degree</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>freelance interpreter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Three-year interpreting degree</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Three-year interpreting degree</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>University degree in interpreting</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>freelance interpreter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Three-year interpreting degree</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>freelance interpreter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Three-year interpreting degree</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>PhD in interpreting studies</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>freelance interpreter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>University degree in interpreting</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>University degree in literature</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>in-house interpreter Italian Parliament</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Subjects: qualifications and status

In this briefing phase of our research we also aimed to understand how sensitive subjects were to their behaviour while working in the simultaneous mode and if common elements emerged concerning their perceptions. We report this information by dividing subjects' comments into those concerning 'external' and 'internal' context (§3.1.1).

When commenting on the external context of interpreting, subjects highlighted their interaction with communicating parties prior to beginning their interpreting turn in the booth. This typically involves an exchange with ST speaker in order to obtain information concerning their ensuing text. Also mentioned in this sense are interactional patterns with the other interpreting team member while in the booth, including the use of consecutive note-taking to aid colleagues during their interpreting turn, and passing/taking the microphone when one team member is in difficulty.

Subjects mentioned different forms of 'strategic' behaviour, in terms of the internal context of simultaneous interpreting, most of which have already been mentioned by other scholars (Gile 1995; Kohn and Kalina 1996; Setton 1999; Shlesinger 1999, 2000):

1. temporal strategies (delaying, lagging, pausing)
Of interest in this study is the mention, in two cases, of the strategic use of paralinguistic phenomena (temporal strategies and intonation) to signal 'distance' from the ST. We discuss this further in §7.3 when examining debriefing sessions and subjects' degree of operational awareness in terms of their role in context.

5.2.2 Texts

Our corpus texts were collected from subjects' habitual working environment: parliamentary proceedings for 8 subjects (6 in-house and 2 freelance interpreters), matters concerning education and professional training for 2 subjects. Firstly, our goal in terms of text variables was to select authentic data and, specifically, a complete source text speech - from when the ST speaker is given the floor to when the floor returns to the Chair - and a complete interpreted version of the same. Our corpus includes texts that range from 5 min. 42 sec. to 35 min. 23 sec., for a total of 119 minutes of ST material (Table 5.2). Secondly, we sought proceedings recorded prior to our briefing session with subjects so as to avoid any possible bias in the interpreters' behaviour. Most of the readily available data was in the form of two, distinct recordings (ST and TT) and since temporal issues (ear-voice-span, EVS) do not figure prominently in our study we opted for a system whereby texts are transcribed separately in a tabular form (see §5.2.2.2).

Seven corpus texts were taken from the same event (Table 5.2), the EFWP, held in Naples. One text was taken from a Conference of EU Parliamentary Speakers, held in Florence (Fiesole). One text was taken from a conference on interpreting, held in Forli and one from a conference on mobile schooling, held in Florence. Nine conferences were held in 2000, and one in 2001. In 8 cases (EFWP and Conference of EU Parliamentary Speakers) ST and TT were recorded during proceedings by technicians. In the remaining 2 cases (Footprints in Europe: Mobile schools and Interpreting in the 21st Century) conference proceedings were also recorded by technicians with
professional equipment, but target texts were recorded in the booth on portable tape recorders by subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subj</th>
<th>Conference title</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>ST length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I_1</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>13 min. 10 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_2</td>
<td>Footprints in Europe: Mobile schools</td>
<td>Florence</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>23 min. 22.5 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_3</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>5 min. 42 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_4</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>5 min. 45 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_5</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>6 min. 33.5 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_6</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>7 min. 49 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_7</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>7 min. 28 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_8</td>
<td>Interpreting in the 21st Century</td>
<td>Forli</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Students, scholars, professionals</td>
<td>35 min. 23 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_9</td>
<td>EFWP</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Women parliamentarians</td>
<td>8 min. 47.5 sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_10</td>
<td>Conference of EU Parliamentary Speakers</td>
<td>Fiesole (Fi)</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Parliamentary Speakers</td>
<td>15 min. 31.5 sec.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This audio material was digitalised using Sound System® for Apple Macintosh operating systems. Source and target digital files were then synchronised to <0.5s accuracy on two-track files using the same program.

### 5.2.2.1 Spontaneity index of speeches

This section discusses what we loosely define as the 'speech spontaneity' of our corpus texts. We include information concerning whether the text is recited from text, rehearsed, semi-rehearsed or improvised, along with information concerning the development of the text. We summarise this information in Table 5.3, which also includes the ST-TT language combination for each corpus text.

Three source texts are interpreted from French into Italian, six from English into Italian and one from Italian into English. All subjects worked into their native languages. All texts have standard greetings and all but one have standard closings. In the ST for subject I_1, the speaker concludes his talk by returning the floor to the Chair who is then to decide whether to extend the talk.
Table 5.3 Speech spontaneity index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subj.</th>
<th>Speech spontaneity</th>
<th>ST-TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I₁</td>
<td>ST speaker is a Moroccan MP; talk is rehearsed, with standard greeting, speaker addresses the position of women in Morocco, with standard closing</td>
<td>FR-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₂</td>
<td>ST speaker is a native English speaker; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting on behalf of invited speaker who this ST speaker replaces, speaker addresses the issue of mobile schooling for migrant communities in Europe, refers to and reads from slides throughout talk, closes by leaving option to Chair whether to extend the talk in answer to possible requests for clarification.</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₃</td>
<td>ST speaker is a Dutch MP; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting, speaker argues the need for action in relation to achieving equal rights for women, with standard closing</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₄</td>
<td>ST speaker is a Finnish MP; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting, speaker outlines intended remarks then addresses educational and cultural issues related to the condition of women in the world, with standard closing</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₅</td>
<td>ST speaker is Algerian MP; talk is recited from written text at high speed (&gt;165wpm), with standard greeting, ST speaker addresses the maltreatment of women in Algeria, with standard closing</td>
<td>FR-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₆</td>
<td>ST speaker is Cypriot MP; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting, ST speaker addresses the position of women in Cyprus, with standard closing</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₇</td>
<td>ST speaker is an Israeli MP; talk is improvised, standard greeting, addresses issues raised by previous Palestinian speaker then discusses the status of Israel as a state and citizen rights as outlined in the declaration of independence, with standard closing</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₈</td>
<td>ST speaker is a native Italian speaker; talk is semi-rehearsed, standard greeting, ST speaker outlines intended remarks, first addresses issues raised by previous speakers then addresses the nature of the interpreter's work at the European Parliament, with standard closing</td>
<td>IT-EN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₉</td>
<td>ST speaker is a Turkish MP; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting, ST speaker addresses the position of women in Turkey and makes a plea for Chechen women, with standard closing</td>
<td>EN-IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₁₀</td>
<td>ST speaker is a native French speaker; talk is semi-rehearsed, with standard greeting, ST speaker addresses the role and value of political institutions, with standard closing</td>
<td>FR-IT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The four descriptors used to define the rehearsed (or lack of rehearsed) nature of the talk in corpus texts are listed below:

1. improvised: Goffman's (1981) notion of 'fresh talk', an improvised text is formulated by the speaker from one moment to the next, conveying "the impression that the formulation is responsive to the current situation in which the words are delivered" (op.cit.: 171); average presentation rate 137 wpm.
2. semi-rehearsed: an improvised text delivered with the assistance of notes (or slides, transparencies, etc.), may also include digressions from textual plan; average presentation rate 140 wpm.

3. rehearsed: a text delivered according to a set plan, speaker does not digress or deviate from the textual plan; average presentation rate 145 wpm.

4. recited from written text: an oral text resulting from the reading of a written text; average presentation rate >165 wpm.

One ST is improvised (1.), seven are semi-rehearsed, one is rehearsed (1.) and one is recited from a written text (Ii). The presentation rate indicated above in the case of semi-rehearsed texts is the average speed of the seven semi-rehearsed texts in our corpus. The next section discusses transcription conventions used in this study.

5.2.2.2 Discourse levels of representation

Since, as mentioned, matters concerning EVS do not figure prominently in our study, we have transcribed corpus texts in tabular format. These are sectioned into sequences, i.e. units of text organisation which normally consist of more than one element and which serve a higher-order rhetorical function than that of the individual elements (Hatim and Mason 1990: 174). Therefore the length of each sequence is governed by the emergence of a rhetorical purpose such as, for example, thanking or addressing specific members of our audience, as illustrated in sequences 1 and 2 respectively in Sample 5.1.

There is no optimal method of transcribing oral data (Brown 1995: 39-41), but we have nonetheless borrowed transcription conventions from Setton (1999) and Wadensjö (1998) in order to annotate the delicacy of certain prosodic features (stress, rising/lowering/even intonation, pauses, filled pauses).

Sample 5.1 I, 1-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>seq.</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>- thank you</td>
<td>- grazie presidente</td>
<td>- thank you president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- thank you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- miss madame president</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>- madame president</td>
<td>- presidente</td>
<td>- president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- dear colleagues</td>
<td>- onorevoli colleghe</td>
<td>- honorable colleagues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A key to transcription conventions used in the data samples in tabular form is included at the beginning of this study.

5.3 Reliability and validity

Our research design (Fig. 5.1) is such that the performance data was available before undertaking this study. The choice was made to select data readily available prior to approaching subjects in order to avoid possible bias in the behaviour of interpreters who were then to participate in the study. Our data, authentic situated texts, represent a uniform body of data in terms of including typical brackets in a conference setting, i.e. opening remarks, a main body and closing remarks. Corpus texts, however, span a variety of text types that we broadly characterize along a narrative/non-narrative cline (Chapter 6). This input variable is significant because trends found across all corpus texts become symptomatic of self-regulatory moves possibly indicating normative and/or ideological behaviour. Subjects chosen for our study are all interpreters with more than 11 years of professional experience. Their behaviour, as verified by this study's findings, may be considered representative of professional interpreters' behaviour in their habitual working environment.

The internal reliability of this study, or the degree to which other researchers may come to the same conclusions concerning this study as the original analyst (see LeCompte and Goetz 1982), is secured by the active participation of subjects in all phases of the study and by their corroboration of the findings in a final phase. The external reliability of this study (ibid.), or the extent to which this study may be replicated, is facilitated by a detailed description of our research design, the study's subjects, corpus texts and textual analysis. Further, constructs and premises on which our study rests are amply discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.

Despite the varying language combinations of our subjects, similar trends are found across all corpus texts. We have compiled figures of the translational shifts in our data in order to understand the magnitude of these trends. This has made it possible to weigh the importance of certain shifts compared to others. However, as we explain in detail in Chapter 6, shifts found in the categories of stance (§6.1) and voice (§6.2) are part of the particular face-work that emerges in target texts and face-work is not a countable
phenomenon. Thus a wholly quantitative approach to our analysis would not have been revealing in terms of self-regulatory behaviour.

When assessing shifts concerning personal referents we have taken into consideration the following shifts:

a) from an impersonal referent to a personal one (e.g. “detto questo” [this said], ST, vs. “so having introduced myself to you in this way”, TT, I, 3);

b) when there is a shift from one personal referent to another (e.g. “que vous toutes connaissez” [that you all know], ST, vs. “che tutti conosciamo” [that we all know], TT, I, 4);

c) when ST referents are omitted (e.g. “as we all want”, vs. “+++”, TT, I, 14);

d) when there is a shift to de-personalization (e.g. “so we have”, ST, vs. “quindi c’è” [so there is], TT, I, 21);

e) when there is a shift to personalization (e.g. “bisogna mettere ingranare la sesta marcia” [it is necessary to put to shift to sixth gear], ST, vs. “you have to go into sixth gear”, TT, I, 43).

Shifts in transitivity and agency (voice) are considered in the following cases:

a) when agency is suppressed (e.g. “he sent me”, ST, vs. “per questo sono presente io” [for this am present I], TT, I, 1);

b) when agency is enhanced (e.g. “c’est là qu’intervient ... notre rôle de parlementaires euro-méditerranéennes” [it is there that intervenes ... our role of Euromediterranean parliamentarians], ST, vs. “è qui che dobbiamo intervenire come parlamentari euromediterranei” [it is here that we must intervene as Euromediterranean parliamentarians], TT, I, 16);

c) when there is a shift from one agent to another (e.g. “the founder of the republic <Ataturk> achieved important rights for the women”, ST, vs. “le donne hanno conseguito importanti diritti” [the women have achieved important rights], TT, I, 10).
Shifts in mood and modality are considered in the following cases:

a) when there is a shift from an unmodalized utterance to a modalized one (e.g. "those are the challenges we face @", ST, vs. "questa è una sfida che dobbiamo affrontare" [this is a challenge that we must face], TT, I, 50);

b) shifts in mood that signal forms of embeddedness (e.g. "OK thank you", ST, vs. "vorrei ringraziare" [I would like to thank], TT, I, 1);

c) when there is an omission of modal hedging (e.g. "nous allons modestement collaborer en présentant dans ce domaine l'expérience algérienne très rapidement" [we will modestly collaborate by presenting in this domaine the Algerian experience very rapidly], ST, vs. "collaboreremo presentando rapidamente l'esperienza algerina" [we will collaborate by rapidly presenting the Algerian experience], TT I, 4)

d) when there is an addition of a modal hedge (e.g. "I tell you it's not that easy", ST, vs. "e vi dico sinceramente che non è compito facile" [and I tell you sincerely that it is not an easy task], TT, I, 19);

We stress throughout our analysis (Chapter 6) that the phenomena examined, and counted, all impinge upon the nature of a speaker's face-work. In this sense FTAs are not countable. However we do count instances where potential threats are:

a) omitted (e.g. "the women are raped and killed", ST, vs. "", TT, I, 23);

b) influenced by additions to ST (e.g. "contre les femmes agents de l'occident athée" [against the women agents of the atheist West] ST, vs. "contro le donne che vengono viste come agenti dell'occidente ateo" [against the women who are seen as agents of the atheist West], TT, I, 17, 27);

c) weakened (e.g. "i nostri deputati i ministri davvero non ci seguono" [our representatives our ministers really do not follow us], ST, vs. "our Euro members of parliament and our ministers don't actually listen to what we ask them to do in this respect", TT, I, 4);
d) strengthened (e.g. "I just want to give you a very quick overview", ST, vs. "voglio farvi una breve panoramica" [I want to give you a brief panorama], TT, l: 12).

Finally, the validity of this study's findings, or the extent to which they can be generalised (ibid.), rests primarily on the fact of having access to situated, authentic data. The phenomena examined for evidence of self-regulatory behaviour, i.e. participation framework and interactional politeness, are not unique to a particular language combination, professional context or specific working conditions.

5.4 Summary

In this chapter we have described our research design (fig. 5.1) that consists of four moments: the moment at which the performance data was recorded, our briefing sessions with subjects, textual analysis, and our debriefing sessions with subjects. We have argued the validity of reflectively intentional self-regulation (fig. 5.2) in order to justify the inclusion of debriefing sessions in this study.

We have presented the details of our corpus (§5.2) by first discussing information relative to the subjects of this study (§5.2.1) that was gathered during our briefing sessions with them. Detailed information concerning corpus texts was presented in §5.2.2. We specified information concerning the event and discourse context of our corpus (table 5.2), indicated speech spontaneity for each text (table 5.3) and discussed the discourse levels of representation of our data (§5.2.2.2). We concluded this chapter with a discussion on the reliability and validity of our methodology, corpus and subjects (§5.3). The following chapter analyses our corpus.
This chapter analyses participation framework and interactional politeness as evidence of self-regulation in our corpus. Rather than classifying phenomena into categories based on specific linguistic features such as, for example, deictics, transitivity and modality, we have chosen to use categories which embrace over-arching trends that have emerged in our findings. Thus we first consider the 'stance' (§6.1) that determines an interpreter's shifts in terms of distance-altering alignments. By attending to how agency is conveyed, we then observe the expression of 'voice' across our corpus (§6.2) in order to determine the varying degrees of directness that define an interpreter's engagement. Once these trends become clear, we turn to an analysis of how both stance and voice impinge upon issues concerning 'face' (§6.3), and discern to what degree subjects commit themselves in enacting politeness strategies and how they seem to deal with threats to face.

In §3.1.2 we discussed the interpreting event through the perspective of participation framework. We stressed, after Goffman, that production shifts occurring throughout talk indicate the multiple senses in which the self of the speaker can appear, the 'textual self' (Goffman 1981: 173) being one of long standing.

In §3.1.1 we stated that the following conditions are considered when assessing contextual shifts: systemic or structural constraints posed by different language systems involved and interpersonal constraints posed by the ritual of the situation (Goffman 1981); we also stated that interaction occurs within an individual turn of talk (ibid.).
Even though anyone taking the floor in a conference is potentially considered a ST speaker, we have, for the purposes of analysis, defined source texts in our corpus (§5.2.2) as texts that include a complete ST speech - from when the ST speaker is given the floor to when the floor returns to the Chair - and a complete interpreted version of the same. This means all interruptions such as, for example, when the Chair intervenes to slow the speaker down, or any other comments from the floor made during this time are considered as part of the interaction during one interpreter's turn of talk in the TT. Thus the interpreter is considered to interact with his or her own text during this turn and to shift footing in relation to other ST parties interacting during this turn.

It is precisely because of the possible multiple interventions within an interpreting turn, which create an inherent difficulty in rapport management (see Spencer-Oatey 2000), that we characterize the event in terms of threats to face. We do so by first extending a discussion begun in §3.1.3 and examining the roles interpreters take on within the event, with the objective of discerning whose face is at stake, and then we deal with individual speech acts (§6.3).

In terms of the interpersonal, ritual proceedings of conference interpreting (figure 6.1), we know that a Chairperson gives the floor to a speaker. Since we have distinguished the person who is given the floor as ST speaker, we refer to (P) as Chairperson and define (A) as ST speaker who begins a turn of talk. One of the interpreting team members (I or II) thus also begins an interpreting turn (turn-taking among interpreters is illustrated with dotted arrows). The ST is mediated for TT receivers (D). System constraints create a situation whereby TT receivers hear the message with a certain delay with respect to ST receivers (B), due to EVS, the time necessary for the interpreter to convey the ST message received. Therefore, as illustrated in figure 6.1, ST receivers (B) and the interpreter (I) hear a message before TT receivers (D). Only A and I address receivers in a one-to-many style of communication (solid arrows); limited amounts of communication (broken arrows) occur between other communicating parties. In other words, in our corpus interventions on the part of the Chair are directed to ST speakers (e.g. to invite them to take the podium, to inform them their speaking time is over, etc.). Other parties to the event with a role of overhearer, who may exercise influence on an interpreter's face-work, include
technicians (C), conference organizers and staff (E), and professional conference interpreting associations (F), which may act as gatekeepers to the profession.

Figure 6.1 System and ritual constraints in an interpreter-mediated event

Key: P - Chairperson; A - ST speaker; I - interpreter; II - interpreting team member; D - primary TT receiver; B - primary ST receiver; C - technician; E - conference organizer and staff; F - professional associations; solid arrows, one-to-many communication; dash arrows, occasional communication, e.g. questions during discussion session; dotted arrows, interpreters' turn-taking.

Within this framework, what emerges through the 'mechanics' (Goffman 1981: 181) of lecturing, i.e. within text brackets (e.g. opening and closing remarks) and during the management of performance contingencies (e.g. other parties intervening during the interpreter's turn of talk), is a series of moves that make it possible to distinguish how interpreters react to threats to their professional face that may include difficulty in completing an utterance, the admission of mistakes or self-corrections. However, aside from these obvious instances of potential loss of face, there are a series of moves made in response to FTAs that also add to the overall trend of detachment, depersonalisation and indirectness, which are examined in §6.3.2.1-6.3.2.4 and discussed further in Chapter 7.

As will become apparent, our findings suggest that interpreters act with detachment, or distance themselves, in relation to their text [+distance] in terms of stance (personal reference); they act with indirectness [-direct] in terms of voice (transitivity patterns and agency), and mitigate illocutionary force when addressing TT receivers (mood and
modality). Two extreme cases, already discussed to varying degrees in this study, illustrate this trend. The first was seen in Sample 1.3 when a Turkish delegate talks about Chechen women, a topic which is not only beyond the scope of the conference, but which is addressed beyond the time allotted to the delegate. During the overlapping voices (Chair and ST speaker in Sample 1.3) the interpreter (Sample 1.4) explains the situation to TT receivers and at some point shuts his microphone off, making ST speech available to TT receivers. We argue the self-regulatory nature of this behaviour in terms of detachment. In other words, by shutting off his microphone, the interpreter makes a clear distinction between his performance and the highly threatening behaviour of this ST speaker, thus saving his professional face.

The second extreme example of an interpreter moving to save face was illustrated in Samples 1.1 (ST) and 1.2 (TT). In Sample 1.1 the Chair tells the ST speaker to slow down. The latter, in turn, explains she was trying to include her entire talk within the time limit and therefore spoke quickly. In Sample 1.2 the interpreter uses the third person to tell TT receivers the nature of the exchange between the Chair and ST speaker, adding "but if she runs like this it is impossible to follow", implying the possibility of interrupting her interpretation. This indeed represents a possible threat to TT receivers on the one hand but, on the other, her statement may also represent an excuse for any professional shortcoming in the event the ST speed again picked up. Here the interpreter's face-work is oriented toward saving her own face, since she reacts to what she feels is a threat to her professional face, i.e. a ST delivered at high speed.

