Strategies in German-to-Greek Simultaneous Interpreting: A Corpus-Based Approach

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This paper reports on a corpus study that focuses on the strategies employed during German-to-Greek (DE-EL) simultaneous interpreting (SI). A 15-minute interpreting corpus is analysed in order to investigate the use of interpreting strategies and to record their frequency. Subsequently, an attempt is made to determine whether the syntactic differences characterising DE and EL have an influence on the interpreting strategies employed during SI. The conclusion drawn is that strategies are indeed used in DE-EL SI; it seems that, as suggested by Riccardi (1999: 171-173), the strategies identified can be assigned to two categories: "general" strategies, which do not seem to be influenced by the language combination of the interpretation, and "specific" strategies, which seem to be linked to the particularities of the language pair involved.

1. Introduction: simultaneous interpreting and interpreting strategies

The present study focuses on the use of interpreting strategies during German-to-Greek (DE-EL) simultaneous interpreting (SI). Interpreting strategies are one of the major chapters of SI theory. They have attracted the attention of a great number of researchers, as they are considered an important contribution to successful interpreting, an activity that is considered particularly complex and intellectually challenging.

1.1. On the particularities of SI

As early as 1952, Herbert points out the complexities of interpreting, emphasising that language knowledge is not enough to be able to interpret: "just as the fact of having two hands does not make you a boxer, so the knowledge of different languages, be they many or few, does not make an interpreter" (1952: 4-5). Pinter

(1167) identifies the act of listening and speaking simultaneously as the main difficulty of SI, and Riccardi characterises it as an "unnatural form of communication, whose main peculiarity – in addition to its bilingual nature […] – is given by the time pressure under which it is carried out" (2005: 756).

1.2. SI and interpreting strategies

Gile views SI as an "operation of *crisis management* which requires appropriate *techniques*" (1995: 191; my italics), in order to be successful. Kohn and Kalina (1996: 124-125) attribute the difficulty of SI to the fact that common *discourse strategies* are not enough to cope with the manifold difficulties inherent in it. They claim that SI can be facilitated if well-known discourse strategies are adapted and further developed to match the new requirements, which is a challenge itself. As a matter of fact, they describe SI as "strategic discourse processing", since it "involves a number of complex processes which can only lead to reasonably comprehensible target discourse if they are strategically controlled" (1996: 132).

Kade (1967: 12), also employing the term *strategies*, suggests that a longer distance from the speaker (ear-voice-span/EVS)[1] can have positive effects for the simultaneous interpreter. Kirchhoff (1976: 43) characterises interpreting strategies as the practical aim of research on the interpreting process. Gerver (1976: 173) focuses on these interpreting strategies that are applied when the information flow is too fast for the interpreter to process, and makes reference to Chernov (1969) who defines the strategy applied in such situations as "text compression". Flores d'Arcais (1978: 398) considers strategies as a substantial part of any complete interpreting model, and takes their definition to be an important task for interpreting research. Finally, a considerable number of other writers (e.g. Riccardi 1996, 1998, 2005; Zanetti 1999; van Besien 1999a/b; Donato 2003; and Bartłmiejczyk 2006) focus on specific interpreting strategies or try to find out how interpreting strategies apply to the particular interpreting scenarios/language pairs that they study.

The aim of this study is to find out whether strategies are employed in DE-EL SI, or not; if so, to identify them, record their frequency, and investigate their possible relationship to the particular language pair under study and the special characteristics of the syntax of the two languages.

2. SI strategies: definition

What exactly constitutes a strategy? Brockhaus (1984: 96) names four technical terms as constitutive of a "strategy":

- strategies are procedures carried out by an individual;
- strategies contain an element of planning;
- strategies aim at reaching certain goals; and
- strategies refer to a sequence of actions during the process of goal realisation.

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[1] EVS can be calculated by subtracting the time of the actual start of the speech from the time the interpreter starts speaking.