In this chapter we analyse corpus texts in terms of how interpreters self-regulate during their negotiation of source texts when working in the simultaneous mode. As mentioned in Chapter 5, all corpus texts are authentic conference proceedings (ST) and their interpretations (TT). This fact alone would suggest these texts constitute a uniform body of data. To some degree this is indeed the case. For example, speakers take the floor and typically bracket their talk with opening and closing remarks, within which a main body usually conveys essential information concerning a problem, its solution and the assessment of this solution. The main body may also revolve around an argument, which is developed in a number of ways. Although the selection criteria used to compile our corpus are such that this basic schema emerges across our data, the talk develops through different rhetorical modes and it is possible to note quite clearly when a speaker
switches from one mode to another. In this study we consider these modes along a narrative/non-narrative cline.

Very generally speaking, narrative sequences encode previous experiences that take place at a specific point in time or over a specific interval in a past-time story-world (Polanyi 1985: 41). In contrast, non-narrative sequences focus less on experience and more on generic assessments. After Georgakopoulou and Goutsos (1997) we take the term 'narrative' to be more inclusive and also to cover reports, descriptions, future narration, and so on; non-narrative sequences focus more on the evaluation of problems, states and actions. The two modes, narrative and non-narrative, are typically associated with subjectivity or affectivity and information-giving or analyzing, respectively (ibid.: 46-49). For the purposes of this study our interest in these two modes centres on the fact that the subjectivity characterising them is reflected in the presentation of self, hence participation framework. A reported reality in narrative sequences involves a different deictic centre, in which a speaker projects him or herself as animator, author and/or principal. All source texts display narrative and non-narrative sequences. In Sample 6.1 the ST speaker switches from the non-narrative ("vorrei terminare" [I would like to end]) to the narrative mode ("diceva" [used to say]).

**Sample 6.1 1 66**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vorrei terminare con una nota positiva</td>
<td>I would like to end on a positive note</td>
<td>but anyway let me round off on a positive note</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrariamente a quanto diceva un mio professore trent'anni fa a Ginevra</td>
<td>contrary to what a professor of mine used to say thirty years ago in Geneva</td>
<td>contrary to what was said by a professor of mine thirty years ago in Geneva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>che era il capo interprete delle Nazioni Unite</td>
<td>who was the head interpreter of the United Nations</td>
<td>he's the head interpreter of United Nations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ST speaker uses an imperfect past tense here to describe what his interpreting professor used to say before starting lessons. Up to this point in his speech he had only used a perfect past tense to describe specific events occurring in the past and switched to a past imperfect within text sequences referring to a past event when he discusses his feelings or perceptions about the event described. If we are to judge from his behaviour

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6 We use the terms 'switch' when discussing phenomena occurring within a single speech event; we use the term 'shift' when discussing the TT speaker's behaviour in relation to the ST speaker's.
thus far, this ST sequence is preparing us for a story that should hit an emotional chord. In other words the ST speaker uses a non-narrative mode (speaking in either a present tense or past perfect tense) when offering information concerning the interpreting profession in the European Parliament and switches to a narrative mode when recalling specific events and revealing personal feelings vis-à-vis past events (speaking in a past imperfect tense). The TT, however, does not switch to a past tense when mentioning a "professor of mine", but rather includes "he's the head interpreter". The ST speaker, being close to retirement age, gives listeners a patent clue in deciphering when the events he mentions take place. It is highly unlikely that the speaker's professor — at the time of utterance — was still the head interpreter at the United Nations. There may be various reasons behind this type of misregulation, foremost among them the failure to recognize the switch to a different rhetorical mode, possibly because of working constraints. The notion of rhetorical modes, though crucial in determining the nature of an interpreter's behaviour, is discussed only to the extent that these (narrative and non-narrative) may influence and determine interpreters' self-regulatory behaviour.

It is important to stress that it is not stance or voice as such which are investigated in order to gain insight into the interpreter's behaviour, but non-obligatory interpreting shifts involving those parameters that shed light on target text participation framework and interactional politeness. We include only those shifts where viable alternatives exit. When available, we consult contrastive studies (English-Italian, Italian-English and French-Italian) for aid in assessing doubtful cases, i.e. when the decision of what is obligatory or optional is difficult to make, and in cases where language conventions have changed over the years such as, for example, in the use of the subjunctive mode. Also, since sections cited in this chapter are non-discrete categories, overlapping phenomena are pointed out and discussed in terms of how we resolve these cases in our study.

Data findings from our categories of 'stance' and 'voice' are considered in terms of how a speaker aligns himself with his text and audience. These are plotted over a power differential graph (Figure 6.2) where distancing [+distance], approximation [-distance] and varying degrees of directness ([+direct] and [-direct]) are assessed to establish relative power among communicating parties and the weight of a threat.

Hatim and Mason (1997: 139) suggest that, within a theory of politeness, power may
be defined as "the degree to which the text producer can impose his own plans and self-evaluation at the expense of the text receiver's plans and self-evaluation". This notion refers to power exerted within the text rather than power invested in participants by virtue of their status in society. In other words a text producer could adopt a powerful position or power-less position within the text by choosing to exclude or include concern for the interlocutor's point of view, goals, and so on. Therefore, the assumption is that excluding the 'opponent', or interlocutor, e.g. by asserting something baldly, is tantamount to exercising power; including the interlocutor results in a cession of power. In the graph below, since the [-direct/+distance] quadrant reflects an area denoting greater power differential between communicating parties, and the [-distance/+direct] quadrant reflects an area denoting less power differential, phenomena collocated in the [-direct/-distance] quadrant tend to be less threatening and more polite, whereas phenomena collocated in the [+distance/+direct] quadrant seem to be more threatening and less polite.

![Power differential graph](image)

**Figure 6.2 Power differential graph**

Sample 6.2 from our corpus illustrates the power differential graph.

**Sample 6.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>la mucca pazza se preferite</td>
<td>or mad cow disease if you (plural) prefer</td>
<td>or we could say actually in more banal terms the mad cow problem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ST is pronounced by a first person singular subject, the speaking subject, implying
distinctness vis-à-vis listeners [+distance]; the ST verb form is the second person plural of the present indicative tense, thus unmodalized and hence comparatively [+direct]. The interpreter indeed reflects the inclusion of the interlocutor as the ST speaker does ("se preferite" [if you (plural) prefer]), but does so via a shift ("we") and a modal ("could") is used.

On the other hand, the TT is pronounced by an embedded [-direct] first person plural (an 'inclusive we'), implying [-distance] vis-a-vis the audience; the TT verb form is modalized, denoting a [-direct] trend in reference to the interpreter's degree of commitment to what is being said. The resulting interpersonal effect in the TT is one of [-distance] and [-direct], thus positioning the interpreter and his listeners in an area where there is less power differential between them. The interpersonal effect in the ST is one of [+distance] and [+direct] that positions the ST speaker and his listeners in an area where there is greater power differential between them.

Although repairs and repetitions are also interactional phenomena, they are not taken into consideration in this study because they were not prominent in all corpus texts. Nor are omissions or additions, unless they have to do with the analysis of interactional politeness. In this perspective omissions or ellipsis may either be ways of signalling shared knowledge, and as such can be considered positive politeness strategies, or may even be ways of signalling the mitigation or strengthening of a threat to face (Brown and Levinson 1987).

Our analyses here are based on textual data examined using the contextual model outlined in §3.1.1 (fig. 3.1, p. 41). Although when referring to trends we include a quantitative assessment (tables 6.4 and 6.5), albeit limited in scope, our principal aim is to explore the nature of interpreters' behaviour, rather than to examine its detailed distribution. Thus even if a limited number of subjects manifest similar behaviour at some point in their interpretation, this in itself may illuminate the process as a whole. Subjects' perceptions or awareness of phenomena are also discussed in Chapter 7 when analyzing debriefing sessions (§7.3). We understand that participants' recall of their motivation for proceeding in a particular manner, or of possible strategies applied

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7 In §6.1 we discuss how the use of 'we' may denote either inclusiveness or exclusiveness (Fillmore 1997: 15-16).
during interpreting, may be limited. This type of qualitative data, however, complements our fine-grained analysis of corpus texts, as Duranti and Goodwin (1992: 232-3) point out:

Moreover, inferences are subconsciously made so that ... they are not readily accessible to recall. It is therefore difficult to elicit information about the grounds upon which particular inferences are made through direct questioning. The relative interpretative processes are best studied through in-depth, turn-by-turn analysis of form and content.

The following section (§6.1) includes an investigation based on personal reference that enlightens us on the specific points of view ('stance') adopted by speakers.

6.1 Stance

How reference is interpreted in target texts allows us to understand both how context is perceived and how relevant information is assessed as such.

In order to understand an utterance, a listener needs to locate the expression used to identify what the speaker is talking about. This identifying expression is typically the subject of the utterance and is a referring expression. It may be recalled that in Chapter 2 we cited Kendon (1992: 326-334), who considers speakers embodied entities and discusses how attention is organized as an interactive phenomenon. Kendon uses Goffman's notion of 'attentional tracks' (see Goffman 1974: 201-246) to specify how relevant and non-relevant action is perceived by communicating parties. Interpreters, as particular text receivers (simultaneously listeners and speakers) with a unique participation status (see §3.1.2, p. 43), have an active role in shaping the discourse of the TT. As other interpreting studies scholars (Setton 1999, 2002; Viaggio 2002) have pointed out, conference speakers will make assumptions about the mutual manifestness of assumptions to their audience and to themselves, but what is manifest to a ST audience may not be manifest to the interpreter, who often is not a subject specialist and has not been party to previous interactions. An analysis of simultaneous interpreting, therefore, must take into account the relationship between the utterance, the context, the ST and TT audience and the interpreter's intention in interpreting the utterance, rather than concentrating solely on the relationship between the intentions of the ST speaker and the utterance (see Brown 1995).
Throughout their texts all ten subjects in our study manifest shifts in the category of stance, a finding that is of relevance itself. However, regardless of shifts in personal reference in target texts, on no occasion was coherence adversely affected. Findings show that of the 188 shifts in personal deixis in target texts, 64% display a [1 distance] trend. This trend becomes even more significant when added to the overall trends discussed in Chapter 7.

Our concern in analyzing stance is the interpreter's focus of attention and the shift of this focus during an interpreter's delivery in order to discern interactional self-regulatory moves. In this sense pronouns are deictic expressions and identify both humans and objects within and without the immediate speech situation. These forms of deictic reference, therefore, are analysed in this section primarily for what they can tell us about the shifting focus of social identity. In discussing reference-switching Hatim and Mason (1997: 114) list the effects caused by pronominal reference switching, among them to "relay a more supportive attitude and thus establish intimacy by, for example, involving the receiver in the communicative act". It is along these lines that we consider an interpreter's moves when shifts are effected in order to establish distance-altering alignments, since deictic reference encodes relations between an origo, or the deictic centre in a speech event, and the intended referent.

Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998: 196-7) argue for a distinction between 'I-identity' and 'We-identity' facework when using first-person pronouns, which derives from the difference between independent self-construal ['I-identity'] and interdependent self-construal ['We-identity']. Further insight into the nature of pronominal reference is gained from Fillmore's lectures on deixis (1997: 5-26). He discusses the ambiguous nature of the English pronoun 'we'. According to our general knowledge of permission-granting situations, for example, the person having authority is distinct from the person seeking permission, hence the meaning potential of 'we' used when seeking permission could only indicate the inclusion of the speaker and those seeking permission, and the exclusion of the person/s having authority.

The same reasoning could also be extended to situations where speakers use 'we' to distinguish one social group from another or to signal contrast. Sample 6.3 illustrates one such case. External contextual factors inform us that the ST speaker is a representative of the European Parliament interpreting staff who addresses an audience
of interpreting students and describes the recruiting policies of Parliament as opposed to those of the European Commission. His use of 'we' in this context ['we had to demand of our interpreters'] is indeed one of exclusion, all the more so since he had been using an 'I-identity' throughout his speech up to this text sequence.

Sample 6.3 I, 47

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abbiamo dovuto esigere dai nostri interpreti al Parlamento Europeo tre lingue passive perché al Parlamento Europeo</td>
<td>we had to demand of our interpreters at the European Parliament three passive languages because at the European Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrariamente alla Commissione</td>
<td>contrary to the Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We return to the same corpus text at the end of this section in order to argue a point concerning the interpreter's moves in relation to audience design.

In Sample 6.4 the ST speaker discusses a mobile school project conceived for migrant communities. He uses an inclusive 'we', whereas the interpreter opts for an impersonal or passive form ('there is', "that is used"), which is indicative of a trend of de-personalisation (or [1 distance]) found throughout our corpus.

Sample 6.4 I, 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>so here we have interactions @ between the teacher and the materials/</td>
<td>quindi c'è l'interazione fra l'insegnante e il materiale/</td>
<td>so there is the interaction between the teacher and the material/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sending receiving materials/</td>
<td>mandare ricevere materiale</td>
<td>send and receive materiale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here we have the interaction between the learner and the content</td>
<td>c'è l'interazione fra l'insegnante e il l'allievo/</td>
<td>there is the interaction between the teacher and the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the materials that they are using in a distance learning situation</td>
<td>e l'interazione fra l'allievo e il materiale/#</td>
<td>and the interaction between the student and the material/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il contenuto che si @ utilizza in una situazione di apprendimento a distanza</td>
<td>il contenuto che si @ utilizza in una situazione di apprendimento a distanza</td>
<td>the content that is used in a situation of distance learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Depending on the contextual frame of reference, the pronoun 'you' denotes specific reference (i.e. addressees) or generic reference (i.e. people in general), as illustrated in Sample 6.5 (taken from the same corpus text as Sample 6.4). The ST speaker addresses an audience of teachers and refers to a series of visual aids, pointing to different areas of
the illustrations projected. He uses the pronoun 'you' denoting specific reference three times in the sequence. In contrast, the interpreter opts for impersonal referents in the TT ("it is possible", "there are problems"), here too creating a distancing effect [+distance].

**Sample 6.5 1, 32**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- so the first and easy one is the GSM mobile phone</td>
<td>- naturalmente ci sono i mob i GSM</td>
<td>- naturally there are the mob the GSM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- now I expect you know you can plug</td>
<td>- a telefonini con il sistema GSM</td>
<td>- a mobile phones with the GSM system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- if you have some software you can plug your phone into your laptop</td>
<td>- +++</td>
<td>- +++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- and you can send and receive e-mail#</td>
<td>- per cui si possono inviare e ricevere e-mail</td>
<td>- so that it is possible to send and receive e-mail</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use of the second-person pronoun is also made in opposition to the use of first-person pronouns in order to denote a dichotomy or a division between the two referents or to distinguish one social group from another and signal contrast. In Sample 6.6 the ST speaker is a representative of the Israeli government who takes the floor some time after a representative of the Palestinian Authority. After thanking the authorities she directs her attention to her colleague ("I heard what the (a) representative of the (a) (a) Palestinian (a) (a) said/"), then addresses her specifically ("and I don’t want to ask you what’s happened (a) about when we are talking about human rights in the Palestinian Authority#"). It is interesting to note that the use of personal reference generally lessens distance, as seen in Sample 6.2 ("se preferite" [if you (plural) prefer]), whereas in this case, in terms of the dynamics of the conference event, it is highly face-threatening, since the ST adopts a [+direct] interpersonal stance.⁸

The use of 'you' also appears in opposition to 'we' in sequence 6 of Sample 6.6 (sequences are numbered in the left column), when the ST speaker makes a clear distinction between rights relevant to her own country, Israel ("that we should keep in my country"), and those pertaining to the addressee, a Palestinian ("that you should keep in the Palestinian Authority").

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⁸ We further discuss threats to face in §6.3.2 and cases of personal reference in relation to distancing/approximation and power in Chapter 7.
Sample 6.6 also illustrates how interpreters may use pronouns of identity to create distance in relation to referents when ST speakers confront addressees in socially challenging moments. In sequence 4 when the Israeli ST speaker turns to address her Palestinian colleague ("to ask you"), the interpreter first opts for a formal third-person pronoun form ("chiederle", [to ask her]), then self-corrects and uses a second-person plural form ("chiedervi", [to ask you (plural)]), a form that once indeed was used in formal address, but that today is only used regionally. In this context, then, the self-correction may indicate uncertainty as to who to address, in the sense that the Italian language calls for formal address in cases like these, but the interpreter may have felt the need to interpose even more distance ("chiedervi", [to ask you (plural)], less determinate).

Sample 6.6 1, 3-6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>- that's why I think it was~ - well I cannot say it was a mistake~ - but I think that @ we should ignore @ the political matters that @ @ between our countries that will be discussed in other @ circumstantial circumstances~</td>
<td>- ecco perché ... secondo me dovremmo ignorare le questioni politiche ... che ... dividono~ - o comunque che esistono tra i nostri paesi~ - che verranno dibattute in altre circostanze#/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>- and @ because I don't want to be cynical~ - I heard what the @ @ representative of the @ @ Palestinian @ @ said/ - and I don't want to ask you what's happened @ @ about when we are talking about human rights in the Palestinian Authority#</td>
<td>- e questo perché io non vorrei essere cinica#/ - ho sentito bene ciò che ha detto la rappresentante ... della Palestina/ - e non vorrei chiederci o chiedervi quello che succede quando si parla a livello di diritti umani~</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>- what's happened to the freedom of speech/ - what happen happen to a person/ a man or a woman who speaks against the chairman Arafat#</td>
<td>- che cosa è successo nel suo paese nei territori palestinesi alla libertà di parola/ - che cosa succede se qualcuno osa parlare contro il presidente Arafat nel suo paese#/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>- I think it's more important for me to come back to Israel~ - and find out what human rights that we should keep in my country~ - and what human rights that you should keep in the Palestinian Authority/</td>
<td>- comunque è più importante per me tornare in Israele/ - e cercare di vedere quali sono invece i diritti umani che dobbiamo cercare di rispettare nel nostro paese/ - e voi nel vostro~ - nell'autorità palestinese#/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interpreter carries through the formal pronoun form in sequence 6 ("nel suo paese", [in your (formal) country]), and when 'you' is used to distinguish one social group from another and signal contrast in ST sequence 6, the interpreter adopts the second-person plural. This is the only case found in our corpus of an 'honorific' use of language: distance is communicated with a third-person form ("nel suo paese", [in your (formal) country]) where a second-person form would do, and without appearing contradictory.

The overall trend of [+distance] shifts in personal reference also includes cases that show a more personal identity attributed to the referent in the ST, such as in Sample 6.7 ("nous avons eu" [we have had]), which is not carried over in the TT ("c'è stata" [there has been]) and creates a distancing effect [+distance].

Phenomena such as that illustrated in Sample 6.7, i.e. the absence of personal reference in the TT, have been often discussed in interpreting studies as omissions. They are considered in this study only in as much as they contribute to [+/-distance] or [+/-direct] trends in the data. Samples 6.8 and 6.9 illustrate cases where referents are missing in the TT.

**Sample 6.7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nous avons eu aussi cette propension à penser que nous sommes tous des européens et que</td>
<td>- we have had also this propensity to think that we are all Europeans and that</td>
<td>c'è stata questa propensione a pensare che siamo tutti europei/</td>
<td>there has been this propensity to think that we are all Europeans/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- par conséquent</td>
<td>- therefore</td>
<td>- quindi</td>
<td>- therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- nous avons à être d'accord @ sur l'essentiel</td>
<td>- we have to be in agreement @ on the essential</td>
<td>- dobbiamo essere d'accordo sull'essenziale/</td>
<td>- we must be in agreement on the essential/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Sample 6.8 the lack of reference in the TT to "our discussions" - a move of approximation on behalf of the ST speaker - does not reduce distance in the same manner for TT receivers.

**Sample 6.8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nos débats</td>
<td>our discussions</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Sample 6.9 the TT also lacks reference to an inclusive 'we' present in the ST. Here, too, no move of approximation alters established distances between communicating parties.

Sample 6.9 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as we all want</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In our assessment of distancing or approximation we found many cases where there is no anchor to a deictic centre or personal focus, but where the focus is on one referent in relation to another. In these cases we assessed the speaker's positioning, or alignment, in terms of these referents. Samples 6.10 and 6.11 are two such cases. In Sample 6.10 both ST and TT resort to an impersonal system of reference ("it is necessary" in the ST and a non-specified 'you' in the TT) when discussing something that has to be done. Whereas the ST eludes agency since no subject is singled out, the TT refers to a generic 'you', thus personifying the process. For this reason the TT shows signs of approximation [-distance]. This countertrend occurs in 36% of all shifts in identity stance.

Sample 6.10 1R 43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bisogna mettere ingranare</td>
<td>it is necessary to put to shift into</td>
<td>you have to go into sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l'al sesta marcia</td>
<td>sixth gear</td>
<td>gear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 6.11 also illustrates a case where the focus is brought to bear on one referent in relation to another. What might seem to be misregulation on the part of the interpreter may in fact indicate the interpreter's self-regulatory move. The ST speaker addresses her colleagues at the Euromediterranean Forum of Women Parliamentarians, and stresses the importance of keeping in touch to exchange information. She refers here to an example of a successful "old boys network". The first ST element "they know", is distinguished as being conceptually closer to the speaker than the TT "tutti sanno" [all people know], since the latter is indeterminate, thus more distant. In other words, "they" is deictic, i.e. speaker-related, whereas "tutti" is not. By applying the same reasoning to the ST and TT elements, "they ... each other" and "tutti ... le altre" [all persons ... the
others] respectively, we find the same relation in terms of indeterminacy.

Sample 6.11 I, 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and let me give you just one example</td>
<td>basti una @ un esempio</td>
<td>a (a) an example should suffice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the old boys network in the United Kingdom</td>
<td>c'è una rete nel Regno Unito che funziona</td>
<td>there is a network in the United Kingdom that works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes we laugh about it</td>
<td>questa rete funziona</td>
<td>this network works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but it works</td>
<td>tutti sanno come trovare le altre</td>
<td>because all people know how to find the others (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they know where they are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and they know how to find each other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, in both versions the meaning potential extends to referents in relation to the speaker in the ST as origo and the interpreter in the TT as origo. Both versions thus seem to adopt the same identity stance. What is of interest is that the interpreter refers to female 'others', as if she were referring to other colleague parliamentarians, instead of the 'old boys network' in the ST. The many working constraints possibly hindering the interpreter from hearing the male reference nonetheless put the interpreter in the position of exhibiting self-regulatory behaviour, i.e. she uses contextual cues of the situational context to guide her performance, thus making reference to possible successful communication networks of women in the United Kingdom. Sample 6.11 also illustrates three cases of personal reference in the ST ('let me', 'you' and 'we laugh'), which are not carried over in the TT, thus adding to the overall trend of de-personalisation.

Text samples illustrated in this section start to give us a more vivid picture of how - even simply opting for a different pronoun - an interpreter's alignment may subtly shift in relation to the ST, making for contextual changes and creating an entirely different effect on listeners. This trend becomes even more significant when considering the emergent trend in our data of how processes are expressed and agency is attributed. This is examined in the next section.
6.2 Voice

This category concerns more than the choice between active and passive, as expressed by the presence (passive) or absence (active) of some form of be or get just before a lexical verb, within the lexical verb in the passive participle form (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 182). We explore the social construction of spoken language behaviour in this study in order to discern the interpreter's self-regulatory moves in relation to the degree of directness expressed in texts. After Canagarajah (2003: 267) we define voice as "a manifestation of one's agency in discourse through the means of language". She distinguishes this constructed selfhood as being negotiated in relation to three categories of the self: our historically-defined identities, institutional roles and ideological subjectivity. Canagarajah specifies that it is at the level of 'voice' that agency is gained to negotiate these categories and where we adopt a reflexive awareness of them, finding forms of coherence and power that suit our interests (op. cit.: 267-8). She stresses that these three categories are principally macro-social, or involve the external context, whereas voice manifests itself at the micro-social level, or internal context. She suggests that it is at this micro-level that the resistance, modification and negotiation of larger social structures take place. Our category of 'voice' examines how actions and intentions are expressed, i.e. the ideational function of language. Findings are assessed along a [-direct] and [+direct] cline. In other words, we examine shifts in agency which reveal the nature of the interpreter's involvement in unfolding processes, assessing them as [-direct] when the interpreter's shifts in agency make for less direct involvement in processes, and as [+direct] when they denote greater involvement. These opposing trends indicate an interpreter's perspective with respect to the text and illustrate the nature of a self-regulatory move, since the degree of varying involvement (in relation to the TT) denotes face protection. It is for this reason that we hear reference to this category as 'voice', since they are personal choices on the part of the interpreter.

One aspect of agency in corpus texts has already been examined in terms of the 'identity' characterizing a speaker's stance (§6.1), where it was possible to distinguish the manner in which speakers either include or exclude both themselves and text receivers in their talk. Here this analysis is taken one step further to include the

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9 See §3.1.1 for a discussion of internal and external context.
underlying process involved in an utterance. For example, in a material process (e.g. a process that implies 'doing'), with an actor and a goal, a pronominal shift may create a process with an indefinite actor, as illustrated in Sample 6.12.

**Sample 6.12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the work I do</td>
<td>il lavoro che si fa</td>
<td>the work that one does</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indefinite actor in the TT (Sample 6.12) denotes less direct involvement and hence less direct agency, thus de-personalisation. Our findings reveal that, out of a total of 94 shifts in agency, 54% show a [-direct] trend. This section deals with the nature of these shifts, determining how processes are presented and agency is attributed in the TT and prepares the groundwork for a discussion of interpreters' face-work (§6.3).

After Simpson (1993: 95), Table 6.1 lists transitivity features of the texts analysed.

**Table 6.1 Transitivity features**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process name</th>
<th>Process type</th>
<th>Participant role(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>'doing'</td>
<td>ACTOR (obligatory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>GOAL (optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>'saying'</td>
<td>SAYER (obligatory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TARGET (optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VERBIAGE (optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>'sensing'</td>
<td>SENSER (obligatory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PHENOMENON (optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>'being'</td>
<td>CARRIER (obligatory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'having'</td>
<td>ATTRIBUTE (optional)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above processes are ordered from more to less direct agency, material processes ('doing') first among these. In their passive variants the 'goal' (target/verbiage, phenomenon or attribute) element is fronted and the 'actor' (sayer, sensor or carrier) is either shifted rightwards or removed.

A breakdown of the main transitivity processes (Simpson 1993: 104-5) follows (Table 6.2), along with examples taken from our corpus to illustrate these processes (corpus texts and sequences are indicated in parentheses).
Table 6.2 Transitivity processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Process type</th>
<th>Corpus examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Action/intention</td>
<td>vi tranquillizzo subito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[I calm you immediately] (TT, 1, 45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Action/supervention</td>
<td>the challenges we face (ST, 1, 50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event</td>
<td></td>
<td>più il gap si [a] stringe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[the more the gap [a] closes] (TT, 1, 24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>vedete che non ho lucidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[you see that I don’t have transparencies] (ST, 1, 8, 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>Reaction</td>
<td>c molti ne sono stati contenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[and many were pleased of this] (TT, 1, 8, 16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Intensive</td>
<td>le decisioni assunte da noi … hanno rappresentato degli strumenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[the decisions taken on by us ... have represented some means] (TT, 1, 10, 21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>and [a] there we certainly have still a lot to do (ST, 1, 4, 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Circumstantial</td>
<td>what’s happened to the freedom of speech/ (ST, 1, 7, 5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Added to the variation of process types in the TT, we have found numerous shifts in agency, i.e. who does what, as illustrated in Samples 6.13 and 6.14.

Sample 6.13 1; 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he sent me</td>
<td>per questo sono presente io</td>
<td>for this am present I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Sample 6.13 the ST goal ‘me’ becomes the actor (in lieu of ST “he”). This results in a relational process where the agency disappears. In Sample 6.14 the two material processes in the ST (“then we come to”, “the model that is gaining”) become a relational process (“then there is the model”) and a material process (“we try to favour”), where again we find a shift in referents.

Shifts involving agency typically occur in the proximity of other shifts in linguistic phenomena analysed in this study, making for an overall trend of detachment, as is discussed in Chapter 7. For example, added to a shift in agency in Sample 6.14 is the omission of “if you like”. 

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Identity pronouns were analysed in §6.1. There we saw how a missing reference to the audience may create more distance between the interpreter and his listeners. Further, "if you like" may also be considered a positive politeness strategy that aims to include the hearer in the ongoing activity (see Table 3.2, p. 60).

We have found that particular shifting transitivity patterns typically span an entire textual sequence and, in a few cases, recur in subsequent sequences. The nature of these shifts in our corpus reveals a trend of indirectness, involving the suppression of agency. Table 6.3 illustrates a sequence in which the transitivity shift of the first two TT processes reduces agency and creates a consequent shift in responsibility: the ST speaker ("I") states that "we" (inclusive) have lost time, whereas the TT eludes both the responsibility of "I feel" by using a perception mental process ("it seems to me") and the responsibility for having lost time by deleting the carrier in the relational process ("has been lost too much time").

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequence elements</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>Transitivity process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>TT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel</td>
<td>poi c’è il modello che cerchiamo di favorire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dear colleagues</td>
<td>then there is the model that we try to favour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that we have lost</td>
<td>poi c’è il modello che cerchiamo di favorire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valuable time#</td>
<td>then there is the model that we try to favour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot is said~</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but very little is done#</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>cari colleghi— ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mi sembra</td>
<td>it seems to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that finora sia stato perso fin troppo tempo#</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si parla molto~ ma si agisce poco#</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6.3 Transitivity processes I, 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

119
It is evident how the suppression of agency in texts or, vice versa, its enhancement, may involve a marked difference in the establishment of roles and power relations and, in turn, these shifting roles and relations also play a part in distinguishing the interpreter's perspective, since they are forms of face protection and thus self-regulatory in nature. This was borne out in our corpus even in texts that do not seem to have a political slant (e.g. 12 corpus texts taken from conference proceedings on mobile schooling). Since, however, all corpus texts are pronounced within the confines of institutional walls, a closer look at the nature of these shifts across our corpus may yield insight into the variation of meanings offered. As an example we now present two cases where this occurs, although similar phenomena are found in all corpus texts.

There are a minority of shifts in transitivity involving enhanced agency in the TT. Samples 6.15 and 6.16 are taken from two different subjects who interpreted at the Euromediterranean Forum of Women Parliamentarians, organized by the Italian Parliament, where three basic appeals were made: a call for equal rights, a pro-active approach to responsibility on behalf of women and stepped-up collaboration among women MPs in the area. In Sample 6.15 the ST “our role” is fronted as agent, in the TT Euromediterranean parliamentarians, rather than their role, are agents.

**Sample 6.15 Is 16**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c'est là qu'intervient</td>
<td>it is there that intervenes</td>
<td>è qui che dobbiamo intervenire come parlamentari euromediterranei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ou doit intervenir</td>
<td>or must intervene</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>notre rôle de parlementaires euroméditerranéennes</td>
<td>our role of Euromediterranean parliamentarians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likewise, in Sample 6.16, the TT confers greater agency on women. In the ST it is the “founder of the republic” who achieves important rights for women, and the latter are depicted as being “granted the right of election and to be elected”; the TT deletes the ST actor and sees women as agents (“women have achieved important rights”, “women have received the passive and active electorate”).

120
This trend of conferring upon women a more active role is followed through in this corpus text (e.g. ST “they are not given the same rights”, TT “non hanno gli stessi diritti” [they don’t have the same rights”] 1a, sequence 18). In the TT, however, even if Ataturk’s role has been deleted and thus may be considered a [-direct] move on behalf of the interpreter with respect to Ataturk’s agency, the interpreter here voices the intentions of a female NIP who is speaking within the external context of a conference on women parliamentarians. Hence agency is enhanced for women.

When agency is suppressed in the TT the consequences seem to be as striking as when agency is enhanced, regardless of text type, as illustrated in Samples 6.17 and 6.18. The ST speaker, former head of the Italian booth at the European Parliament, discusses the characteristics of interpreters he employs (Sample 6.17), “I have”, “that I employ”). In the TT the shift in agency is seen in the use of a collective “we” and interpreters who “will work every day”.

Sample 6.17 I, 29

In Sample 6.18, taken from the same corpus texts as the previous sample, the ST speaker mentions the prerequisites students must have in order to apply as a freelancer: at least three passive languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ho quattro cinque interpreti su una sessantina che impiego quotidianamente che sono talmente bravi</td>
<td>I have four five interpreters out of about sixty that I employ daily who are so good</td>
<td>we can say that we have about four or five interpreters out of sixty who will work every day who are so good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ST speaker confirms his authority as EP employer and voices his utterance with a material process, he being the agent ("I cannot summon you"). In the TT the 'goal' is fronted and students, potential EP interpreting candidates, become agents ("you cannot come"). These examples point to a conscious or unconscious tendency by the interpreter to reduce the "I" agency of the ST.

If Samples 6.15 and 6.16 are representative of interpreters' self-regulatory moves effected within their professional role, i.e voicing a ST speaker's intentions, what does the trend of detachment and indirectness found in Samples 6.17 and 6.18, typical of corpus findings, signify? More importantly, what is the role played by the interpreter in these cases? With what intentions? These issues were partly addressed in the beginning of this chapter when we characterized the interpreter-mediated event as face-threatening. We extend this discussion in §7.1.1.4 where we distinguish the analytical profile that emerges in our study and examine the participation framework and role dimensions in a mediated event.

Patterns of transitivity, together with stance indicators (§6.1), make for distinct points of view voiced from perspectives that differ considerably in target texts in terms of the suppression of agency. This shift in perspective is substantially highlighted in the interpreter's use of modality, which is discussed in §6.3.1.

6.3 Face

We have examined shifts in personal reference that are indicative of an interpreter's stance (§6.1) and found a predominance of [ i distance] moves. We then examined shifts in transitivity that are indicative of how agency, and thus voice, is expressed (§6.2) and found a [-direct] trend. We now examine interactional politeness, a phenomenon that cuts across grammatical categories. Politeness is a functional domain of language and language use (Lenz 2003: 192-3) and in this sense face-work and self-preservation occur in response to something. At the beginning of this chapter we have characterised

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altrimenti non posso convocarvi per un test</td>
<td>otherwise I cannot summon you for a test</td>
<td>because otherwise you cannot come to do our test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the activity of simultaneous interpreting as inherently face-treating: structural (language) constraints and interpersonal (ritual) constraints put the interpreter in the position of potentially moving to save both the TT receiver's face and his or her own face. Further, we argue the interpreter also moves to protect the ST speaker's face by presenting to the TT audience a mitigated version, as witnessed by the overriding trend that emerges in our data.

In this section we first examine this overriding trend of mitigating illocutionary force found in our data by analyzing how actions and intentions are expressed and how they relate to the self through an analysis of interpreters' shifts in mood and modality (§6.3.1). We then assess our subjects' face-work in order to tease out their self-regulatory moves in answer to possible threats (§6.3.2).

6.3.1 Mood and modality

As mentioned in §3.2.2, modality cuts across the grammar and discourse of a language, in response to unfolding pragmatic needs and textual constraints. This section analyses corpus shifts in mood and modality, or shifts concerning the speaker's own attitude towards the truth of a proposition, in the Gricean sense (Grice 1975). In other words, we assess how committed the speaker is to what he or she is saying, i.e., a facet of illocutionary force that expresses the general intent of the speaker. Evidence of shifts in modality was found in all corpus texts. Out of 162 shifts in mood and modality, 69% involve a [-direct] move, or the mitigation of illocutionary force. We argue that these shifts illustrate an overriding trend to mitigate illocutionary force and, as such, are illustrative of an interpreter's face-work. Since these moves indicate an interpreter's response to perceived expectations or set standards (§2.3), they are self-regulatory in nature. This section reviews the nature of these shifts.

The following categories of modality, after Simpson (1993), are considered: deontic (obligation, duty, commitment), boulomaic (desire), epistemic (knowledge, belief, cognition) and perception. Sample 6.19 illustrates a case where a shift occurs from the ST unmodalized utterance to the TT modalized (deontic) one.

**Sample 6.19 I2 50**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>those are the challenges we face @i</td>
<td>questa è una sfida che dobbiamo affrontare</td>
<td>this is a challenge that we must face</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

123
Our findings show that interpreters opt for deontic modals to a lesser degree and, when they do opt for deontic forms, their choice concerns a move from a categorical assertion to a deontic form, as in Sample 6.19 (ST, "those are the challenges we face"; TT, "this is a challenge we must face"). Shifts of this kind, however, reduce commitment to the truth of propositions. Categorical expressions express the strongest possible degree of speaker commitment (Lyons 1977: 763, in Simpson 1993: 49), and modalisation lessens the interpreter's commitment to what she is saying in comparison to the speaker's commitment in the ST utterance, thus [-direct]. The TT utterance presupposes that we may also 'not face' the challenge mentioned, whereas the ST utterance is categorical, and hence more committed. It may seem counterintuitive that the TT deontic in Sample 6.19 actually exhibits less commitment but, as Simpson points out (1993: 49):

... use of epistemic modal operators such as must, certainly, and necessarily renders the speaker's commitment to the factuality of propositions explicitly dependent on their own knowledge.

Shifts in modality also occurred through the omission or addition of adverbs, as illustrated in Samples 6.20 and 6.21 respectively, which, however, illustrate a minority countertext in our data.

Sample 6.20 1, 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a propos du theme sujet de nos debats</td>
<td>concerning the topic of our discussions</td>
<td>a proposito del tema del dibattito</td>
<td>concerning the topic of the discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous allons modestement collaborer</td>
<td>we will modestly collaborate</td>
<td>collaboreremo presentando rapidamente l'esperienza algerina</td>
<td>we will collaborate by rapidly presenting the Algerian experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en presentant dans ce domaine l'experience algérienne très rapidement</td>
<td>by presenting in this domaine the Algerian experience very rapidly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second element in the ST of Sample 6.20 contains a hedge ('modestement') whereas none is included in the TT. Omission of the hedge makes for greater commitment, or is [1 direct] in terms of the interpreter's intent. The TT in Sample 6.21
adds a modal hedge ("sinceramente"), which would make for less commitment [-direct] on the part of the interpreter, for the reason stated above (loc. cit.). However, although categorical assertions relay most commitment (Lyons 1977: 763) it is indeed possible here that the addition by the interpreter of "sincerely" may reflect prosodic emphasis or intonation by the ST speaker ("easy").

**Sample 6.21 I, 19**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I tell you it's not that easy!</td>
<td>e vi dico sinceramente che non è compito facile</td>
<td>and I tell you sincerely that it is not an easy task</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Added to shifts in modality are forms of embeddedness in texts that alter the interpreter's alignment with respect to his or her text and the TT audience. This is illustrated in Sample 6.22 when the ST speaker says "thank you" whereas the interpreter says "I would like to thank you". This added layer is created through the use of a boulomaic modal and is considered [-direct].

**Sample 6.22 I, 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OK thank you @ I @ madame chairman and @ all the participant~</td>
<td>vorrei ringraziare ma anche scusarmi per il mio inglese perché non parlo molto bene~</td>
<td>I would like to thank you but also excuse myself for my English because I do not speak very well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to apologize for my English it's not that good~ and I'm sick so~</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also subsume mood in our study of attitude since it represents a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. A large majority of shifts in mood found in our corpus are unmarked, from the (French or English) indicative to the (Italian) subjunctive moods, as illustrated in Sample 6.23. These cases are not counted, precisely because they are unmarked, i.e. they correspond to language-specific norms of usage.

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10 Although prosodic emphasis or intonation may indeed be self-regulatory in nature, we have not focussed on them in this study because they did not seem to be characteristic of self-regulatory behaviour across all corpus texts.
Sample 6.23 I_10 41

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je crois qu'il y a encore parlements et au sein et chez les parlementaires - @ la conviction que le travail essentiel des parlementaire est de légiférer</td>
<td>I think that there is still - @ in parliaments - and in the heart of - and in parliamentarians - @ the conviction that the essential work of parliamentarians is to légiférer</td>
<td>nei parlamenti - credo - vi sia ancora @ - tra i parlamentari anche - la convinzione che il lavoro essenziale dei parlamentari è quello di légiférer</td>
<td>- in the parliaments - I think - there is (subj.) still @ - among the parliamentarians even - the conviction that the essential work of the parliamentarians is that of légiférer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are numerous cases that would seem to require the subjunctive mood in the Italian TT, as illustrated in Sample 6.24 ("una legge magari che possa risolvere" [a law perhaps that might (subj.) resolve], but where there is none. These, too, are not counted in our study, since our focus concerns non-obligatory modal shifts.

Sample 6.24 I_7 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a law that will be equal with concerning this @ difficulty</td>
<td>una legge magari che potrà risolvere queste difficoltà in materia di uguaglianza#</td>
<td>a law perhaps that will be able to resolve these difficulties in matters of equality#</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The University of Bologna (SSLMIT, Forli) organized a conference entitled *Attorno al congiuntivo* [Around the Subjunctive], the proceedings of which were published (Schena et al. 2002). The aim of the conference was to understand where the subjunctive was going, what its semantic and discursive values are, which of these values are vital and which are bound to disappear. The editors suggest that currently the subjunctive not only reflects a speaker’s attitude but has also divested itself of rigid psychological and ontological security. In other words, today the speaker is more sensitive to the array of linguistic choices available than to the constraints of binding rules. This leads him or her to embrace these choices on the one hand and to neglect the complexity of constraints on the other. In this sense the subjunctive mood represents rather a range of values that escapes categorization (op. cit.: 10-11). Assessing mood shifts from the indicative to the subjunctive thus required particular delicacy.

Ballardini (2002: 307) claims that studies concerning the use of the subjunctive in
simultaneous interpreting are practically non-existent, first of all because of the théorie du sens (Seleskovitch 1975) underlying the interpretative theoretical paradigm in Interpreting Studies, which dominated the discipline for almost two decades and which still influences the teaching of interpreting today. The theory propounds that the linguistic phenomena of the surface of a text (e.g. words) are not worthy of research, since it is rather the 'sense' that counts. Ballardini also states that study of the subjunctive is absent from research programmes because today only two of the subjunctive mood tenses (present and past) are used in spoken French. Our evaluation of shifts in terms of the subjunctive mood is based on an analysis of choices systematically made both within one subject's text and compared to other subjects' texts. For example, Samples 6.25 and 6.26 are taken from the same corpus ST and TT.

Sample 6.25 I₁₆ 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>là où ce n'était pas</td>
<td>there where it was</td>
<td>laddove non fosse</td>
<td>there where it was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@ possible de</td>
<td>not (a) possible to</td>
<td>possibile</td>
<td>(subj.) not possible to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l'appliquer dans</td>
<td>apply it in all its</td>
<td>applicarlo con</td>
<td>apply it with full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toute sa rigueur</td>
<td>rigour</td>
<td>pieno rigore</td>
<td>rigour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 6.25 illustrates a seemingly unmarked passage from French (imperfect indicative) to Italian (past subjunctive). In Sample 6.26 the ST explicitly voices doubt in French ("je ne suis pas sûr") and the subsequent ST subjunctive is countered with the same verb form in the TT.