This outline provided by Brockhaus contains features included in many of the definitions of the term "strategy" proposed by researchers of various fields. Færch and Kasper define (communication) strategies as "potentially conscious *plans* for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (1984: 47; my italics). Similarly, Tarone defines communication strategies as "a speaker's *attempt* to communicate meaningful content in the face of some apparent deficiencies" (1981: 285; my italics). Within the framework of translation studies, Krings defines strategies as translators' "plans" (1986: 175) for the solution of specific problems and, finally, Lörscher, again in the context of translation studies, postulates that strategies initiate in the "recognition" (1989: 55) of a particular translating problem and reach their resolution, either after the problem has found some solution, or when the translator concludes that it is insolvable. In the definitions by Færch and Kasper, Tarone and Lörscher it is clear that strategies are equated to conscious *plans* that are put into practice when a problem arises, either in a communicative situation or during the translation process. The feature of "consciousness" is inherent in all definitions and is actually the main point that they have in common: strategies are presented as procedures consciously applied for the solution of a problem identified by the language user.

Kalina (1998: 98) questions the degree of consciousness during strategy application and adopts Kohn's definition of strategy. Kohn concentrates on the process and the intentions underlying the activation of a strategy. He views strategies as processes that focus on the *achievement of a specific goal*, even though they might not be governed by any plan (1990: 110). What is emphasised by Kohn and Kalina (1996: 132) is the need for the *automation* of strategic processes, "for only if routine decision processes are performed more or less automatically will the interpreter have enough capacity and attention to solve the more intricate and complex problems" and, when a strategic process is automatic, it is, most probably, not conscious.

Believing that the definition of strategy proposed by Kohn is the most suitable for the description of the strategic processes active during SI and following the example set by Kalina, I will adopt Kohn's definition for this study, too.

3. SI strategies: categorisation

The literature review on interpreting strategies reveals that strategies have been a point of interest for almost all interpreting "schools".[2] Interpreting scholars who have written about interpreting strategies have already been mentioned. Some of

[2] Only the "interpretive" school of translation studies ("théorie du sens"), with Seleskovitch and Lederer as its main representatives, does not see a particular need for strategies during interpreting. The reason for this is that they view interpreting as a natural process that is achievable with the ordinary speech functions (Seleskovitch 1984: 273). The difficulty of SI lies, according to them, in the simultaneous comprehension and production of information. Once this is mastered, they see no further problems for the simul-

them have dealt with strategies only as a marginal aspect of their research. Others have devoted a considerable part of their work to them and have reached important conclusions regarding the set of activities or procedures that can be characterised as interpreting strategies.

3.1. Kalina's categorisation

Kalina (1998) presents one of the most comprehensive catalogues of SI strategies.[3] In it, she presents strategies that she considers of great importance for SI, grouped into two major categories: a) strategies which enhance comprehension, and b) strategies which support the target text (TT) production. Schematically, the strategies proposed by Kalina (1998: 115-121) could be presented as below:

A) Comprehension enhancing strategies
1. Preparation strategies
2. Inference
3. Anticipation
4. Chunking[4]

B) Target-text production strategies
1. Source-text (ST) conditioned strategies
   a. Syntactic transformation
   b. Transcoding
2. Target-text conditioned strategies
   a. EVS
   b. Text compression
   c. Text expansion
   d. Stylistic strategies
   e. Presentation strategies
3. Emergency strategies
   a. Compression
      i. Selection
      ii. Deletion
      iii. Generalisation

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taneous interpreter who is in full command of both the source and the target language. Yet, even they mention strategies such as anticipation. They emphasise, however, that strategies are beneficiary in SI the same way that they are beneficiary in conversational discourse, no mention being made of the specific nature of SI. According to Seleskovitch (1984: 276-279), anticipation, for example, allows the interpreter, exactly as it allows interlocutors, to decode incoming messages early by taking advantage of the linguistic and semantic redundancy of the text. Thus, it is not more important for SI than it is in a monolingual context.

[3] Kalina is not the only researcher who ventures a categorisation of interpreting strategies. Her categorisation is presented here, however, as one of the most complete categorisation attempts.

[4] Jones refers to chunking as the "salami technique" (1998: 101).

    iv. Simplification
4. Repair strategies
   a. Self-correction
   b. Decision for no-correction
5. Global strategies
   a. Monitoring

3.1.1. Comprehension enhancing strategies

Comprehension enhancing strategies are strategies that aim to enhance the understanding of the ST. Assigned to this category are *preparation strategies* (such as the gathering of information on the participants of a communicative event or the subjects that will be discussed and the terminology that is expected to appear in texts to be interpreted); *inference*, whereby logical conclusions are derived from premises known to be true; *anticipation*, which helps the interpreter "foresee" what will follow in discourse; and *chunking*, which refers to the segmentation of the incoming text, and facilitation of its analysis by the interpreter.