Sample 6.26 I₁₆ 40

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mais je ne suis pas sûr que les</td>
<td>but I am not sure that</td>
<td>ma non sono certo che i parlamenti siano talmente</td>
<td>but I am not sure that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parlements~ se</td>
<td>the parlements~ have</td>
<td>rinnovati</td>
<td>the parliaments have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soient rénovés</td>
<td>renewed (subj.) themselves</td>
<td></td>
<td>(subj.) renewed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de façon suffisante</td>
<td>in a sufficient manner</td>
<td></td>
<td>themselves that much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practically all shifts from the indicative to the subjunctive mood in our corpus are unmarked ones. The only three cases of marked shifts, i.e. cases where other translation
options exist, are of little relevance in quantitative terms, since they are all found within one corpus text and may denote the interpreter's particular stylistic propensity.\textsuperscript{11}

Most of the shifts in modality found were boulonnaic in nature, which entail either lexical choice expressing desire, as illustrated in sample 6.27 (TT, "desidero"), or in a shift in mood, as illustrated in Sample 6.28 (TT, "vorrei").

**Sample 6.27 l, 24**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I greet you all with respect</td>
<td>desidero salutarvi</td>
<td>I desire to greet you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sample 6.28 l, 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to start by saying that</td>
<td>vorrei iniziare dicendo che</td>
<td>I would like to start by saying that</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-warranted shifts in mood, i.e. from the indicative to the conditional, and modality, illustrate a trend toward indirectness. This prevalent trend of [-direct] in our corpus assumes major relevance when examined globally alongside other linguistic features (personal reference, §6.1 and transitivity, §6.2), where an overall trend of the interpreter's detachment from and mitigation of the text emerges.

Since politeness strategies are carried out by way of response to some stimulus, as mentioned, we now examine interpreting moves from another perspective: interpreters'...

\textsuperscript{11} L, 8: "no one can deny that peace and security in the Mediterranean is inextricably linked to the European security!", vs. "nessuno può negare che la pace e la sicurezza nel Mediterraneo siano due elementi (indissolubilmente legati alla sicurezza europea) [no one can deny that peace and security in the Mediterranean are two elements (indissolubly linked to European security)];

L, 18: "such a nucleus of women parliamentarians should also exert pressure on their respective governments in order to fulfill their obligations emanating from the Barcelona declaration!", vs. "questo gruppo di donne parlamentari dovrebbe anche esercitare le dovute pressioni sui rispettivi governi affinché questi adempiano alle … obblighi (che) provengono dalla dichiarazione di Barcellona" [this group of women parliamentarians should also exercise the due pressures on the respective governments so that these might (sub.) fulfill the … obligations (that) come forth from the declaration of Barcelona];

L, 25: "for women parliamentarians to be effective- they should— increase in numbers as much as possible!", vs. "perché le donne europarlle le donne (parlamentari) possano essere veramente efficaci è importante che siano sempre più e numerosi!" [so that the women Europarlle the women (parlamentari) can (subj.) be truly effective- it is important that they are (subj.) always more numerous!].
response to potential threats to face (§6.3.2), analyzing how categories of stance and voice impact on face-work. We examine the textural encoding of threats in four prominent features that emerge in our data: omissions (§6.3.2.1), additions (§6.3.2.2), weakeners (§6.3.2.3), and strengtheners (§6.3.2.4). Although other linguistic features typically show evidence of interactional politeness, those mentioned are most prevalent in all corpus texts. Our findings confirm an overall trend of mitigation, as witnessed in interpreters' evasiveness, off-record strategy of tentativeness, vagueness and ambiguity, and the use of hedging as a redressive, negative politeness strategy.

6.3.2 Threats to face

In this section we consider threats to face in relation to the self and to the other (see Table 3.1). In Chapter 3 we provided a sociolinguistic perspective within which to analyse simultaneous interpreting and in Section 3.1.2 we discussed Goffman's essay on the lecture (1981: 162-195). There we mentioned the self-referential quality of this type of talk and how it is possible to witness multiple shifts in footing within this speech event. In this sense text brackets, the opening, or introductory, and closing remarks that frame a talk, are moments when ST and TT speakers most need to adjust to their audiences and their text. Source text speakers are expected to address the occasion and are usually preceded by someone who introduces them in some way. Interpreters begin their performance at these crucial turn-taking moments and indeed all our corpus texts were recorded at the beginning of a new turn, as explained in §5.2.2.

Topical statements are typically made in text brackets and act as contextualizing devices geared to an audience's expectations. This implies that interpreters, too, expect openings and closings within the structure of a ST and also expect forthcoming information to be relevant to the occasion. Text brackets also represent moments in talk where threats are negotiated. Interpreters omit, add, weaken, and strengthen them as they themselves adjust to their role. Their behaviour at the juncture of text bracketing offers cues concerning the nature of their face-work throughout the talk. For example, it is common in our data to find cases where both openings and closings are abbreviated or even omitted in the TT. In particular, we begin to see the first signs of a wide trend in our data, mitigated illocutionary force, as shown in Sample 6.29.

The interpreter collapses an apology and thanks in Sample 6.29, doing away with reference both to the Chair and conference participants. As discussed in §6.1, the
omission of personal reference creates [+distance]. The interpreter also embeds her thanks and uses a conditional verb form, compared to the indicative in the ST. As mentioned in §6.3.1, shifts such as these create indirectness [-direct]. Even though the interpreter hedges knowledge of the English language, as the ST speaker does ("it's not so good", and "non parlo molto bene" [I do not speak very well]), she also adds a hedge to the speaker's state of health ("in più sono anche un po' ammalata" [and I'm also a bit ill], where there is none in the ST. We begin to see how the interpreter adjusts to her role, or self-regulates, and makes use of the two most prominent strategies found in our data (distancing and indirectness).

Sample 6.29 I, 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- OK thank you @ I @ madame chairman and @: all the participant~</td>
<td>- vorrei ringraziare ma anche scusarmi per il mio inglese perché non parlo molto bene~</td>
<td>- I would like to thank but also excuse myself for my English because I do not speak very well~</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I want to apologize for my English it's not that good~</td>
<td>- in più sono anche un po' ammalata#</td>
<td>- moreover I am also a bit ill#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- and I'm sick so~</td>
<td>- quindi cercherò di fare del mio meglio date le circostanze#</td>
<td>- so I will try to do my best given the circumstances#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I'll try to do my best in the circumstances#</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this section we discuss how interpreters deal with threats to face by classifying these moves into four categories, all of which are found in all corpus texts: omissions (§6.3.2.1), additions (§6.3.2.2), weakening (§6.3.2.3) and strengthening (§6.3.2.4). They appear in this section in order of decreasing importance, quantitatively speaking. By adding and omitting, interpreters were found both to mitigate and strengthen illocutionary force in the TT, with a predominant trend of mitigation. Weakeners in the TT had the sole effect of weakening illocutionary force, whereas strengtheners strengthened TT illocutionary force. Out of a total of 164 shifts in these categories, 57% had the effect of mitigating illocutionary force. As we have stated in §5.3, we have compiled figures of the translational shifts in our data so as to understand the magnitude of these trends in order to weigh the importance of certain shifts compared to others. We have also explained that shifts found in the categories of stance and voice are part of the particular face-work that emerges in texts which, in itself, is not countable. However, our quantitative assessment of phenomena relating to threats to face is based on those elements that lend themselves to such an assessment (omissions, additions, weakeners,
strengtheners). When put into the context of other trends, the quantitative significance
of data relating to this section takes on major importance, considering the cumulative
effect of our findings. All corpus texts display an overriding trend of mitigated
illocutionary force, with no exception. Therefore, in this sense, even if only 30% of all
shifts in this section showed signs of mitigation of illocutionary force it would be of
significance. These findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

We discuss these trends and their relevance to face-work in detail in the following
sections.

6.3.2.1 Omissions

In this section we distinguish the phenomenon of omissions - characteristic of
simultaneous interpreting - that imply the negotiation of face threatening acts, and we
seek to understand the effect they have in terms of interactional politeness. The
omissions found in our data are of two types: omissions relating to ST politeness
strategies and omissions relating to potential threats. Out of a total of 67 omissions, 38
(57%) were found to either weaken or omit a ST threat, or omit a ST politeness strategy.
We here illustrate this trend through examples from our corpus.

Sample 6.30 illustrates a text sequence where threats to the positive face of persons
addressed in the ST are omitted in the TT. These are typically acts that raise
controversial or strongly emotional issues. The corpus text from which we extract the
sequence has been used at various points throughout our study to exemplify phenomena.
The text lends itself for this purpose primarily because the ST speaker defies
expectations in that, instead of drawing to a close, she introduces a new topic by
speaking out for the abuse of Chechen women. Reference to 'rape' in Sample 6.30,
mentioned three times in the ST, constitutes a bald-on-record claim. We argue that this
type of avoidance, or omission, on the part of the interpreter, makes for mitigated
illocutionary force in the TT and illustrates a self-regulatory move to protect or
minimize the imposition on the TT receiver's face. Further, the numerous omissions of
entire stretches of ST talk involving the Chair who calls on the next speaker to take the
floor also indicate the interpreter's detachment from the ST talk.

We have mentioned that the two categories already examined (§6.1, stance and §6.2,
voice) have a specific role to play in the overall strategy speakers use in their
communicative interaction and they are to be taken into consideration when assessing an interpreter's face-work in a TT. In Sample 6.30 the interpreter does convey the ST speaker's invitation to the audience to condemn the acts she mentions ("we condemn ... and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation"), but the interpreter does so avoiding agency ("in questa vibrata condanna" [in this vibrated condemnation]). This invitation may be considered an appeal to the audience's positive face, in the sense of seeking cooperation or agreement (see table 3.2, p. 60), and this appeal is indeed carried over to a TT audience.

**Sample 6.30 I, 23**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the women are the prime targets of this massacre and rape</td>
<td>le donne sono il principale obbiettivo di questa azione di violenza</td>
<td>the women are the principle objective of this action of violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rape is used as a tool of genocide</td>
<td>violenza</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argument no I am sorry I am sorry Madame</td>
<td>la presidente richiama all'argomento al tema la delegata &lt;end lower voice&gt;</td>
<td>recalling to the argu to the theme the delegate &lt;end lower voice&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the women are raped and killed</td>
<td>e vorrei che tutte voi vi uniste a me in questa vibrata condanna delle del massacro delle donne cecene</td>
<td>and I would like that all of you unite with me in this vibrated condemnation of the of the Chechen women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our friend from Finland</td>
<td>ma amici finlandesi</td>
<td>our friend, from Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
<td>mi unite con me in questa vibrata condanna delle del massacro delle donne cecene</td>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madame</td>
<td>la presidente richiama all'argomento al tema la delegata &lt;end lower voice&gt;</td>
<td>Madame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argument no I am sorry I am sorry</td>
<td>la presidente richiama all'argomento al tema la delegata &lt;end lower voice&gt;</td>
<td>Madame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our friend from Finland</td>
<td>ma amici finlandesi</td>
<td>our friend, from Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
<td>mi unite con me in questa vibrata condanna delle del massacro delle donne cecene</td>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our friend from Finland</td>
<td>ma amici finlandesi</td>
<td>our friend, from Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
<td>mi unite con me in questa vibrata condanna delle del massacro delle donne cecene</td>
<td>and invite all of you to join me in this strong condemnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am sorry sorry Madame no it is enough sorry</td>
<td>mi dispiace mi dispiace Ma no è sufficiente</td>
<td>I am sorry sorry Madame no it is enough sorry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last it is important</td>
<td>ma no è sufficiente</td>
<td>last it is important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our friend from Finland please</td>
<td>ma amici finlandesi</td>
<td>our friend, from Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please Finland</td>
<td>ma amici finlandesi</td>
<td>please Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>men at every section of society</td>
<td>ma in tutti i settori della vita</td>
<td>men at every section of society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for real equality</td>
<td>non soltanto in politica</td>
<td>for real equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and not only in politics but in all areas</td>
<td>ma in tutti i settori della vita</td>
<td>and not only in politics but in all areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and that this reproduction</td>
<td>ma in tutti i settori della vita</td>
<td>and that this reproduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this is not our subject</td>
<td>ma in tutti i settori della vita</td>
<td>this is not our subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>+++</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, avoidance of agency in the TT points to a [-direct] trend, and hence we find an overall tendency toward depersonalisation, detachment and indirectness, as emerges in all corpus texts.

Sample 6.31, on the other hand, illustrates the omission of a negative politeness strategy, an apology. Once again the TT thus presents itself as being less polite in interactional terms.
Sample 6.31 1s 32

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>scusate guardo l'ora perché non vorrei</td>
<td>excuse me I'm looking at my watch because I wouldn't want to</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the framework of the Euromediterranean Forum of Women Parliamentarians, the ST in Sample 6.32 fulfills the hearer's want for cooperation (positive politeness strategy) and face redress. By avoiding such a strategy, the TT assumes a completely different discoursal perspective.

Sample 6.32 1s 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c'est une vérité douleureuse</td>
<td>it is a painful truth</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mais nous vous la devons</td>
<td>but we owe it to you</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of her talk, the ST speaker in Sample 6.33 levels an act threatening the negative face of listeners by making a request that any future conference organized "be issue-based", implicitly suggesting the current conference is not. This, too, is mitigated through avoidance.

Sample 6.33 1s 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and then let this conference be issue-based</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 6.34 1r 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sorry I I forget one slide (@)</td>
<td>ho messo due due diapositive</td>
<td>I put two two slides in the (masculine) in the (feminine) wrong order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact I put two slides in the wrong order</td>
<td>nello nella ordine sbagliato</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so excuse me one moment</td>
<td>quindi vogliate scusarvi &lt;papers rustling&gt;</td>
<td>so excuse (subj.) me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ah &lt;laugh&gt; it's in Italian of course</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oh well</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Even the omission of what seems to be an aside in Sample 6.34 ("ah <laugh> it's in Italian of course") has the effect of avoiding the positive politeness strategy of claiming common ground.

By far, however, the most obvious mitigation of illocutionary force is realized through the omission of value-laden words. As mentioned (§5.2), seven out of the ten texts comprising our corpus were taken from the Euromediterranean Forum of Women Parliamentarians. Samples 6.35-6.39 are extracted from these texts and represent just a partial list of cases where this phenomenon occurs.

The first three samples (6.35-6.37) belong to one corpus text (I). In Samples 6.35 and 6.36 the same value-laden expression appears in the ST ("and it will give us the power") and is omitted by the interpreter in both these text sequences. The omission of these value-laden expressions illustrates the negative politeness strategy of minimizing the imposition on the TT receiver's face and undoubtedly mitigates the illocutionary force of the TT.

**Sample 6.35 I, 28**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>we are trying hard~</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and it will give us the power#</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference to another potentially threatening lexical item ('fight') is again omitted by the same interpreter in a successive sequence, just before the closing brackets of her talk.

**Sample 6.36 I, 30**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and it will give us the power~</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two text sequences (Samples 6.35 and 6.36) that exclude 'power' in the TT occur at a point where overlapping speech may have further constrained the working conditions for the interpreter, who may not have actually heard these elements. However, the sequence in Sample 6.37 is uttered at a point where no overlapping speech occurs.
Sample 6.37 17, 35

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| to come back home and fight for it—as women | +++

Further analysis brought to light the systematic omission of these potentially threatening lexical items, as illustrated in Samples 6.38 and 6.39. Sample 6.38 illustrates how linguistic phenomena analysed in this study, alongside the omission of face-threatening lexis, concur to create the mitigation of illocutionary force.

The TT omits reference to the potentially threatening ST "become a force" and "demands". Also, the ST inclusive "our actions" is omitted in the TT where the subject, women, is referred to at a distance as "they". The TT thus results as being mitigated and impersonal.

Sample 6.38 16, 30

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it is only when women—parliamentarians become a force—</td>
<td>sarà solamente nel momento in cui le donne parlamentari/ @ decideranno/</td>
<td>it will be only when women parliamentarians/ @ will decide/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not to be ignored—</td>
<td>in maniera concreta/</td>
<td>in a concrete manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that our actions— and other demands— will be taken seriously</td>
<td>di non essere ignorate—</td>
<td>not to be ignored—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>che effettivamente verranno presa sul serio/</td>
<td>that effectively they will be taken seriously/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interpreter opts for an ambiguous solution in Sample 6.39, in relation to a place "where we have to fight".

Sample 6.39 1, 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>by the national parliaments</td>
<td>deve essere seguita in parlamento</td>
<td>it must be followed in parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because that's where we have to fight</td>
<td>che è il luogo preposto</td>
<td>that is the suitable place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that's where we have to work</td>
<td>appunto</td>
<td>precisely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a queste funzioni</td>
<td>for these functions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Sample 6.39 the inclusion in the TT of agentless elements ("it must be followed in parliament", "that is the suitable place") lends to an overall trend of detachment with respect to women's role and function in the institution and thus reduces the face threat involved in calls to action.

6.3.2.2 Additions

In this section we examine additions in the TT, in order to understand the extent to which these effect interactional politeness. Like omissions, additions found in our data are of two types: additions of politeness strategies to head off potential threats and additions of potentially threatening language. Out of a total of 53 additions, 28 (53%) were found that constituted face redress or mitigated a ST threat. These types of additions to the ST on the whole serve as positive politeness strategies to claim common ground. A telling example of mitigation in this sense is illustrated in Sample 6.40. Women being "agents of the atheist West" is presented as a given in the ST, whereas the addition of "who are seen as" in the TT reverses this perspective and explicitly detaches the utterer (interpreter) from commitment to what the ST presupposes. This is part of a general trend, especially where claims are highly face-threatening.

Sample 6.40 I, 27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>contre les femmes</td>
<td>against the women</td>
<td>contro le donne che</td>
<td>against the women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agents de l'occident</td>
<td>agents of the atheist</td>
<td>vengono viste come</td>
<td>who are seen as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atheé</td>
<td>West</td>
<td>agenti dell'occidente</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ateo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a minority of cases in our corpus additions seem to create threats, as illustrated in Samples 6.41 and 6.42. Both samples are extracted from the same corpus text. The ST speaker is an Israeli MP addressing an audience of women parliamentarians. In these sequences she more precisely addresses a Palestinian MP who had taken the floor previously. In Sample 6.41 the speaker uses a negative politeness strategy by being indirect ("it was, well I cannot say it was a mistake"). Despite the use of modals in the TT ("according to me", "we should ignore"), the addition of "that divide" first in sequence 3 (Sample 6.41) then again in sequence 10 (Sample 6.42) explicitly reminds listeners (Palestinian MP, addressee, and wider audience, ratified overhearers) of a
political distinction between the two countries, and thus represents an act threatening positive face (e.g. raising strong emotional issues).

It must be pointed out that in Sample 6.41 the ST is incomplete ("ignore (at) the political matters that (at) between our countries") and most likely the interpreter is responding here to contextual constraints and attempts to foster textual cohesion.

Sample 6.41 17, 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>that's why I think it was~</td>
<td>ecco perché ... secondo me dovremmo ignorare le questioni politiche ... che ... dividono~</td>
<td>this is why ... according to me we should ignore the political issues ... that ... divide~</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well I cannot say it was a mistake~</td>
<td>o comunque che esistono tra i nostri paesi~</td>
<td>or in any case that exist between our countries~</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but I think that (at) we should ignore (at) the political matters that (at) between our countries that will be discussed in other (at) circumstantial circumstances~</td>
<td>che verranno dibattute in altre circostanze#</td>
<td>that will be debated in other circumstances#</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample 6.42 17, 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and not the things that (at) are political matters/</td>
<td>c non le questioni politiche</td>
<td>and not the political issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>che dividono</td>
<td>that divide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is interesting to note, however, that the interpreter (Sample 6.41) nonetheless is given to mitigation ("or in any case that exist between our countries").

6.3.2.3 Weakening

In the 28 cases where the language in the TT had a weakening effect with regard to the ST, there are two, essential, ways in which the illocutionary force of source texts is weakened: the modification of a strengthening hedge into a weakening one (Sample 6.43); the minimization of a threat or imposition through the use of some form of weakening hedge (Sample 6.44).

In Sample 6.43 the ST includes two strengthening hedges "davvero" [really] and "veramente" [truly]. The illocutionary force is firstly weakened by the elimination of the
repetition of these hedges and secondly by turning the strengthener into the weakener "actually" in the TT.

Sample 6.43 I₄ 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i nostri deputati i ministri</td>
<td>our representatives our ministers</td>
<td>our Euro members of parliament and our ministers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>davvero non ci seguono</td>
<td>really do not follow us</td>
<td>don't actually listen to what we ask them to do in this respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>veramente ci battiamo contro mulini a vento</td>
<td>we are truly battling against windmills</td>
<td>they continue to read texts at breakneck speed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Speaking of the need to enhance efforts to promote the presence of women in political institutions, the ST speaker in Sample 6.44 agrees with a suggestion made to avoid the creation of added institutions (i.e. no other fora), in which case women would "do exactly what we must not do", implying that current efforts have not responded effectively to their goals. This statement represents a threat to others' negative face (e.g. reminder or warning). The TT, on the other hand, uses a negative politeness hedge ("I could not be more in agreement") to support the suggestion previously made, thus eliminating the threat to face.

Sample 6.44 I₃ 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and one of my Italian colleagues was just talking about no new institutions</td>
<td>una collega italiana</td>
<td>an Italian colleague</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no new democracies</td>
<td>appunto</td>
<td>precisely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and I very very much agree with that</td>
<td>ha fatto riferimento alla necessità</td>
<td>referred to the need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because then we do exactly what we must not do</td>
<td>che non ci siano nuove istituzioni</td>
<td>that there not be (subjunctive) new institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appesantimenti</td>
<td>added weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>non potrei essere più d'accordo</td>
<td>I could not be more in agreement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last example chosen to illustrate the weakening of threats (Sample 6.45) includes an instance of the first of the two types mentioned above, i.e. the modification of a strengthening hedge into a weakening one.
In Sample 6.45 the ST speaker addresses an audience of students, professional interpreters and professors of interpreting. We have also previously mentioned the fact that the interpreter in this instance is a professor of interpreting at the university where the conference is being held. The topic is the nature of interpreting at the European Parliament. The ST speaker emphasizes the burden of travelling for staff interpreters (they travel "very very much ... too much ... they are all tired") that, on the other hand, often represents the motivating factor for many students first approaching the study of interpreting. However, the first element in the TT contains three weakening hedges ("tend to ... rather too much ... rather tired") which all concur to mitigate the overall force of the ST.

But what is the effect of adding the last two elements ("they do no longer want to travel ... they want to be able to unpack their bags and @ stop travelling"), and why - considering the temporal constraints of working in the simultaneous mode - does the interpreter go so far as to add these statements? They may have the effect of attempting to claim common ground by seeking agreement on the part of the audience, composed for the most part of students, and this of course is quite the opposite effect of the ST. We deal with the analysis of moves made to strengthen illocutionary force in terms of threats to face in the following section.

### 6.3.2.4 Strengthening

In our data there are 16 cases where the illocutionary force is strengthened, generally by the removal of a modal operator. For example the removal of a hedge in Sample 6.46 ("just") strengthens a potential threat to face.
There is one case where a modal operator is modified completely (Sample 6.47). The ST mention of "selon certains" [according to some] is one way for the speaker to be indirect and as such is a negative politeness strategy. The TT use of "certo" [certainly], on the other hand, creates an other-threatening act to negative face (e.g. remindings, threats, warnings, dares).

### Sample 6.47 I, 33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>les divergences se sont manifestées sur l'aspect juridique qui</td>
<td>the divergences emerged on the juridical aspect that</td>
<td>e sugli aspetti giuridici che non devono certo intaccare i precetti dell'islam</td>
<td>and on the juridical aspects that certainly must not touch the precepts of Islam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selon certains</td>
<td>according to some people</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne doivent pas toucher les prescriptions del l'Islam</td>
<td>must not touch the precepts of Islam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
spatial and temporal deixis, since deictic shifts in space and time were prominent in all corpus texts. The analysis of these two linguistic phenomena were subsequently eliminated from this study due to problems concerning both the assessment of these shifts and their relevance to the overall emerging trends of self-regulatory moves in our data. The difficulties that arose in the analysis of these phenomena are discussed in the following two sections.

6.4.1 Spatial stance

This section deals with problems related to the analysis of spatial deixis. We divided the categories of spatial stance into physical (§6.4.1.1) and textual (§6.4.1.2) space. The latter category reflects what is normally defined as discourse deictics, i.e. textual referents that indicate points in textual space.

6.4.1.1 Physical space

Our assessment of physical spatial stance initially distinguished between positional and dimensional shifts found in our data. For example, in Sample 6.48 below, ST "come back home" implies a centre of focus coinciding with the speaker. However, the meaning potential of "tornare a casa" may extend either to cases referring to the speaker as centre of focus (‘positional’, the speaker refers to his or her coming home) or to cases referring to third parties (‘dimensional’, other persons’ going home). Since a determiner is usually added in the Italian language to specify centre of focus (e.g. 'tornare a casa mia' [return to my home]; 'tornare a casa sua' [return to his/her home]), the lack of one in TT of Sample 6.48 creates an indeterminate centre of focus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample 6.48 1,2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and @ that we can @ come back home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cases of this kind were problematic to assess, since it could be argued that the meaning potential in Italian, in practice, does not allow for the specification of these kinds of spatial indicators.
In terms of physical spatial stance we also initially argued that in simultaneous interpreting conditions do not hold that would normally hold between two or more parties communicating face-to-face, even if a mutual physical context frames the event. Regarding spatial reference, when a speaker refers to an entity it is not always the case that the interpreter shares the same visual field of perception as the speaker, since the simultaneous mode of operation may constrain an interpreter's visual field. Even in the event the interpreter shares the visual field of perception, referents are perceived from different angles of vision. Indeed most of the time (such as in the projection of slides or transparencies) referents are rotated one hundred and eighty degrees for each viewer, in relation to what the other is looking at, as illustrated in Sample 6.49.

Sample 6.49 12 45

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to explain the interface</td>
<td>voglio spiegarvi l'interfaccia</td>
<td>I want to explain to you the interface here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that's very important</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this is part of the work that I do</td>
<td>fa parte del lavoro @ che io faccio</td>
<td>It is part of the work @ that I do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my personally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@ here's the work on the right hand</td>
<td>questo è il lavoro che si fa a sinistra destra</td>
<td>this is the work that is done to the left to the right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>side</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ST speaker points to a transparency indicating "on the right side". The interpreter, who sees the referent on her left, says "to the left", then self-corrects and says "to the right", thus assuming as orientation the ST speaker as origo and unwittingly misregulating, since TT listeners are also positioned facing the speaker and indeed see what is indicated as positioned to their left. Though interesting cases of shifts in physical space were found across all corpus texts, we decided to eliminate the category from our overall analysis since findings proved to be non-conclusive in terms of illuminating us on self-regulatory moves aimed at the preservation of face.

6.4.1.2 Textual space

Shifts involving anaphoric referents were widely distributed across the corpus. In one corpus text, for example, the ST speaker makes use of reiteration as a cohesive device. When speaking of European institutions, he carries over the rheme of the last element of one textual sequence and places it in the theme position of the element in the subsequent textual sequence. This strategy is followed throughout the ST. The interpreter initially
employs the same cohesive device but then (Sample 6.50) uses distal and proximal adverbial anaphora to indicate the same referents (in bold).

**Sample 6.50 I, 25-26**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| - et faisant @ attention 
- également 
- à l'application de ce principe au niveau européen | - and being @ careful 
- equally 
- to the application of this principle at the European level | - bisogna anche stare attenti 
al'applicazione di questi di questo principio a livello europeo | - it is necessary to be careful to the application of these of this principle at a European level |
| - au niveau européen/ 
- nous avons eu aussi cette propension à penser que nous sommes tous des européens et que 
- par conséquent 
- nous avons à être d'accord @ sur l'essentiel 
- à trouver des compromis 
- des compromis qui sont d'ailleurs souvent extrêmement @ sophistiqués et complexes 
- et cela nous amène aux problèmes de la complexité de la législation/ | - at the European level/ 
- we have had also this propensity to think that we are all Europeans and that 
- consequently we have to be in agreement @ on the essential 
- to find some compromises 
- some compromises that are anyway often extremely @ sophisticated and complex 
- and that takes us to the problems of the complexity of the legislation/ | - li 
- anche li 
- c'è stata questa propensione a pensare che siamo tutti europei/ 
- quindi 
- dobbiamo essere d'accordo sull'essenziale/ 
- bisogna trovare dei compromessi/ 
- compromessi che poi spesso sono sofisticati 
- sofisticatissimi e complessi 
- il che ci porta ai problema della complessità della legislazione# | - there 
- there too 
- there was this propensity to think that we are all Europeans/ 
- therefore 
- we must be in agreement on the essential/ 
- it is necessary to find compromises/ 
- compromises that then often are sophisti very sophisticated and complex 
- which takes us to the problem of the complexity of the legislation# |

The interpreter employs a distal anaphoric referent ("there", "there too") in the beginning of sequence 26. Further on in the text after the two sequences included in Sample 6.50, he again chooses to use a distal anaphoric referent in sequence 36 ("that"), but then opts for a proximal anaphoric referent in sequence 43 ("this"). Immediately thereafter, in text sequence 44, the interpreter once again opts for a proximal anaphoric referent ("this").

In Sample 6.50 the ST speaker relates to referents in a dimensional system of reference, which directly relates one object to another independently of any speaker (see Brown 1995: 109-111). We assessed these moves on the part of the interpreter as bringing the attentional focus of spatial stance to coincide with him as origo. We thus initially attempted to argue that the use of spatial stance in this manner typically involves reclaiming 'control' of the text, distinguishing the interpreter's autonomy in relation to the ST, and as such is an example of self-regulation.

However, here too, we decided to eliminate this category from our analysis because of the problematic assessment of textual referents such as 'it' in English. The numerous
shifts found in this category - although interesting as a phenomenon in itself - did not enhance our argument of self-regulatory moves made to save face in terms of our characterization of participation framework and FTAs (see Fig. 7.1). Similar problems were encountered with the analysis of temporal stance, which are discussed in the following section.

6.4.2 Temporal stance

Since time is commonly taken to be one-dimensional and unidirectional, the relationship between what remains the same at different times and the time dimension itself is frequently perceived as movement. In the movement metaphor there seem to be two different temporal points of view: one where time is regarded as stable and the surrounding 'world' as being in motion; one where this world is taken as stable and time is thought of as being in motion (Fillmore 1997: 45). Due to this metaphor, temporal phenomena are often referred to as having a positional nature with characteristics of more or less priority.

Another characteristic of temporal phenomena is reference to their duration. Sample 6.51 illustrates reference in the ST to a durative process ("but increasingly ... we've been trying to look at"), whereas the TT speaker describes a completive process ("in the last five years we have tried to consider"). These processes need to be considered within each individual text as a systemic whole in order to determine whether these verb forms coherently relate to a speaker's overall discourse plan. In the case of simultaneous interpreting, where choices are constrained both by working conditions and target language form and function, it is presumed that textural clues play a prominent role in guiding these choices (Hatim and Mason 1997: 61-77).

Sample 6.51 I; 29

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>but increasingly</td>
<td>negli ultimi cinque anni</td>
<td>in the last five years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for the last five years</td>
<td>abbiamo cercato di considerare soluzioni tecnologiche</td>
<td>we have tried to consider technological solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we've been trying to look at technological solutions</td>
<td>per migliorare i legami fra i bambini e gli insegnanti</td>
<td>to improve the links between the students and the teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to improve links between the children and their teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

144
In the Italian language additional meaning needs to be specified in order to communicate the ST durative process. In other words, had the TT speaker in Sample 6.51 said 'abbiamo cercato, e tuttora cerchiamo, di considerare soluzioni tecnologiche' [we have tried, and are still trying, to consider technological solutions], the process would have indeed been a durative one. The TT perspective, a completive process, makes it possible, however, for the interpreter to apply a self-regulatory move and hedge her bets for what may lie ahead in the ST. Commitment to a durative process straight away would have made it difficult to self-correct at a later time, in the event the ST speaker were to say 'we've been trying to look at technological solutions to improve the links between the students and the teachers but have now decided to opt for a different solution'. Despite the rationale behind interpreters' moves in cases like this, it could still be argued that choices made in the TT are motivated more by language conventions than self-regulatory moves as such.

Nonetheless, in order to distinguish what constituted a temporal shift in interpretation we also sought cases in our corpus where subjects opted for solutions that did not represent shifts. The shift in verb form illustrated in Sample 6.51 is a non-obligatory one since, just at the very beginning of this corpus text (Sample 6.52), the same interpreter indeed opted for a verbal expression that indicates a durative process.

**Sample 6.52 I, 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>@ can I start by saying @</td>
<td>posso iniziare col dire</td>
<td>I can start with the saying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the majority of temporal shifts displayed a [+distance] stance, this category was eliminated from our assessment of this study's main findings (discussed in §8.3) primarily due to the difficulty in distinguishing between the use of verbal tenses that are unmarked and those that are marked.

**6.5 Concluding remarks**

We began this chapter by characterizing the interpreter-mediated event as face-threatening. In figure 6.1 we illustrated the various communicating parties in the external and extra-situational contexts that constrain the internal context, thus influencing interactional linguistic politeness.
We have analysed corpus texts in terms of how interpreters self-regulate during the negotiation of source texts. We examined the over-arching trends prevalent in our data: distance altering alignments and directness/indirectness. For this we have looked at personal reference (§6.1), patterns of transitivity and the attribution of agency (§6.2), mood and modality (§6.3.1) and the interpreter's behaviour in relation to threats to face (§6.3.2). We also discussed non-conclusive findings relating to our initial selection of relevant linguistic phenomena that were subsequently eliminated from our assessment in this study (§6.4).

Table 6.4 lists the quantitative findings of translational shifts in the categories of personal reference (stance), transitivity and agency (voice), mood and modality (mod). These categories show a majority of [+distance] (stance) and [-direct] (voice and mod) moves in our data. Although the overall number of shifts are illustrative of this trend, it is interesting to note that subjects I₈ and I₉ behave differently: both make a majority of [-distance] moves in the category of stance; I₈ also makes a majority of [+direct] moves in the category of voice.

Table 6.4 Quantitative findings of translational shifts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subj.</th>
<th>stance</th>
<th>voice</th>
<th>mod</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ dis</td>
<td>- dis</td>
<td>+ dir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₁</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₂</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₃</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₄</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₅</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₆</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₇</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₈</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₉</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I₁₀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comb</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trend</td>
<td>+ dis</td>
<td>- dis</td>
<td>+ dir</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We have stressed throughout our analysis that the phenomena examined above all impinge upon the nature of a speaker's face-work. Table 6.5 lists findings relative to interactional linguistic face-work. There are a total of 164 moves made, of which 41% concern omissions, 32% additions, 17% weakeners and 10% strengtheners. Aside from weakeners and strengtheners that weaken and strengthen illocutionary force respectively, 57% of omissions and 53% of additions mitigate illocutionary force.

Table 6.5 Interactional linguistic face-work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>total moves</th>
<th>omissions</th>
<th>additions</th>
<th>weakeners</th>
<th>strengtheners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>164</td>
<td>38-/29+</td>
<td>28-/25+</td>
<td>28-</td>
<td>16+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>breakdown %</td>
<td>57%-/43%+</td>
<td>53%-/47%+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall %</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings confirm the trend of distancing and indirectness found in table 6.4. As mentioned, when put into the context of other trends, the quantitative significance of data relating to interactional linguistic face-work take on major importance, considering the cumulative effect of our findings. A detailed description of how these phenomena (tables 6.4 and 6.5) were counted is offered in §5.3 (Reliability and validity). The significance of our findings, in terms of self-regulation, is discussed in Chapter 7.
This chapter discusses the analytical profile (§7.1) that emerges in this study's findings. We first assess the role dimensions (§7.1.1) interpreters distinguish through their self-regulatory behaviour (§7.1.1.1, §7.1.1.2) and in which they operate (§7.1.1.3). In these sections we draw on constructs introduced in Chapter 2 such as the network of relations in a systemic unity, structural openness and autonomy. We discuss the participation framework in these dimensions (§7.1.1.4) and propose a model illustrating a spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour (Fig. 7.2). Through interpreters' moves we examine how they position themselves in relation to an event mediated by simultaneous interpreting (§7.1.2). The language of interpreting is also discussed in order to analyse what it tells us of the particular face-work that is characteristic of this mode of interpreting (§7.1.3). An explanatory hypothesis is put forth (§7.2) based on our theoretical perspective discussed in Chapter 2. Finally, we examine our subjects' operational awareness (§7.3) by analyzing their reactions to questions asked during debriefing sessions concerning our findings (§7.3.1, §7.3.2). This is meant to complement our data and gain further insight into trends that have emerged.

7.1 Analytical profile

The most significant finding that emerges from this study is that all subjects - with no exception - use some expedient to distance themselves from, avoid, or mitigate ST speakers' threats to receivers. Also, considering that the activity of simultaneous interpreting is inherently face-threatening, as discussed in Chapter 6, since temporal constraints potentially undermine performances, interpreters react to what they feel might jeopardize their professional face. Further, we argue that the mitigation of a ST
speaker's threat to receivers also has the effect of protecting the ST speaker's face, since it attenuates any FTAs, thus avoiding the speaker appearing face-threatening to text receivers.

The dynamics of this face-work are illustrated in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 7.1 Participation framework and FTAs**

Curved arrows in Figure 7.1 represent communication that is mediated by the interpreter for a TT audience; straight arrows represent communication involving potential threats to the interpreter's face (A to I), consequent threats made to TT receivers (I to D), and FTAs made from ST speakers to ST receivers (A to B). Figure 7.1 also includes a curved, broken arrow (I to D) that signals a mitigated, mediated message, representing interpreters' reactions to perceived threats to ST receivers. In this last case, however, the interpreter's output is aimed solely at TT receivers.

Trends and face-work presented in Chapter 6 illustrate that detachment from FTAs and an interpreter's mitigation of illocutionary force are effected to varying degrees and realized through different means, as seen in §6.3.2.1, §6.3.2.2 and §6.3.2.3. Within the framework of a mediated event interpreters react to two, different perceived threats: one to ST receivers and one to interpreters themselves. Face-saving strategies are carried out
both when the interpreter moves to preserve his or her own face and when the interpreter seeks to weaken a ST imposition on a receiver's face. In this sense the interpreter arguably acts to preserve both the ST speaker's and the TT receiver's face.

We now discuss our findings in detail by addressing both the external context in interpreting (interaction constraining social life or the embodiment of power), and its internal context (where we understand the type of occasion or interaction that participants, through their actions, create). Text segments from our corpus are drawn upon and we examine these contexts to discern the role dimensions in which interpreters enact their self-regulatory behaviour (§7.1.1), their positioning vis-à-vis the source text (§7.1.2) and the interactional linguistic phenomena that characterize this position (§7.1.3).

7.1.1 Role dimensions as distinguished by self-regulatory behaviour

In our analysis of personal deixis we have found that 64% of all shifts display a trend of de-personalisation and [+distance]. These distance-altering alignments distinguish personal reference in the TT from that in the ST. However, in as much as these shifts in footing create internal context (interpreters create context through their actions), they alone tell us little about matters concerning external context, e.g. interaction constraining social life or the embodiment of power. Therefore, in order to distinguish emerging role dimensions in which interpreters enact behaviour in events mediated by simultaneous interpreting, we also consider aspects of the external context such as the setting, behaviour, genres, implicatures, etc. (Fig. 3.1, p. 41). Our analysis highlights self-referential signals in text segments to outline two, seemingly distinct broad role dimensions in which interpreters' behaviour is enacted: a professional dimension (§7.1.1.1) and a personal one (§7.1.1.2). The distinction of these two dimensions is based on our perspective that self-referentiality, underlying the construct of self-regulation, implies perception and cognition as specifying a reality and, as claimed in §2.1, when extended to interpreting, cognition is identified with the process of interpreting. This justifies an analysis of the process as witnessed in the language of interpreting, which is cognitive-linguistic in nature and resides in an essentially social domain. The two dimensions specified, however, are by no means mutually exclusive, first and foremost since the behaviour described is situated in a professional environment and this alone would make it questionable as to whether it would be
appropriate to describe an interpreter's behaviour as being enacted in a 'personal' sphere. Nonetheless, the nature of the communication taking place in this setting at times is such as to defy its classification as belonging exclusively to a professional dimension. We thus argue that more is at stake in these cases, as our text samples illustrate. Added to these two dimensions is a third which we shall distinguish as an 'inter-dimension'. Interpreters operating in this dimension self-referentially create and point to an internal context that pits the personal against the professional dimension. This is discussed in §7.1.1.3.

By distinguishing three separate dimensions as characteristic of realms in which interpreters act when part of a mediated event, we are substantiating a claim made in Chapter 2, i.e. we draw upon prevailing practices (self-reference in text samples) as accepted modes of behaviour confirmed by subjects (see §7.3.2). This self-reference is grounded in similarities and contrasts with other existing forms of interpreting, e.g. in formal vs. informal settings (see §7.3.2) and discourses about interpreting (see §4.2.3.2, §4.3.1, §4.3.2). Reflexivity is also witnessed in the manner in which we select data to illustrate our claims and, as stressed throughout this study, in our decision to apply particular methods to investigate this data (see §5.1, §5.2). We thus argue that self-regulation implies the specification of a reality (see §2.1.1, p. 14) through processes occurring within both the dimensions described below (§7.1.1.1 and §7.1.1.2). In this sense our descriptions also specify the autonomy of interpreting (as one unity) and interpreters (as another unity): through their actions interpreters create their own laws and we describe the specification of laws concerning interpreting in the following sections.

7.1.1.1 Professional dimension

This section describes an interpreter's behaviour as pertaining to a professional dimension. We do so by turning once again to Samples 1.3 and 1.4, reproduced in this Chapter as Case 2 (§7.3.1), and to other corpus text segments. In our adaptation of autopoietic theory to Interpreting Studies we are called upon to account for the autonomy and heteronomy of interpreting in order to describe how the laws of autopoietic systems apply to it. We thus discuss phenomena in the professional role dimension by pointing to how the interpreter/interpreting maintains his or her/its organisation, i.e. the network of relations that define it as a systemic unity (see §2.1.3).
In Case 2 the organisation and structure of the interpreter's text mutually distinguish each other. The structural openness, or permeability, of the text is witnessed in the interpreter's reference to the Chair's utterance (“la presidente tenta invano di interrompere la delegate” [the Chair tries in vain to interrupt the delegate]). In the particular participation framework of an event mediated by simultaneous interpreting a TT receiver is also to be considered a ST receiver to the measure in which he or she is party (both visually and aurally) to the exchange between the Chair and the speaker at the podium. We also note in Case 2 that the Chair urges the speaker at the podium to bring her talk to an end (“Madame I am sorry Madame I am sorry please ... sorry Madame we have another meeting now”). These remarks are not conveyed by the interpreter to TT receivers in the first person. The Chair's remarks, in English, directed to the speaker who is also speaking English, constitute a domain in which the interpreter has no autonomy. In other words, the interpreter in Case 2 relates the occurrence in the target language to TT receivers but does not directly intervene in the Chair-ST speaker domain since it is a domain in which two source language speakers communicate.  

Another example from our corpus that typifies the interpreter's behaviour in a professional dimension was presented as Sample 6.34 and is reproduced here as Sample 7.1 for convenience.