3.1.2. Target-text production strategies

The strategies classified as *target-text production strategies* are further divided into *source-text conditioned strategies*, *target-text conditioned strategies*, *emergency strategies*, *repair strategies* and *global strategies*.

3.1.2.1. Source-text conditioned strategies

Syntactic transformation and *transcoding* are characterised as *source-text conditioned strategies*. Syntactic transformation refers to the rearrangement of the order of the ST elements. This can take place either at sentence or at text level. Its aim is to help the interpreter avoid source text interference and achieve the production of a natural sounding target-text. Transcoding is the exact opposite function, whereby a word-for-word interpretation takes place, causing, however, no harm to the naturalness of the TT. Transcoding is, according to Kalina, very successfully applied to the interpretation of name lists or numbers.

3.1.2.2. Target-text conditioned strategies

Classified as *target-text conditioned strategies* are: *EVS*, *text compression* and *text expansion*, *stylistic* and *presentation* strategies. Text compression serves the economy of the text and refers to the elimination of redundant elements on behalf of the interpreter. Text expansion serves clarification purposes and consists of the interpreters adding extra information to the TT where and when they deem it necessary. Stylistic and presentation strategies are similar in nature; they do not aim at helping the interpreter overcome any difficulty, but serve the purpose of the most elegant or expressive communication of the message. Stylistic strategies refer to the selection of the best expressive means, while presentation strategies refer to the "super-linguistic" presentation of these means, through the application of, for example, intonation or pausing patterns.

3.1.2.3. Emergency strategies

Emergency strategies are applied at moments when interpreters feel that they are not able to respond to the interpreting task at hand. This might be due to many reasons, including excessive flow of information, fatigue, background noise etc. In such cases, the interpreter may chose to compress[5] the TT by *selecting* which information to present and which information to leave out, by *deleting* information they consider superfluous and too much of a burden for their working memory, by *generalising*, usually items they cannot find an exact rendition for, or by *simplifying* texts that are difficult to interpret under great pressure of time and possibly adverse interpreting conditions.

3.1.2.4. Repair strategies

Repair strategies are employed to correct errors that might occur during interpreting. They consist of the *self-correction* strategy and the (decision for) *no-correction* strategy. In the case of self-correction, the interpreter realises their mistake[6] and decides to correct it, either overtly or covertly. In some cases, even though interpreters have realised they have made a mistake, they choose not to correct it, either because they do not consider it detrimental to the meaning, or because they consider that a correction would disrupt the flow of the interpretation and cause unease to the audience.

3.1.2.5. Global strategies

The last category is that of *global* strategies, with *monitoring* as their only representative. Monitoring refers to testing the coherence of the incoming text with the already formulated hypotheses, as well as to the output control during SI.

3.1.3. Stalling

Kalina's categorisation does not comprise all interpreting strategies identified by researchers, however. One of the strategies that is not included in Kalina's list of comprehension strategies is, for example, that of *stalling*,[7] which is mentioned by Gile (1995: 130), Setton (1999: 50) and Kirchhoff (1976: 71).[8] As Donato (2003: 106) puts it, *stalling* aims at "buying time". It is applied in the case that the interpreter needs more time in order to form a complete idea about the incoming text, and has the form of generic utterances (not contained in the ST), which are pro-

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[5] Compression appears as both a "target text conditioned" and an "emergency" strategy. Kalina does not specify on which criteria compression can be assigned to either the one or the other category.

[6] Mistakes are not necessarily at meaning level; even slips of the tongue or too general renditions of ST terms that interpreters feel in need of correcting are considered here mistakes.

[7] Stalling is mentioned here as an example, since it is one (and the only) strategy which is encountered in the corpus, yet is not included in Kalina's categorisation.

[8] Kirchhoff describes the "stalling" strategy, yet she does not refer to it as such.

duced so as to cover long pauses in the output.