**Sample 7.1 I, 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sorry I 11 forget one slide @.</td>
<td>ho messo due diapositive</td>
<td>I put two two slides in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact I put two slides in the wrong order</td>
<td>nella ordine sbagliato</td>
<td>(masculine) in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so excuse me one moment</td>
<td>quindi vogliate scusarmi</td>
<td>(feminine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ah &lt;laugh&gt; it's in Italian of course</td>
<td></td>
<td>wrong order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oh well</td>
<td></td>
<td>so excuse (subj.) me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ST speaker, a native English speaker, is using an overhead projector and thinks he has placed the wrong overhead on the projector and turns to attend to it, saying, "so excuse me one moment". He then realizes the transparency is in Italian and had not

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12 See §3.1.3 concerning interactional patterns in the domain of interpreting.
recognized it and says, "ah <laugh> it's in Italian of course". The interpreter communicates the following, "quindi vogliate scusarmi" [so excuse (subj.) me]. The interpreter's use of the subjunctive mode in this case is to be considered marked since it is not required formally and is employed with the effect of creating [+distance]. This contrasts somewhat with the source text containing "<laugh>". which is a positive politeness strategy of claiming common ground (see Table 3.2, p. 60). Avoiding the inclusion of the text receiver in this manner has the effect of creating further [+distance].

Sample 7.1 illustrates the prevailing behaviour of interpreters in our corpus. This self-regulatory strategy is witnessed in all the linguistic phenomena we have examined and emerges as the major strategy characterizing professional face-work.

7.1.1.2 Personal dimension

In describing an interpreter's behaviour as enacted within a personal dimension, we draw on Samples 1.1 and 1.2, reproduced in this Chapter as Case 1 (§7.3.1) and other text segments.

In Case 1 the Chair asks the ST speaker to slow down and an exchange ensues between the two as to the reason for her speeding ("c'est pour gagner des minutes" [it is to save some minutes]). The interpreter informs TT receivers only of the ST speaker's motivation for her speed ("la signora dice che correva per guadagnar qualche minuto" [the woman says she was running to gain some minutes]). She then adds, "però se corre così non si riesce a seguire grazie" [but if she runs like this it is impossible to follow thank you]. Although the interpreter is communicating in one of the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event (Fig. 3.3, p. 51), she is not communicating within the domain of interpreting (Fig. 3.2, p. 49). It is also interesting to note that the interpreter makes these comments in this personal dimension by resorting to an impersonal form ("it is not possible to follow"), again illustrative of the overall trend of de-personalisation in our data.

Other instances of an interpreter communicating within a personal dimension are illustrated self-referentially through self-corrections. In Sample 7.2, a female member of the Turkish parliament is talking about the number of women who were elected during a certain period of the country's history. The male interpreter says, "diciotto donne sono
state elette :: no mi scuso il dodici per cento” [eighteen women were elected :: no excuse me the twelve per cent].

**Sample 7.2 I, 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>consequently in the first term</td>
<td>e poi</td>
<td>- and then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the Turkish grand national</td>
<td>dopo le elezioni</td>
<td>- after the elections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assembly</td>
<td>avevano un quinto del @ assemblea</td>
<td>- we had a fifth of the (a) assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formed after the elections</td>
<td>diciotto donne sono state elette ::</td>
<td>- eighteen women were elected ::</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eighteen for women who were</td>
<td>no mi scuso il dodici percent</td>
<td>- no excuse me the twelve percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elected</td>
<td>all’epoca</td>
<td>- at the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and entered the parliament</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which accounts for nearly twelve percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We understand quite distinctly, given the external context, that the self-correction is effected by the interpreter speaking in a personal dimension.

*7.1.1.3 Inter-dimension*

Aside from text sequences that are self-referentially distinguished as belonging to either a professional or personal dimension, there is yet another dimension that corresponds to how most people would conceive interpreting as being enacted. This third dimension, an inter-dimension, involves talk where the interpreter's "I" remains that of, or is considered to be that of, the ST speaker's perspective. Nonetheless this dimension may still be regarded as a grey area in terms of both intended meaning and the effect the TT utterance has on an audience. In other words for TT utterances that may be classified as belonging to an inter-dimension text receivers are seemingly not required to consider extra-situational or external context (or, at best, they may do so to a limited degree) in order for them to retrieve meaning. Of course this affirmation seems to run counter to our entire theoretical framework, notably the very notion of self-referentiality itself (see §2.1, p. 10) and our argument concerning the observer (§2.1.2, p. 15). I draw on two text samples in order to make my point and argue the illusion created by an interpreter's talk within an inter-dimensional role.

In Sample 7.3 the interpreter self-corrects ("oppure di essere di non essere anzi" [or to be not to be rather]) and we as text receivers get the impression this is the interpreter's own self-correction enacted in a personal dimension, similar to the self-correction made
by the interpreter in Sample 7.2. The text concerns the role of political institutions vis-à-vis the electorate or the public at large.

Sample 7.3 110 34 TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- si muove l'accusa</td>
<td>- an accusation is moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- giustificata a volte</td>
<td>- justified at times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- a queste autorità</td>
<td>- to these authorities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- di essere completamente @ avulse dalle aspirazioni popolari</td>
<td>- to be completely @ removed from the popular aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- di essere catturate da degli interessi</td>
<td>- to be captured by the interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- oppure di essere</td>
<td>- or to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- di non essere</td>
<td>- not to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- anzi</td>
<td>- rather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- responsabili nei confronti dell'insieme del pubblico</td>
<td>- responsible with respect to the whole of the public</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Sample 7.2 the external context (a female MP discussing the number of women elected to parliament over the years in her country) illuminates text receivers and it is quite apparent that the male interpreter self-corrects in a personal dimension; in Sample 7.3, on the other hand, we as observers have no way of attributing the self-correction to either the ST speaker or the interpreter. Sample 7.4 is the ST version of Sample 7.3.

Sample 7.4 110 34 ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- @ on accuse</td>
<td>- @ one accuses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- et parfois à juste titre</td>
<td>- and sometimes rightly so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ces autorités d'être totalement coupés @ des aspirations populaires</td>
<td>- these authorities to be totally cut @ of the popular aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ou d'être capturés par des intérêts</td>
<td>- or to be captured by interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ou d'être</td>
<td>- or to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- @ de ne pas être</td>
<td>- @ not to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- responsables</td>
<td>- responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- vis-à-vis de l'ensemble du public</td>
<td>- with respect to the whole of the public</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We see in Sample 7.4 that the speaker had, in fact, self-corrected and it is only within the confines of this study that we as observers can point to the interpreter's role as being enacted within a professional dimension. Otherwise at the time when these utterances were pronounced an observer may have harboured the illusion of enactment within a personal dimension. In contrast, in Sample 7.5 we are led to believe that the interpreter's utterance is enacted within a professional dimension.
This is apparent since Sample 7.5 is uttered within 2 seconds of Sample 7.6, the ST version of Sample 7.5. Hence the interpreter has not gone on to expound at any length on his own.

The following section further clarifies these three dimensions and the roles enacted within them.

7.1.1.4 Participation framework and role dimensions

Text samples examined in §7.1.1.1 and §7.1.1.2 are a record of an interpreter specifying a reality through the processes occurring within the two role dimensions described. As stated throughout this study, it is precisely this that distinguishes interpreting as a systemic unity, since it specifies its own laws. Text samples examined in §7.1.1.3 are a record of an inter-dimension within which the interpreter, as unity, does not seem to distinguish him or herself as unity from the ST speaker and consequently interpreting is not distinguished from ST talk. This creates the illusion of one, single unity. Is it thus possible to distinguish roles enacted within a mediated event?

In §1.1 we speculated that along a spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour geared toward survival an interpreter would resort to becoming 'principal' and 'author'. In other words, an interpreter would speak for him or herself, even entertain subordinate communication with an audience (e.g. Case 1) for the sole purpose of promoting professional survival.
Figure 7.2 illustrates a spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour geared toward survival.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 7.2 Self-regulatory behaviour**

At the two extremes of our diagram we see points illustrated where an interpreter potentially self-regulates for maximum survival. On the left side of the diagram behaviour is generally observed as being enacted within a professional dimension where relaying and 'replaying' (see Goffman 1974: 504-6) seem to characterise this behaviour. On the right side of the diagram behaviour is generally observed as being enacted within a personal dimension where the interpreter becomes 'author' and 'principal' (see Goffman 1981: 144) of his or her utterances. The middle of our diagram constitutes an inter-dimension within which interpreters create an illusion of operating 'exactly like' the ST speaker.

The following section discusses the interpreter's positioning within the spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour.

### 7.1.2 Positioning

In §6.1 we saw that 64% of all shifts in personal reference display a [+distance] trend. These shifts in footing are indicative of interpreters' positioning vis-à-vis other communicating parties in the conference participation framework. We plotted these moves along a power differential graph (Fig. 6.2, p. 106). Added to other findings presented in §6.2 and §6.3 (discussed in §7.1.3), it is possible to position the interpreter in an area characterized by [+distance] and [-direct], an overall position of greater power with respect to text receivers.
However, there is one case of personal reference in our data that runs counter to the logic of our power differential graph. Although using the personal referent 'you' includes the addressee, it can be quite face-threatening (i.e. [+direct]) in a conference setting. For example, in Sample 7.7 (already seen as part of Sample 6.6) the ST speaker, an Israeli delegate, interrupts her talk, turns to her Palestinian colleague and directs her statements to her ("... and I don't want to ask you... "). In Chapter 6 we commented on the interpreter's switch from a formal honorific referent, i.e. third person ("chiedere" [to ask her]) to a second person plural referent ("chiedervi" [to ask you (plural)]).

Sample 7.7 I; 3-6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- and @ because I don't want to be cynical-</td>
<td>- e questo perché io non vorrei essere cinica#</td>
<td>- and this because I would not like to be cynical#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I heard what the @ representative of the @ Palestinian @ said/</td>
<td>- ho sentito bene ciò che ha detto la rappresentante della Palestina/</td>
<td>- I heard well that which has said the representative from Palestine/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- and I don't want to ask you what's happened @ about when we are talking about human rights in the Palestinian Authority#</td>
<td>- e non vorrei chiedere o chiedervi che cosa succede quando si parla a livello di diritti umani~</td>
<td>- and I would not like to ask her or ask you (plural) what happens when one speaks of human rights~</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of 'you' as part of an imposition, as in Sample 7.7, the statement constitutes a threat to face. In other words 'you' in this context becomes [+direct]. In our power differential graph this plots as being within the [+direct] and [+distance] quadrant (when also assessing other linguistic variables examined in this study) and hence the ST speaker's positioning may be considered one of greater power, representing a greater threat vis-à-vis addressees. Nonetheless, the interpreter's move, first to a formal address then to a second person plural, clearly signals her positioning as remaining within the [-direct] and [+distance] quadrant, one where she holds greater power vis-à-vis addressees, and one which poses less of a threat.

Another point to clarify regarding an interpreter's positioning concerns contextualizing devices (Goffman 1981: 188). In §3.1.2 we describe the various positions speakers take during a lecture and how addressees gain access to the speaker through these devices. These devices are self-referential in nature because they point to the talk itself. Our corpus texts represent one interpreter's turn at talk (see §5.2.2), regardless of the number of interventions made within this turn by (ST) parties to the
participation framework in a mediated event. We are thus only marginally interested in contextual factors concerning preplay ("a squeeze of talk and a bustle just before the occasioned proceedings start") and post play ("...and just after they have finished") (Goffman 1981: 167). Of relevance in this study is what we define as 'inter-play', i.e. those interventions made by other parties during the ST speaker's prolonged holding of the floor, that are to be dealt with by the interpreter. This inter-play was seen in our analysis of Cases 1 and 2 in §7.1.1.1 and §7.1.1.2, and the interpreter's positioning was discussed. These two cases are further examined in light of our subjects' responses to debriefing protocols in §7.3.2. In terms of an inter-dimension (§7.1.1.3) it is now clear that the interpreter must move from this dimension either into a personal or professional one in order to deal with this inter-play.

The strategic face-work interpreters enact is, in fact, closely linked to the notion of inter-play: self-regulatory moves are made in relation to potential threats that inter-play represents. This is discussed in §7.1.3.2.

7.1.3 Talk

This section discusses findings that have emerged in our analysis of transitivity patterns (agency) and modality (attitude) in Chapter 6 (§6.2, §6.3.1). We then examine how these findings impinge upon an interpreter's face-work and the self-regulatory strategies used when dealing with threats to face (§7.1.3.2).

7.1.3.1 Agency and attitude

In §6.2 we explored the social construction of spoken language in order to assess the degree of directness expressed in texts by examining how agency was manifested in discourse through language. We aimed to analyse how selfhood is negotiated at the macro-social level (external context) and at the micro-level (internal context). After Canagarajah (2003) we considered selfhood in relation to a) historically identified identities, b) institutional roles, and c) ideological subjectivity, which all concern the external context. We did so through an analysis of the internal context where the negotiation of larger social structures takes place. Our findings were assessed along a [-direct] and [+direct] cline in order to assess the interpreter's involvement in unfolding processes, since the degree of varying involvement (in relation to the TT) denotes face protection, and to understand the nature of the interpreter's self-regulatory moves. Of
the total number of shifts in agency, 54% show a [-direct] trend, i.e. indirectness and depersonalisation. Although seemingly not a high percentage, this trend is indeed a significant one since, along with stance indicators (§7.1.2), they establish a specific perspective. This pattern of transitivity and expression of the interpreter's 'voice' combine with stance indicators and constitute a distinct point of view that varies with regard to the source text. When these findings are evaluated in terms of the three macro-social parameters (external context) mentioned above, we start to distinguish the interpreter's role as self-referentially projected. For example, if we consider the interpreter's historically defined identity (a), we see the interpreter negotiates this identity through varying forms of distancing. Interpreters' institutional roles (b) are also negotiated by distinguishing their role from that of the source text speaker's, hence the [-direct] trend. Finally, when considering interpreters' ideological subjectivity (c), in terms of agency this trend suggests a desire to circumscribe their involvement in events, thus distinguishing themselves as one step removed from the matters at hand.

The interpreter's attitude toward his or her utterance, or how committed an interpreter is to what he or she says, was evinced through the analysis of shifts in mood and modality (§6.3.1, p. 123). Shifts occurred through various expedients: shifts in mood, forms of embeddedness and the omission or addition of adverbs. Here too findings reveal that 69% of all shifts in mood and modality involve a [-direct] move. We have seen that self-regulation is at the basis of survival and have argued that professional survival also implies self-regulatory action (§2.3). Interpreters necessarily measure themselves against set standards, monitor their work and enact personal agency (see §2.3.1, p. 27). This [-direct] trend informs us on the illocutionary force of an utterance that expresses the general intent of a speaker, in this case the interpreter. These moves are thus indicative of the interpreter's response in relation to perceived expectations and set standards, and as such they are self-regulatory in nature. The overriding trend of mitigated ST illocutionary force not only denotes the interpreter's attitude but also reflects his or her face-work, which is discussed in the following section.

7.1.3.2 Face-work

As illustrated in Figure 7.1, the particular participation framework in an event mediated by simultaneous interpreting alters how we assess impositions, in terms of FTAs, since interpreters react to threats on a professional (§7.1.1.1) and personal (§7.1.1.2) basis.
Also, it must be borne in mind that social distance between speakers and hearers and the relative power of both, along with the ranking of impositions, all have value to the extent that speakers and hearers mutually acknowledge that these variables have particular value (Brown and Levinson 1987: 74). In operationalizing survival we have put forth a transactional view of self and society in §2.3 (see Bandura 1997). Although interpreters as speakers and TT receivers as listeners may not mutually acknowledge the value of impositions due to the participation framework in a conference, we have stressed that the event is characterized by system and ritual constraints (Fig. 6.1, p. 102). These constraints reside in both the external context as well as in the extra-situational context. In reference to our transactional view of self and society, interpreters deal with and react to constraints such as the vicarious presence of professional associations (see Fig. 6.1), e.g. an A.I.I.C. member on the interpreting team. This suggests what is at stake during professional practice and further explains the nature of self-regulatory moves as the preservation of face.

In our analysis of stance (§6.1) and voice (§6.2) we have seen self-regulatory moves involving potential loss of face on the part of 'others' (TT receivers). For instance, Sample 6.6 (§6.1) illustrated the interpreter using pronouns of identity to deal with a face-threatening act. In that example the ST speaker (Israeli MP) interrupts her talk by saying to her audience "I heard what the @@ representative of the @@@ Palestinian @@@ said/". She then shifts footing, turns to address this colleague directly and says "I don't want to ask you what's happened @@@ about when we are talking about human rights in the Palestinian Authority". As customary when addressing an individual in a formal setting in Italian, the interpreter uses a third person pronoun form, which indeed creates a distancing effect with respect to TT receivers. However, since structural constraints (language system) and interpersonal constraints (ritual of situation) are such that the interpreter's behaviour in this instance is to be considered unmarked, this particular case is not counted as a shift. The shift occurs, in fact, shortly thereafter when the same interpreter moves to a second person plural form as if she intended her remarks for the audience at large, making for [+distance] in relation to the Palestinian MP addressed. In this case it is possible to speculate that the interpreter's face-work may be directed both toward saving the Palestinian MP's face (in order to avoid a bold, on-record threat) and toward saving her own face (distancing professional self from that of
the ST speaker). We suggest the interpreter's move in this instance also has the effect of saving the ST speaker's face in the sense of appearing less threatening.

We have also seen other, subtler, instances of face-saving strategies such as in Sample 6.18 (§6.2). In an address pitched to university students of interpreting, the ST speaker stresses the qualifications required in order to apply for an interpreting test at the European Parliament, i.e. three passive languages including a combination the EP interpreting services need. Making use of a shift in transitivity from the ST "otherwise I cannot summon you for a test", to the TT "otherwise you cannot come to our test", the interpreter confers students with greater agency. On the one hand this move puts students in a position of having more leverage vis-a-vis a potential employer of their services, enhancing their face. On the other, this move saves the interpreter's face in the sense that he is a professor of interpreting and it would be in his interests for students to be empowered in this way.

7.2 Explanatory hypothesis: a system dynamics perspective

Jeremy Munday (2002) presents a model of systems in translation within the framework of Toury's descriptive approach. His model brings together ideas from systemic functional linguistics and corpus linguistics with an analysis of the cultural context (op. cit.: 78). We in fact propose a perspective that is somewhat similar to Munday's with few exceptions. Our limited corpus, for one, does not warrant tools used in corpus linguistics. However, Munday's proposed analysis of the cultural context constitutes what we distinguish as the extra-situational and external contexts (see §3.1.1, Fig. 3.1, p. 41). Since Munday is inspired by systemic functional grammar, pioneered by Halliday (1978; 1994), he makes use of three interconnected strands of meaning, or metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal and textual functions) in his systematic analysis of source and target texts. Munday explains that because of the links between lexicogrammatical patterns and metafunctions it should be possible to find any translation shifts on the level of metafunctions through the analysis of transitivity patterns, modality, thematic structure and cohesion (op. cit.: 79). We have applied discourse analytical methods (cf. Mason 1999) and couch our methodological tools in a system dynamics perspective (§2.2) based on autopoietic theory (§2.1). Our explanatory hypothesis stems from this perspective: given the nature of a system unity (e.g. a ST or TT), organisational patterns remain the same but we should expect (discourse)
structures to vary unless we are in the midst of what may be considered normative behaviour on the part of text producers (see §2.1.4, §2.3.1, §3.2.1). We in fact use our model of text instantiation (Fig. 2.1, p. 21) to point to shifts in the discourse structures between the ST and TT. This explanatory hypothesis is further specified in §7.2.1, which discusses the workings of professional behaviour in terms of our perspective, and in §7.2.2, which accounts for the overriding trend in our data of de-personalisation, distancing and indirectness as normative processes.

7.2.1 Dynamic equilibrium

In this study we have examined those interactional linguistic phenomena that were most prominent in our data. Since, as just mentioned, we speculated that discourse structures in target texts vary in relation to source texts, we indeed expected a fair amount of translatorial shifts to take place. In §1.1 we hypothesized that the guiding principle behind an interpreter's operational awareness is dynamic equilibrium and that the characteristics of professional behaviour are also of a dynamic nature. In §2.3 we advanced the notion that dynamic equilibrium was the guiding principle behind an interpreter's (cognitive) operational awareness, which essentially implies the notion of embodied awareness or immediate coping. Our quantitative findings for each individual linguistic category indeed display a dynamic nature (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5) in that percentages - with the exception of the categories of stance and modality (Table 6.4) - are fairly equally distributed between the directness/indirectness and the approximation/distancing extremes. This would account for the dynamic quality of an interpreter's self-regulatory moves enacted within what we would expect to be their professional role, i.e. to voice a ST speaker's intentions. This was already highlighted in Chapter 6 in Samples 6.15 and 6.16 where, within the context of a conference for women parliamentarians, interpreters move to confer enhanced agency to women in the TT. However, the dynamic quality of the behaviour indicated, while characteristic of individual linguistic phenomena examined, no longer describes interpreters' behaviour when considering the cumulative effects of shifts found in all categories analysed, in terms of the way these categories impinge upon interpreters' face-work, as illustrated in §6.3 and discussed in §7.2.2.

The quality of dynamic equilibrium reflected in our data as mentioned above can be described in professional practice in terms of proactive and reactive control (Bandura
1991a: 260). Conscious action taken at decisive moments and turning points enables interpreters to avoid difficulties. In turn, this provides a useful focus for avoiding further difficulties by the proactive management of inevitable structural (discoursal) shifts. Difficulties that are externally caused can be avoided and managed by proactive strategic management and responsive interpreting strategies. Internally generated difficulties can be avoided by interpreters' proactively establishing quality standards (see §2.3, p. 24).