Kalina's categorisation will be expanded at points where it does not achieve to describe the strategies detected in the present study.

4. SI strategies and language-specificity

One of the widely discussed subjects in interpreting theory is the language-specificity of SI strategies, that is, whether strategies employed may vary according to the language pair involved in SI. Except for the Paris "school" ("théorie du sens"), the majority of the researchers who have carried out research in the field of interpreting strategies have taken a stance for the language-specificity of SI strategies.

As already mentioned (see footnote 2, p. 5), the Paris "school" claims that SI can be achieved with ordinary speech functions: what the interpreter carries from one language to the other is not words but sense. As soon as the interpreter receives a message in a SL, the message is believed to lose its surface structure. Thus, the interpreter is left only with meanings which can be transferred to any TL, as long as this language is mastered (Lederer 1981: 147). Led by this belief, the Paris "school" does not accept any relation between (interpreting) strategies and specific languages pairs. The reason is that, at the level where strategies operate, the surface structures, which distinguish one language from the other and which are else believed to call for specific strategies, have already disappeared.

The Paris school's approach to SI seems to be an exception, however. Authors of the so-called "Information Processing Theory" emphasise that the surface structure of the message never entirely disappears. This study also takes as a given that the very short time which elapses between the source message reception and the target message production is not enough to allow for the complete disappearance of the surface structure. Thus, surface structure characteristics, like syntactic asymmetries between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL), in combination with the complexities which are inherent in SI, are considered to be of major importance for the SI production: e.g., a SL with an extremely different syntax from that of the TL may force the interpreter to allocate more resources to the listening and analysis effort, than to the production effort, thus leading to a TT which is not satisfactory.[9] SI strategies are thus considered necessary in order to restore balance in the allocation of resources and contribute to successful interpretation.

Riccardi (171-173), taking a more moderate stance, writes that there are strategies which are generally used in SI to counter the special nature of the activity ("strategie generali") and others that are used to ease the problems posed by particular language pairs ("strategie specifiche"). This "specific completing general" approach will be adopted for this study, too, as I believe that it provides the best resolution of the "language-specificity" issue.

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[9] For the allocation of mental resources and the efforts active during SI, see Gile 1995.

5. The study

5.1. German-Greek SI: major challenges

The present study concentrates on the language pair German-Greek – a language combination that has never been studied in interpreting theory – and the interpreting strategies that are employed during SI from German into Greek.

German has often attracted the interest of researchers, especially because of its very characteristic left-branching structures. Riccardi (1996, 1998, 1999) explains that the difficulties the German syntax poses for (German-to-Italian) SI derive from the sentence-final positioning of the verb, the left-branching noun phrases, the embedded clauses, the compound nouns and the long chains of noun phrases or prepositional phrases. Setton attributes the difficulties in SI from German to the sentence-final positioning of constituents in general, and also mentions, except for that of the verb, the sentence-final positioning of negation.

Greek is a language that is characteristically absent in interpreting studies. Thus, the first step of the study was to carry out a linguistic analysis of the two languages in order to detect the differences between the German and Greek syntax; the hypothesis underlying this process was that syntactic differences would probably call for specific interpreting strategies during DE-EL SI.

The contrastive analysis showed that the main differences (always in relation to the interpreting practice) concern the *position of the verb* and *the position of negation*.

5.1.1. Verb positioning

5.1.1.1. Main clauses

In the German main clause the finite verb can take three basic positions in the sentence, occupying the first position of a clause, creating "*Stirnsätze*", the second position, creating "*Kernsätze*" or the last position, leading to the creation of "*Spannsätze*" (Drosdowski 1992: 715f.).

For example:

- "**Brauchen** wir noch weitere Systeme?"[10] (Stirnsatz);
- "Klimaschädliche Gase **stehen** im Moment zur Diskussion. "[11] (Kernsatz);
and
- "Und wie eng der ohnehin **ist**!"[12] (Spannsatz).

The above examples concern sentences with simple verbs in their structure. In the case where the verb is not simple but complex, composed of just one finite verb but of more non-finite parts (e.g., infinitives, participles), the finite part occupies

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[10] Example from speech by European Parliament (EP) member U. Stockmann in the EP on 03.07.2006.

[11] Example from speech by EP member E. Lichtenberger in the EP on 04.04.2006.

[12] Example from speech by EP member J. Haug in the EP on 18.05.2006.

exactly the same position in *Stirnsätze* and *Kernsätze,* that is the first or the second position respectively, whereas its non-finite parts are placed at or towards the end of the clause.[13] In *Spannsätze*, the complex verb (finite and non-finite part) is placed towards, or at the end, of the clause (Drosdowski 1992: 717).

Greek main clauses are characterised by relatively flexible word – and consequently – verb positioning rules. The organisation of the phrases within the clause can be decided by the language user (Tzartzanos 1963; Mirambel 1978; Tsopanakis 1994). The positioning of the various constituents, however, is very strongly conditioned by the meaning that a speaker wishes to convey. Thus, it is not infrequent that the Greek speaker (for our case the interpreter interpreting into Greek) needs to use a verb in the beginning of a clause in order to convey the same meaning that a German language speaker would express by positioning the verb at or towards the end of the German clause. This is usually the case with German "Spannsätze". "Kern-" and "Stirnsätze" are only problematic when the meaning is carried by the second part of the complex verb which is placed at the end of the sentence.

For example:

"Österreich und Dänemark […] **haben** allgemeine Verbote für die Verwendung fluorierter Treibhausgase *erlassen*."[14]

5.1.1.2. Subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses are characterised by different syntactic rules, leading, however, also to differences between the syntactic patterns of the two languages. In the German language, there are two categories of subordinate clauses. The ones that are introduced by a conjunction and the ones that are not without, however, losing their subordinate clause status.

Example 1 (introductory conjunction: *obwohl*):

"**Obwohl** die Luftfahrt für nur circa 3% der globalen CO2 Emissionen verantwortlich **ist,** (wächst ihr Anteil an den Emissionen konstant)."[15]

Example 2 (no introductory conjunction):

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[13] This distancing of the finite and the non-finite parts of the verb leads to the very characteristic German construction called "Satzklammer" or "Satzrahmen". The finite and non-finite parts of the verb form a kind of bracket that encloses the rest of the sentence. The components that can function as bracket parts of the "Satzklammer" may be of various kinds. They may be finite verbs combined with infinitives or participles, creating thus *analytical verb forms*; they may be modal verbs which are combined with main verbs; they may be a combination of two verbs, verbs that may be separated from their initial particle (*Trennbare Verben*) or combinations of functional verbs and nominal groups. For a detailed presentation of the German "Satzklammer" construction, see Engel ([3]1994) or Helbig & Albrecht (1990).

[14] Example from speech by EP member K. Scheele in the EP on 04.04.2006.

[15] Example from speech by EP member H. Krahmer in the EP on 03.07.2006.

"(Und ich glaube), das **ist** eine Wettbewerbsverzerrung."[16]

Subordinate clauses that belong to the first category position their verb at the end, without any exceptions.[17] Subordinate clauses that are not introduced by a conjunction place their verbs in the first or in the second position (Drosdowski1992: 716), and lead thus to no discrepancies with their Greek counterparts, as will be seen next.

The syntactic rules for the Greek subordinate clause are significantly different from those of the German subordinate clause,[18] and much stricter than they are for the Greek main clause. The verb in the Greek subordinate clause has to immediately follow the conjunction that introduces it.[19] If it does not immediately follow it, there is the possibility for one constituent (usually a noun phrase that functions as the subject) to be placed between the conjunction and the verb; this means that the verb has to be placed very early in the clause. Combining this information with the knowledge that in German subordinate clauses, which are introduced by conjunctions, must have the verb placed at the end of the sentence, one can infer the difficulty that might arise for the interpreter, if a verb that they need in the beginning of a Greek sentence does not appear but at the end of an incoming speech segment.

5.1.2. Negation positioning

An additional difference that can be noticed when comparing the syntax of the German and the Greek language concerns the negation of the verb, also referred to as "sentence negation". The expression of negation in German is effected through the use of negative adverbs or pronouns. "Nicht" is the most frequent of these adverbs.

For example:

Das ist mein Mantel → Das ist **nicht** mein Mantel (Engel 1994: 270).