However, as mentioned at the beginning of this chapter (§7.1), the most significant finding that has emerged is that interpreters consistently distance themselves, avoid or mitigate ST speaker's threats to receivers. This trend would indeed seem to run counter to our claim of dynamic equilibrium as characterizing an interpreter's behaviour. The nature of this trend is discussed in the following section.

7.2.2 Normative processes

In Chapter 6 we also questioned what the trend of detachment and indirectness found in Samples 6.16 and 6.17, typical of corpus findings, signify. What are the intentions underlying these actions and within which role dimension is the interpreter moving?

In Chapter 1 (§1.1) we hypothesized that behaviour which does not display a dynamic quality would correspond to what we generally distinguish as normative behaviour, in that a strategy "used regularly by competent professionals tends to acquire normative force" (Shlesinger 2000: 7).

In line with our theoretical framework (see §2.1.4), we stress that within structural congruence (structural coupling) when there are interactions between a living being (interpreter) and the environment (mediated event, ST) the perturbations of the environment do not determine what happens to the living being; rather, it is the structure of the living being that determines what change occurs in it (e.g. variation in TT discourse structure). In other words, a disturbing agent (e.g. ST) brings about the changes (perturbations) that result from the interaction between a living being and its environment, but these changes are determined by the structure (as defined in §2.1.3, p. 18) of the disturbed system (§2.1.4, p. 19). This fundamental premise makes our findings all the more relevant, since the emerging trend - having the force of normative processes - would seem to suggest that the intention of mitigating ST illocutionary force
is indeed widespread and is enacted solely within the professional role dimension, as our findings show.

The following section explores data gathered in the debriefing phase of this study. It examines subjects' awareness of their behaviour and serves to complement findings from our textual data.

7.3 Operational awareness

There have been few retrospective studies in research on simultaneous interpreting. Kalina (1997) refers to a retrospective study in her work, although the relevance of her analysis is not brought to light. Ivanova (2000) presents an exploratory and methodological work concerning the design of a retrospective study. As we mentioned in §3.1, we conceive information elicited in this manner as re-presentations or re-plays from memory of a past experience. The notion of 'replaying' in this sense is also mentioned in a similar vein by Goffman (1974) in his analysis of frames and by Wadensjö (1998: 247, 283) when she problematizes the interpreter's neutrality. Goffman states,

... it is such a statement couched from the personal perspective of an actual or potential participant who is located so that some temporal, dramatic development of the reported event proceeds from that starting point. A replaying will therefore, incidentally, be something that listeners can empathetically insert themselves into, vicariously reexperiencing what took place. A replaying, in brief, recounts a personal experience, not merely reports on an event" (Goffman 1974: 504)

Reflection here is indeed considered a new experience and information emerging from retrospective reports not only illuminates us on the process of simultaneous interpreting, but informs us of interpreters' attitudes toward their work.

The data discussed here were gathered during the final phase of our study. This debriefing phase aimed to discuss tentative observations with subjects, to be corroborated and/or refuted. Before submitting the debriefing protocol to subjects, they were shown text segments from their own work and asked questions concerning particular cases. We asked whether certain phenomena analysed may be considered strategical in nature (e.g. [+distance] and [-direct]). In all cases subjects recognised their
moves as such. Their responses to debriefing protocols (§7.3.1) are discussed in section §7.3.2 and findings are compared to data gathered during the briefing phase (§7.3.2.1).

7.3.1 Debriefing protocols

Subjects were approached and told that Cases 1 and 2 (below) were found in our data. We explained external contextual information concerning each case and had subjects read them, informing them we would pose questions in relation to each case. Transcription conventions were explained where necessary and subjects were told they could listen to the recorded version of the extracted text segments, if necessary, in order for them to address the questions posed. No one asked to hear the recordings.

Case 1 includes two tables with text segments, the first relating to the ST and the second to the TT. These segments have been presented as Samples 1.1 and 1.2 in Chapter 1.

**CASE I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delegate</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>plus lentement</td>
<td>more slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>OK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c’est pour gagner des minutes</td>
<td>it is to save some minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ne ne m’enlevez pas mes minutes (@ chuckle)</td>
<td>don’t don’t take away my minutes (@)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>&lt;off microphone&gt; j’en tiens compte</td>
<td>I’ll take it into account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>d’accord</td>
<td>fine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpreter</td>
<td>la signora dice che correva per guadagnar qualche minuto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>però se corre così non si riesce a seguire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grazie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Case 2 also includes two tables with text segments, the first illustrating the ST and the second the TT. These segments have been presented as Samples 1.3 and 1.4 in Chapter 1.
**CASE 2**

| Delegate | I would like to express briefly my views on the condition of Chechen women which is a gross violation of human rights |
| Chair    | Madame I am sorry Madame I am sorry please |
| Delegate | Russians I think |
| Chair    | sorry Madame we have another meeting now |
| Delegate | the Russians have been |
| Chair    | we have another meeting |
| Delegate | carrying on |
| Chair    | they are waiting outside |
| Delegate | a huge massacre and genocide in Chechnya the victims are women and elderly |

| Interpreter | vorrei esprimere brevemente le mie opinioni sulla condizione delle donne cecene |
|Literal translation | I would like to express briefly my opinions on the conditions of the Chechen women |
| Interpreter | vediamo ravvediamo li una brutale violazione dei diritti dell'uomo |
|Literal translation | we see we notice there a brutal violation of the rights of man |
| Interpreter | <lowers voice> la presidente tenta invano di interrompere la delegata <raises voice> |
|Literal translation | <lowers voice> the Chair tries in vain to interrupt the delegate <raises voice> |
| Chair | we have another meeting carrying on they are waiting outside |
| Interpreter | sono state vittime di un tragico massacro e genocidio in Cecenia |
|Literal translation | they have been victims of a tragic massacre and genocide in Chechnya |
| Interpreter | le vittime sono soprattutto donne e anziani |
|Literal translation | the victims are above all women and the elderly |

After having read both Cases, subjects were asked the following questions:

*Have you ever been in this type of situation?*

*If, so, how did you behave?*

*Have you ever witnessed another interpreter behave in a similar manner?*

*Is this type of behaviour common under these conditions?*

*Have you ever been taught to behave in this manner?*
Is there anything you would like to add concerning the possible reasons motivating this behaviour?

The following section analyses our subjects' answers to these questions.

7.3.2 Protocol analysis

In answer to question no. 1 ("Have you ever been in this type of situation?") all subjects confirmed that they had found themselves at one time or other in a similar situation.

In terms of the second question ("If so, how did you behave?") related to the situation illustrated in Case 1, eight subjects said they usually behave in the same manner. Of the two remaining subjects, one said she would have announced that she would turn the microphone off if the ST speaker did not slow down. The other subject told me he opts to suppress agency in cases like these (e.g. "The Speaker is asked to..." rather than "The Chair tells the ST speaker to... ") and would not have turned the microphone off. Regarding Case 2, five subjects said they would have acted in the same manner and five subjects said they would not have turned their microphones off, but would have rather either explained to the audience the difficulty of interpreting overlapping voices, or would have attempted to interpret by varying their intonation to signal a change in voice.

When asked question no. 3 ("Have you ever witnessed another interpreter behave in a similar manner?"), nine subjects answered affirmatively and one negatively, but she clarified that she could understand the motivation behind similar behaviour, suggesting that talk delivered at high speed could be the cause for such a response on the part of the interpreter.

In answer to question no. 4 ("Is this type of behaviour common under these conditions?") all subjects answered yes, both in relation to Case 1 and Case 2.

Question no. 5 ("Have you ever been taught to behave in this manner?") aimed to explore where particular practices originate. All subjects responded that they have picked up this behaviour from colleagues who behaved this way.

The last question ("Is there anything you would like to add concerning the possible reasons motivating this behaviour?") aimed to see whether subjects had formulated a
rationale regarding the behaviour witnessed or experienced in situations similar to those advanced in Cases 1 and 2. Six subjects responded by saying that in both cases it was a way of signalling detachment from either the situation (overlapping voices, high speed of delivery) or to signal distance from a potentially offensive text.

Therefore, to questions 1 (requesting subject's personal experience in similar situations), and 4 (requesting the regularity of such behaviour) all subjects answered affirmatively. To question 5 (requesting whether this behaviour was formally taught or professionally acquired) all subjects answered that the behaviour was acquired from watching senior colleagues on the job. As to question 3, which essentially served to confirm or refute whether this type of behaviour was witnessed in other professionals, 9 subjects answered affirmatively and 1 replied that she understood the motivation behind such behaviour. These replies establish the behaviour witnessed in both Cases as common practice and, more importantly, practice that is acquired from within the professional environment, as opposed to a formal educational setting. This stresses the normative nature of these phenomena.

The protocol question that sought to further explore the nature of subjects' behaviour in similar situations (questions 2) brought to light differences concerning whether subjects would have turned their microphones off. Within the context of an interpreter-mediated event in the simultaneous mode, use of the microphone in this way may be likened to gatekeeping. It is thus interesting to note that 5 subjects would have also shut their microphones and 5 would not have. Despite our limited corpus, these replies may suggest that use of the microphone, as a form of gatekeeping, denotes behaviour that has not as yet acquired normative force. It is also interesting to note that one subject specifically referred to the suppression of agency when relaying the events witnessed in both Cases to TT listeners.

In answer to question 6, which sought specific information concerning the reasons behind subjects' similar behaviour, indeed 6 subjects expressed they were motivated by seeking detachment from the immediate situation or distance from a potentially offensive text. One of these subjects offered a detailed description of her reasoning process. She stressed that she uses intonation to signal detachment from assuming responsibility for her utterance, stating that perhaps this practice may be interpreted as a form of mitigation of the ST. She was also adamant about when to weaken ST
illocutionary force and when to strengthen it: the ST is mitigated when a speaker is angry, in order to lessen potential threats to face; the ST is strengthened when it deals with "noble" causes such as, for example, in the case of emotional appeals for charity. This subject also added that this type of behaviour was inherent to the interpreter's role.

This data is compared in the following section to data concerning interpreters' manner of operating gathered during the briefing phase.

7.3.2.1 Briefing vs. debriefing data
Since personal agency is enmeshed in a social network, it is conditioned by the influence a social environment has on self-regulatory dynamics through a rapport of reciprocal determinism. This also implies that a sense of agency may be socially governed and normative in nature. Whereas this may be the case in interpreting, concerning prescriptive notions outlined in extratexts (see §4.1) that may have normative value, there is yet little evidence evinced from authentic data as to the normative value of overriding trends of the type found in our data.

In §5.2.1 we summarized subjects' responses to questions posed during a briefing session concerning strategies they are aware of applying in the internal context of interpreting. All responded by mentioning strategic behaviour described in the literature. However, two subjects (AIIC members) also mentioned the strategic use of paralinguistic phenomena (temporal strategies and intonation) to signal 'distance' from the ST.

The inclusion of a third phase in this study aimed to further explore subjects' perception of personal agency. We specifically sought to understand professional interpreters' perception of certain phenomena emerging from the data in order to determine whether certain behaviour may be considered self-regulatory in nature (i.e. oriented toward professional 'survival') and/or whether it corresponds to widespread interpreting norms. Concerning their individual performances, during the debriefing phase all subjects recognized their moves as self-regulatory in nature. In other words they agreed that the phenomena prevalent in their data is to be considered strategic in nature (e.g. [+distance] and [-direct]), even though only 6 subjects specifically mentioned that the behaviour witnessed in Cases 1 and 2 was a way of signalling detachment from the situation or to signal distance from a potentially offensive text.
7.3.2.2 Operational awareness and professional association

As we mentioned in §5.1, our findings suggest that those subjects belonging to a professional association display an enhanced sense of personal agency. Despite the limited nature of our corpus, we advance the notion that this may be evidence of regulatory dynamics directed at group goals, achieved in organisational structures through socially mediated effort. For example, subjects in this study that are members of AIIC stressed the importance of dealing with the external context. Particular strategic behaviour in this sense includes contacting the ST speaker prior to their intervention ('pre-play'), in order to coordinate efforts for a successful interpretation of the ST. They specifically aimed to sensitize speakers to the importance of their collaboration in this sense, thus shouldering the responsibility for a more or less successful performance. AIIC members also mentioned the strategic importance of favouring interaction in simultaneous booths with colleagues in order to promote team effort.

These comments were made during a briefing phase. It must be stressed that they concern the external context. Also, in terms of internal context, our findings reveal no discernible differences among subjects concerning their operational awareness nor concerning their performances. Nonetheless we again emphasize the fact that what exerts more influence on human behaviour is a person's perception of personal agency and social environments (Bandura 1991b: 269).

7.4 Concluding remarks

This chapter was divided into three parts: a discussion of the analytical profile that emerges from our study (§7.1), an explanatory hypothesis couched in a system dynamics perspective (§7.2) and an analysis of our subjects' operational awareness (§7.3).

We began by reiterating this study's major finding: an overriding trend in interpreters' moves that denote distancing, de-personalisation and the mitigation of ST illocutionary force. This face-work is carried out by various means (see §6.3.2.1, §6.3.2.2, §6.3.2.3). In §7.1 we discussed the different role dimensions distinguished by self-regulatory behaviour and defined a dimension where interpreters do not make any distinction (§7.1.1.3). We proposed a spectrum of self-regulatory behaviour (Fig. 7.2) along which interpreters move into and out of specified role dimensions (§7.1.1.4). We described an
interpreter's face-work as closely linked to the notion of interplay in a text (§7.1.2), i.e. the intervention of various speakers within one interpreter's turn at talk. We further described interpreters' talk in terms of agency and attitude (§7.1.3.1) and how these are linked to their face-work (§7.1.3.2).

We put forward an explanatory hypothesis (§7.2) to account for dynamic equilibrium as witnessed across most of the linguistic phenomena analysed and to describe those trends that take on normative force.

Our subjects' operational awareness is examined (§7.3) by analyzing protocols used during the debriefing phase of this study and comparing this data to information gathered during the briefing phase (§7.3.2.1). In essence subjects recognized and corroborated the trends of distancing and de-personalisation, as well as moves made to mitigate illocutionary force. As mentioned, all subjects recognized their moves as strategic in nature and when asked for their motivation, six out of ten subjects stated these moves are made in order to distance themselves from the situation and a potentially offensive text. This section also includes a discussion on operational awareness and professional associations (§7.3.2.2) to account for the enhanced sense of agency that emerged during briefing sessions among subjects that are AIIC members.

The follow chapter concludes this work by reviewing the aims, objectives and methods of the study. It reiterates the main findings that have emerged and discusses the relevance and limitations of this study, offering indications for further research.
We have introduced this study in Chapter 1, which outlined the content and structure of
the thesis. We also presented a working hypothesis and the objectives of the study in
that chapter. After briefly discussing our method of investigation, we indicated a partial
list of research issues the study aimed to address.

We have illustrated our theoretical perspective in Chapter 2. A definition of
autopoietic theory and the main constructs underlying this theory were examined. We
also advanced a system dynamics perspective to text instantiation (Fig. 2.1) in which we
introduced notions at the basis of our textual analysis. Chapter 2 specifically
operationalized the construct of survival in relation to this study.

The interpreter-mediated event was distinguished as communicative interaction in
Chapter 3. We thus discussed the context of interpreting and put forth a model to
analyse contextual shifts (Fig. 3.1, p. 41). When addressing the participation framework
of the event we examined the text pragmatics of participant roles in simultaneous
interpreting and emphasized the dynamic, constructive nature of context. In Chapter 3
we also analysed interactional patterns in the domain of interpreting (Fig. 3.2, p. 49) and
distinguished these from the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated
event (Fig. 3.3, p. 51).

Having introduced and reviewed the literature supporting our theoretical perspective
of simultaneous interpreting as an activity governed by self-regulation in Chapters 2 and
3, we attempted to understand the interpreter's self-regulatory moves within the
framework of an evolutionary process - the development of the discipline - in Chapter 4. We discussed Interpreting Studies from a self-reflective perspective and reviewed the literature of those scholars in (Translation and) Interpreting Studies who have most contributed to the distinction of the discipline as system.

Chapter 5 introduced the methodology and research design of this study (Fig. 5.1, p. 87). We clarified the rationale behind our research design, comprised of four phases, by discussing personal agency and reflectively intentional self-regulation (Fig. 5.2, p. 89). The selection criteria used in our choice of subjects and the variables considered for corpus texts were specified. Chapter 5 includes a detailed description of our textual data in terms of a spontaneity index of speech and the discourse levels of representation. The chapter also examined the study's reliability and validity in relation to our methodology, corpus and subjects.

Chapter 6 analysed participation framework and interactional linguistic politeness as evidence of self-regulation in our corpus. The interpreter-mediated event was characterized as face-threatening (Fig. 6.1, p. 102) and structural and ritual constraints were examined. Categories of analysis were chosen, which embrace over-arching trends that have emerged in our findings: stance (personal reference), voice (agency), face (mood and modality; the omission, addition, weakening and strengthening of threats to face). Our findings were also discussed in relation to a power differential graph (Fig. 6.2, p. 109). The chapter examined findings both in quantitative and qualitative terms.

In light of our findings, Chapter 7 described the analytical profile emerging from our data. Participation framework was again examined in terms of face-threatening acts (Fig. 7.1) and role dimensions - as distinguished by self-regulatory behaviour - were defined. Chapter 7 also discussed participation framework in relation to these role dimensions. We put forth an explanatory hypothesis based on our theoretical perspective and accounted for phenomena in terms of dynamic equilibrium and normative processes. Finally, Chapter 7 examined debriefing protocols that explored subjects' operational awareness.

This chapter first summarizes the aims, objectives and methods of the study (§8.1). We then discuss problems of implementation related to the briefing and debriefing phases (§8.2.1) and textual analysis (§8.2.2). Our main findings are reviewed (§8.3) and
we also examine the study's relevance (§8.4) and limitations (§8.5). We conclude this chapter by indicating areas for further research (§8.6).

8.1 Summary of the aims, objectives and methods of the study

Our objective in this study was to investigate the effects of self-regulation on the behaviour of simultaneous interpreters via a study of participation framework and interactional politeness (contextual shifts, changes in alignment and shifts in footing) and to establish some explanatory and predictive principles. We characterized the interpreter-mediated event as inherently face-threatening and specifically sought to detect evidence of self-regulatory behaviour during text negotiation in simultaneous interpreting and examine its effects on interpreters' output when they move to ensure professional survival in the context of threats to face.

We compiled a corpus of ten source texts and ten target texts. All subjects participating in this study are interpreters with a minimum of eleven and a maximum of thirty years of professional experience. The research design consists of four phases: the collection of existing data, briefing sessions with subjects, corpus analysis, debriefing with subjects. We chose to select data prior to carrying out a briefing with subjects and before analysing texts in order to avoid any potential bias linked to the awareness that interpreting performances would successively have been analysed. This data was available in two separate audio files. The corpus was then digitalized and we created three separate files for each subject participating in this study: one-track ST file, one-track TT file, and two-track synchronized ST-TT file.

Briefings held aimed to gather information in relation to our subjects' training and the nature of their professional activity. It also served to explore their perception of how they strategically deal with interpreting tasks. In the phase of corpus analysis we chose to examine those linguistic phenomena that emerged across all texts and could illuminate us on matters of participation framework and interactional linguistic politeness: personal reference, transitivity, mood and modality, face-work (omissions, additions, weakeners, strengtheners). Debriefing sessions were then held to explore subjects' perceptions of overriding trends found in our data. Our study's main findings are discussed in §8.3. The following section examines problems of implementation encountered throughout the study.
8.2 Problems of implementation

A pilot study (Monacelli 2000) was carried out prior to formulating our research design for the current study. Our constructive epistemology suggested the use of tools that would elicit data on the basis of subjects' personal perspective concerning their perception of strategic moves. Differently from the current study, however, our pilot study relied on experimental conditions. The methodology in that study consisted of three phases, the first of which was a briefing with two professional interpreters. We subsequently simulated a professional working environment using authentic recorded audiotapes (op. cit.: 201-2) and analysed performances before concluding the pilot study with a debriefing session. Since we indeed had to rely on experimental conditions, our prime objective in the pilot study was to examine the feasibility and relevance of gathering quality data during the first and final phases of the study. Problems related to implementation during these phases of the pilot study and subsequent changes made are discussed in §8.2.1.

8.2.1 Briefing and debriefing phases

We were inspired by George Kelly's (1991) Personal Construct Psychology (PCP) and tested the use of the repertory grid (Monacelli: 2000: 199-210) as a tool for gathering qualitative data in our briefing phase. This grid is a two-way classification of data in which subjects establish constructs against which they rate (what they describe as) strategic moves, on a 1-5 scale. This serves to create points on a two-dimensional graph that makes it possible to visually grasp both the nature of constructs established and the specific workings of personal strategies in relation to these. Once the experimental data in that study were analysed, we sought subjects' corroboration of our findings during a final debriefing phase, in light of our analysis. Repertory grids elicited during the briefing for both professional interpreters participating in our pilot study were modified in the debriefing to mirror subjects' descriptions of what motivated their moves.

There were essentially two problems that emerged in our pilot concerning the use of the repertory grid. Kelly (1991) designed the grid to give access to a person's underlying construction system by asking respondents to compare and contrast relevant examples, in our case interpreting strategies. Thus, since the repertory grid aimed to elicit personal constructs, it led to an initial problem concerning taxonomy. The tool yielded a variety
of labels used by subjects to describe their personal strategies. We resolved this problem by using a pre-theorizing phase in this study in which taxonomical concerns were addressed and strategic moves our subjects described during briefing sessions were classified in accordance with definitions found in the literature (see §5.2.1).

A prominent feature of software programs that elicit and analyze repertory grid data is differentiation. Indeed the second problem we encountered related to our choice of a 1-5 scale for differentiation. During elicitation respondents were informed about highly correlating strategies and constructs that they brought forth and were prompted to further differentiate these by using the set scale for this purpose. However the scale range was too limited to favour enhanced differentiation in this sense. In the current study we thus chose to use a 1-9 scale.

Since trends that emerged in our data were so widespread (see §8.3), we opted to use semi-structured interviews in order to be able to further explore subjects' perceptions in relation to these trends. After having analysed our corpus we decided to do away with the repertory grid in debriefing sessions primarily because a revised grid could only bring forth information concerning individual constructs and perceptions, whereas our findings suggested trends with normative force.

8.2.2 Problems related to textual analysis

This section discusses problems related to the analysis of source and target texts. In accordance with our model of text instantiation (Fig. 2.1) we aimed to examine a text's organisation and outline its structure. We attempted to follow Michael Hoey's work on patterns of lexis (1991) for this purpose. We tested Hoey's (1991) lexical repetition model in a study (Monacelli 2004) that explored the role of lexical cohesion (text organisation) in fostering textual coherence (text structure). Our ultimate goal in that study was to assess the feasibility of using Hoey's model to detect emerging organisational patterns and discourse structures in oral texts. Hoey's work, however, strictly deals with written texts, based on the analysis of complex lexical patterns running across sentences to form nets that indicate central and marginal sentences.

The study involved a small corpus of ten texts that were processed using only those categories of Hoey's model that could easily be analysed using a concordancer. The resulting summaries created after the elimination of marginal sentences pointed to the
text's structure in a remarkable way. Findings were extended to the analysis of parallel
texts, i.e. two professional translations of one corpus text were analysed using the same
procedure. Here, too, the process made it possible to detect the changing discourse
structures in the two translated versions.

The study's findings were so encouraging that we attempted to adapt the process for
the analysis of this study's corpus texts. In lieu of using the sentence as a parameter to
segment corpus texts, we divided each text into sequences (see §5.2.2.2).

Although this method indeed brought to light organisational patterns, discourse
structures were left unidentified for the most part. In other words, there were no
discernable discourse structures that emerged in the same clear manner. Reasons for this
may lie in the nature of oral texts. Sequences included elements that indicated false
starts, patterns of hesitation or other phenomena that made sharp, crisp boundaries
difficult to define.

Aside from problems relating to the nature of oral texts, we realized that our
attempts to adapt Hoey's model indeed ran counter to our constructive epistemology. It
reflects a top-down approach. Our return to a bottom-up approach in the analysis of
texts implied analysing corpus texts using those linguistic phenomena most prevalent in
all corpus texts. In other words, instead of imposing a method of textual analysis onto
corpus texts, we successively sought to bring to light those phenomena that ran across
the entire corpus.

8.3 Main findings of the study

We examined the over-arching trends prevalent in our data in terms of distance altering
alignments and directness/indirectness. Our analysis of personal reference (§6.1),
patterns of transitivity and the attribution of agency (§6.2), mood and modality (§6.3.1)
and the interpreter's behaviour in relation to threats to face (§6.3.2) brings to light a
majority of [+ distance] (stance) and [-direct] (voice and mood/modality) moves in our
data. A quantitative assessment of our findings (Tables 6.4 and 6.5) is primarily
concerned with the number of occurrences of non-obligatory translational shifts and the
nature of these shifts. Both the categories assessed along a directness/indirectness cline -
agency and mood/modality - yielded a majority of shifts characterized by indirectness.
54% and 69% respectively. The category assessed in terms of distance-altering alignment - personal reference - yielded a majority of [+distance] shifts, namely 64%.

The qualitative analysis of corpus texts looked both at the nature of individual linguistic shifts and their impact on interactional linguistic politeness. Our main findings reveal that the nature of self-regulatory behaviour in the corpus is one of distancing, de-personalisation and the mitigation of illocutionary force. This involves subjects in a position of detachment with respect to both the source text and their own text. The importance of our findings concerns the uniformity of this trend, which manifests itself in all interpreted versions of corpus texts.

Of equal importance is the qualitative data gathered during the debriefing phase of this study. All subjects corroborated our findings and described their moves made during text negotiation as aiming to create [+distance] and [-direct] for the purpose of distinguishing themselves with respect to the ST.

Throughout our analysis we stressed that the phenomena examined impinge upon the nature of a speaker's face-work. And, in relation to interactional linguistic politeness, we note that the majority of both additions and omissions, characterized as face-work, and the inclusion of weakeners in the TT, had the effect of mitigating illocutionary force. These findings confirm the trend of distancing and indirectness mentioned for other categories of analysis. The quantitative significance of data relating to interactional linguistic face-work takes on major importance, considering the cumulative effect of our findings.

The results of our investigations have made it possible to meet our initial aims in nearly all respects. We attempted to draw upon evidence of interpreters' self-regulatory behaviour found in our data (see §7.1, Analytical profile) to advance explanatory and predictive principles (§7.2). The contrast found between the fundamental characteristic of an interpreter's behaviour, dynamic equilibrium, and the overarching trends emerging in our data that display normative force need to be examined further (see §8.6).

8.4 Relevance of present study

The relevance of studying SR in simultaneous interpreting lies in the basis of our theoretical perspective. In Chapter 2 we claimed that the notion of self-referentiality
underlying the construct of SR postulates perception and cognition as not representing an external reality, but as specifying a reality through the nervous system's process of circular organisation (autopoiesis). Extending this to interpreting, we identified cognition with the very process of interpreting. This validates the analysis of the process as witnessed in the 'language' (and meta-language) of interpreting, a cognitive-linguistic phenomenon residing in the social domain. Further, since human beings are distinguished from other systems because their organisation envisages that their only product is themselves, with no separation between producer and product (Maturana and Varela 1998: 49), the 'being' of an interpreter and the 'doing' of interpreting are inseparable. The analysis of authentic situated data highlights this study's relevance, making it possible to examine both the domain of interpreting and the domains of communication in an interpreter-mediated event.

We have examined an experiential reality in this study. Quality data elicited during debriefing sessions corroborated our findings concerning textual data (§8.3). Subjects thus attested to the self-regulatory nature of their moves as viable choices. Concepts, beliefs and other abstract structures that subjects find to be viable gain greater validity when successful predictions can be made by imputing this knowledge to others (von Glasersfeld 1995: 128). In other words, the knowledge that an interpreter-mediated event may be face-threatening and - above all - that professional interpreters react to threats in a specific way (see §8.3), itself constitutes viable knowledge for scholars, teachers, practicing interpreters and students. Indeed establishing explanatory and predictive principles was one of the study's aims (see §8.1).

Our findings represent information that results from the structural coupling of interpreters and their environments (extra-situational and external contexts). Following our model of context, our data reflect the tangible elements of an internal context constructed by communicating partners. In this study we have addressed issues outlined in our introduction. For example, we have shown that simultaneous interpreting, as a discourse activity, shows signs of particular alignment-altering phenomena. We have also adduced evidence of face-saving strategies distinguished by self-regulatory behaviour. We have shown, both theoretically and practically, what different roles interpreters assume in specific domains (see §7.1.) and, of particular significance, we have described different role dimensions within which they operate. The degree of our
subject's operational awareness was also explored in debriefings. The relevance of these reports lies in the degree of corroboration they lend to our findings.

A further point of major relevance is that the study contributes to the self-regulation of the discipline of Interpreting Studies. This implies the establishment of the discipline's autonomy. Indeed "either we generate a linguistic domain (a social domain) through what we say and do, wherein our identity as scientists is conserved, or we disappear as scientists" (Maturana and Varela 1998: 234).

8.5 Limitations of the study

This section discusses our study's most significant limitations: corpus size, language pairs, the difference in text types examined and their variety in length.

Although the trend of distancing, de-personalisation and the mitigation of illocutionary force manifests itself in all interpreted versions of corpus texts, the study's greatest limitation is the size of our corpus. This is due both to the amount of readily available conference material (complete source and target texts) and to the number of subjects willing to participate. On the one hand this limitation reflects the status of the discipline: a quantitative assessment of the number of professional interpreters in the world would result in a limited number if compared to other professions, due to the relevantly recent establishment of simultaneous interpreting as a profession (see Gaiba 1998). On the other hand, this limitation is compounded by the fact that subjects view the request itself to participate in a study (i.e. agreeing to have their performances recorded and analysed) as face-threatening.¹³

The second limitation concerning the language pairs analysed in our data is due in part to the language combinations of participants in this study, and in part to the choice of the analyst who could guarantee in-depth analyses of texts in the three languages of our corpus (English, Italian, French) in any directionality.

¹³ The number of subjects who participated in this study was limited to ten. This was due to the refusal on the part of three colleagues for whom data was readily available. Although it was made clear that their participation would have been solely for research purposes and that their data would have remained anonymous, in all cases the interpreters in question stated that they did not want their performances scrutinized.
In terms of limitations concerning the variation of text types and lengths, Table 5.2 describes the event and discourse context for each corpus text. It includes the conference title, venue, date, conference participants and ST length. Seven texts are taken from the same conference and three from three, different conferences. The seven texts from the EFWP conference ranged from 5 min. 42 sec. to 13 min. 10 sec. in length. Although all seven texts were subject to similar ritual constraints concerning the amount of time delegates could possibly hold the floor, this time range is nonetheless significant. As is the difference in time of the remaining three corpus texts: 23 min. 22.5 sec., 35 min. 23 sec. and 15 min. 31.5 sec. Despite the variety of text types that we have characterized along a narrative/non-narrative cline, the uniformity of these texts lies in the fact that they include typical bracketing devices in a conference setting, such as opening remarks, a main body and closing remarks. However, it may be argued that the variation in text lengths may be cause for greater stress for subjects, and that certain phenomena may tend to appear as a longer text develops. This may be valid in some respects and indeed stress may be implicated in self-regulatory behaviour geared toward the preservation of face. Nonetheless there are other factors that come into play in this sense, since the event itself is characterized as face-threatening. And it is indeed significant that the two extreme cases with which we have introduced this thesis, the same two that we have presented to subjects during our debriefing sessions, are part of two corpus texts that are approximately 6 and 8 minutes long. But regardless of length, all texts were embedded in a wider context, which saw these interpreters more or less active throughout the conference day. Hence there exists an objective difference among subjects in terms of working conditions. Limitations concerning text type and length result as being marginal, however, since there was a uniformity of trends found across all texts.

Taking into account this study's relevance and its limitations, the following section outlines indications for further research.

8.6 Indications for further research

Our theoretical stance puts us in a position to acknowledge that there is no privileged perspective from which to make descriptions of the type this study has made. Indeed this is the reason behind accounting for our findings with an explanatory hypothesis (§7.2) rather than a theory. Accepting the limitations of this perspective, in our
introduction we expressed interest in instilling doubt in relation to our object of study, as a measure of this study's success, in the hope that doubt could prompt researchers to start asking more questions and to motivate their search. This study's findings and the experience of conducting the research suggest several areas to develop for further research. One relates to our description of an inter-dimensional role (§7.1.1.3) of the interpreter. Another concerns the notion of dynamic equilibrium in our explanatory hypothesis (§7.2). The last relates to the identity between cognition and action (§2.2) and consequent implications concerning ethics.

Our distinction of an inter-dimensional role raises issues concerning interpreting quality. For example, what is the effect on an audience when the interpreter self-corrects while working in an inter-dimension? Consider the difference in the following two cases. Will an audience assess the interpreter's performance as being of good quality, when he or she is able to catch online errors and self-correct while working in a personal dimension, as occurs in Sample 7.2? Further, how would an audience react to a self-correction of the type illustrated in Sample 7.3, effected in an inter-dimension, where the interpreter self-corrects as the ST speaker does? In §4.1.3 we reviewed Garzone's (2002) proposal to use norms as a principle to explain an interpreter's behaviour. She defines norms as governing interpreters' choices in relation to the different contexts in which they operate, with the ultimate aim of meeting quality standards (op.cit.: 110). In Chapter 4 we challenged this notion of an interpreter's behaviour geared toward norm-based quality, and acknowledged that neither quality nor norms are absolute, but rather dependent on the context (see Kalina 2002). The distinction in this study of three role dimensions (personal, professional and inter-dimensional) also challenges the notion of equivalence and/or fidelity between ST and TT. At the same time, however, it raises issues concerning norm-based behaviour and quality standards. In terms of normative behaviour, the extension of our findings (distancing, de-personalisation, mitigation, etc.) across all corpus texts suggests trends having the impact of normative force. Further, because of the nature of these trends, it is difficult to elevate them to the level of activity geared toward the improvement of quality. These issues merit additional consideration in order for scholars to further distinguish Interpreting Studies and enhance its autonomy as a discipline.
Our explanatory hypothesis (§7.2) describes an interpreter's behaviour as aiming for dynamic equilibrium (§7.2.1, p. 163) since our system dynamics perspective envisages that TT discourse structures are expected to vary, making for a number of translational shifts. In an interpreter-mediated event the systemic (structural) and interpersonal (ritual) constraints are such that professionals cope with them dynamically. This implies that their behaviour (translatorial shifts) aims to strive for quality standards. As mentioned in §2.3, there is a goal-directed quality to human behaviour. Humans aim to maximize the achievement of these goals and are born with limitations that cause them to stray from achieving them. This entails interpreters having standards against which to measure themselves. Maintaining quality standards involves consistency and stasis, but innovation and growth necessarily involves change and disequilibrium. This highlights the inherent conflict between the equilibrium required to achieve standards of quality and the disequilibrium of continuous improvement, innovation and growth. The difficulty in managing the two, especially at critical points for the interpreter, suggests the need for the conscious development of a composite alternative, an operational awareness of dynamic equilibrium. The dynamic equilibrium model for managing interpreting is grounded in the experiential reality of professionals and is, at this stage, a research proposition. It has the inherent limitations of any qualitative research methodology in generating only a description of plausible relationships among concepts (Strauss and Corbin 1998) but with the advantage of the experiential development of theory within practice (Leonard and McAdam 2001, 2002). In order to enhance an operational awareness of dynamic equilibrium the interpreter needs to be conscious of the system dynamics enabling interpreting excellence. A meta-level analysis is required to achieve dynamic equilibrium. Having described the phenomenon, further work could be undertaken to develop a valid research tool to provide data for an analysis of the interrelationships between the components of the interpreting system, making an examination of correlations with other indicators of sustainable interpreting excellence possible.

We conclude this thesis with a final suggestion for further research. The primacy of cognition, that is the process with which humans deal with structural coupling, was highlighted in §2.2 in our discussion of a system dynamics perspective to text instantiation. Following Maturana's (1978) identification of cognition with the process of life itself, we extended this to interpreting and identify cognition with the very
process of interpreting. Human activity within a social domain entails ethical considerations to be made. Our study of self-regulation, which in essence describes interpreters' behaviour as aiming - first and foremost - at professional survival, challenges the ethical notion of the common 'good' (Chesterman 2001: 146). We thus support the promotion of studies that focus on the issue of ethics and seek to define a new professional ethic since "to disregard the identity between cognition and action, not to see that knowing is doing, and not to see that every human act takes place in languaging and, as such (as a social act), has ethical implications because it entails humanness, is not to see human beings as living entities" (Maturana and Varela 1998: 248).
autonomy: The conceptual counterpart of control. A system is autonomous if it can specify its own laws. Autonomy is reached when there is a network of interactions of components where the interactions recursively regenerate the network of interactions that produced them. These interactions realize the network as a unity in space where the components exist by constituting and specifying, i.e. by distinguishing, the unity's boundaries from its background. In the cases of simultaneous interpreting, autonomy is achieved through the distinction of a target text from the source text, i.e. through a distinction of the interpreter as speaker from the source text speaker.

autopoiesis: Autopoiesis literally means self-production (from the Greek: 'auto' for self- and 'poiesis' for creation or production). The term was originally introduced by Chilean biologists Francisco Varela and Humberto Maturana in the early 1970s. It specifically refers to the dynamics of non-equilibrium structures, i.e. organized states (also known as dissipative structures) that remain stable for long periods of time despite matter and energy continually flow through them. A conventional definition of autopoiesis describes it as a closed network of interactions in a circular process; a biological conceptualization of living beings, a primordial characteristic underlying their survival. Autopoietic theory qualifies human beings through the notion of autonomy and accounts for all forms of human activity as cognitive-based activity.

constraints: We describe both ritual and system constraints. Ritual constraints are conventions such as turn-taking, temporal constraints in terms of how long each speaker is to hold the floor; System constraints are language conventions and are posed when different language systems are used.

context: We distinguish the notions of extra-situational, external, internal context. Extra-situational context is background knowledge, local phenomena that are
systematic features of larger processes; discursive rules and conditions giving people unequal power and control; External context concerns aspects of interaction understood as constraints on social life or the embodiment of power concerns; Internal context is created through the actions of communicating parties.

distinction: The specification of an autonomous system. Observers distinguish unitics by specifying them from a background. Autopoietic systems are self-referential in that - through their organisation - they distinguish themselves from their environment.

dynamic equilibrium: This is the result of two reversible processes occurring at the same time, such as those occurring in chemical reactions. In interpreting, self-corrections (e.g. backtracking) and compensatory strategies (e.g. translatorial shifts) can be considered reversible processes. Viewed through a systems dynamics perspective, these forms of dynamic equilibrium in interpreting are fundamental characteristics of the process, as they concur in striving for a steady state in relation to the production of a target text. The concept of equilibrium is a very important one to scientists in all fields. Static equilibrium refers to a condition in which the parts of a system have stopped moving, and is rare in nature. Dynamic equilibrium refers to a condition in which the parts of a system are in continuous motion, but they move in opposing directions at equal rates so that the system as a whole does not change. When interpreters, as systems, are perturbed (e.g. source text constraining their choices), in either a professional or a personal role dimension, the resulting target text displays the characteristics of dynamic equilibrium.

extratext: A text that is part of the general meta-discourse on interpreting but does not relate to specific corpora. Extratexts in this study are all texts that discuss norms and normative practice in Interpreting Studies.

metatext: A published text that relates in one way or another to Interpreting Studies, which informs readers on the discipline.

operational closure: A closed network of interactions operating in a circular process whereby if one dimension in the network changes, the whole network undergoes
correlative changes. Operational closure in human beings is such that their only product is themselves, i.e. with no separation between producer and product.

**organisation**: the relations that define something a unity and determine the dynamics of interactions and changes it may undergo as a unity. The relations between components, whether static or dynamic, that make a composite unity a unity of a particular kind, are its organisation. Or, in other words, the relations between components that must remain invariant in a composite unity in order for it not to change its class identity and become something else, constitute its organisation (Maturana 1975). All systems have an organisation. What distinguishes human beings is that their organisation envisages that their only product is themselves, with no separation between producer and product. Thus the 'being' of an interpreter and the 'doing' of interpreting are inseparable (Maturana and Varela 1998: 49).

**paratext**: A text that informs on the particular collocation of Interpreting Studies as a discipline, with respect to the field of Translation Studies.

**perturbations**: That which occurs as a result of interaction between a living being and an environment. Any occurrence taking place within the (extra-situational, external or internal) context of interpreting may constitute a perturbation.

**play**: Goffman (1981) distinguishes preplay as talk or any interaction that takes place before proceedings begin (op.cit.: 167); post play as talk or any interaction that takes place after proceedings end (ibid.). We distinguish inter-play as interventions made by other parties during the ST speaker's prolonged holding of the floor.


**replaying**: The recounting of a personal experience (see Goffman 1974: 504-6).

**representation**: A picture of something else.
**re-presentation:** A replay or re-construction from memory of a past experience; a mental act that brings a past experience to an individual's consciousness; the recollection of the figurative material that constituted the experience (see van Glaserfeld 1995: 89-112).

**role dimensions:** We distinguish personal, professional, inter-dimensional role dimensions in this study. *Personal role dimension* is a self-referentially distinguished dimension within which an interpreter operates, that is characterized as personal in terms of the interactions taking place within the dimension; *Professional role dimension* is a self-referentially distinguished dimension within which an interpreter operates, that is characterized as professional in terms of the interactions taking place within the dimension; *Inter-dimensional role* is a role enacted within a dimension that is neither professional nor personal, which gives the illusion of constituting the same internal context as the source text speaker.

**self-referentiality:** A distinction of the self with respect to external reference.

**structural coupling:** A history of recurrent interactions leading to the structural congruence between two or more systems.

**structural determinism:** A phenomenon whereby the behaviour of a system is constrained by its constitution (structure). Since the structure of a system unity continually changes, at the moment of perception there are no other possible constructions to be brought forth other than the construction actually made. In other words the system can only do what it does at any given time. Since all change is structure-determined then it is possible to approach the organisation of the system through the components and relations of the system.

**structural openness:** The thermodynamics of open systems as combining the stability of structure with the fluidity of change. In the 1970s Ilya Prigogine used the term 'dissipative structures' to describe this new thermodynamics of open systems as combining the stability of structure with the fluidity of change (see Capra 1997: 180).
**structure**: The existence and interplay of components in a given space where a systemic unity's organisation is realised. The actual components and the actual relations between them that at any instance realize a particular composite unity as a concrete state or dynamic entity in the space, which its components define, constitute its structure (Maturana 1975).

**system unity**: A network of processes of production of components that produces components that: (1) through their interactions and transformations continuously regenerate and realise the network of processes (relations) that produce them; and (2) constitute it as a concrete unity in space in which they exist by specifying the topological domain of its realization as such a network (Varela 1979, Maturana 1975). Such systems actually distinguish themselves (set themselves apart) from their environment through this organisational self-specification and self-production and thus an autopoietic system (unity) is a self-referential system. A system unity will attempt to conserve invariance (its unity), since it exists only as long as its organisation remains invariant.
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