In the cases where "nicht" negates the whole sentence (and not only a specific constituent), it is usually placed towards or at the end of the sentence (Helbig and Albrecht 1990: 17f.; Drosdowski 1992: 643).

Example

Ich verreise wegen des schlechten Wetters **nicht**.

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[16] Example from speech by EP member P. Liese in the EP on 03.07.2006.

[17] In the case of subordinated clauses, the "Satzklammer" is formed by the conjunction introducing the subordinate clause and its sentence-final verb.

[18] Reference is being made to the German subordinate clause introduced by a conjunction.

[19] This is particularly true if the clause is in the subjunctive mood (Babiniotis 2002: 700).

In subordinate clauses introduced by conjunctions, the last position is reserved for the verb, while the negation must precede it, still maintaining a sentence-final position.

For example:

(Sie *kommt* **nicht)**, weil sie **nicht** *will*.

In Modern Greek, the negation can be effected through the use of the negative particles "δεν" [δén] and "μην" [min].[20] What the two particles have in common is that they both, without any exception, precede the sentence verb (Babiniotis 2002: 496). This means that the earlier the verb in the Greek sentence, the earlier the negation, which creates an important contrast to the German sentence, where the negation always occupies a sentence final position.

5.2. Methodology

5.2.1. The corpus[21]

5.2.1.1. Corpus Characteristics
Having concluded the linguistic comparison between DE and EL, the next step was to examine how the syntactic differences detected could influence the interpreter during DE-EL SI, and whether interpreting strategies were employed to counter the difficulties these differences pose. To this aim, a small, bilingual, spoken corpus was compiled consisting of two sub-corpora: a) original German speeches delivered at the plenary sessions of the European Parliament, and b) their simultaneous Greek interpretations. For the compilation, three speeches, as well as the respective three interpretations, of the month May of the years 2006, 2007, 2008 were randomly chosen and downloaded from the official website of the European Parliament,[22] based only on the criterion of their duration and their subject. The speeches were chosen so as to have a duration of approximately 5 minutes each (composing thus an interpreting sub-corpus of approximately 15 minutes), and fall under the subject title "environment".

The average speed of the contributions is approximately 140 words per minute (wpm), somewhat more than the 95-120 wpm that Gerver (1976: 172) considers as the optimal input rate for SI. Speed of delivery was not, however, expected to distort the results, given that EP interpreters are used to working with fast

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[20] A "δεν" negation is used if the sentence is in the indicative, and a "μην" negation if the sentence is in the subjunctive mood.

[21] Even though McEnery et al. (2006: 4-5) conclude that "there is increasing consensus that a corpus is a collection of […] machine-readable […] texts", the term "corpus" is used here to describe a collection of spoken texts and interpretings that is neither machine-readable nor mechanically analysed; the text collection satisfies the rest of corpus criteria, however, i.e. "authenticity" and "representativity of a specific language variety" (McEnery et al. 2006: 4-5).

[22] The address of the European parliament website is www.europarl.europa.eu.

speakers.[23]

5.2.1.2. Corpus participants

The interpreting sub-corpus of this study consists of interpretations carried out by interpreters who have gone through similar EU accreditation procedures and have been tested on their ability to operate in the EU environment and to interpret the particu-lar kind of EU texts. It was thus deemed that this should at least ensure a minimum of quality standards. This, of course, does not mean that all interpreters working for the EU have exactly the same capacities or the same style; as a matter of fact, a plurality of styles would be desirable, as this could lead to a variety of findings.

     Three different interpreters worked on the interpretations under study. However, no information can be provided on their experience, training or working languages, as is often the case with corpus studies where such variables cannot be controlled.

5.2.2. Synchronisation and transcription

The three speeches, as well as the interpretations used for this study, were downloaded in the form of video files with one audio stream (a total of six videos). Each speech with its respective interpretation (i.e., two different videos each time) were subsequently synchronised and merged into one single video with two audio streams using the Windows Movie Maker software. The resulting three videos were introduced into the EXMARaLDA text editor[24],[25] and manually transcribed (both the original speech and the interpretation), so that the strategies used during SI could be more easily recognised.

5.3. Analysis

The strategies identified in the fifteen-minute interpreting corpus examined will be presented below according to the classification proposed by Kalina (1998).[26]

5.3.1. Comprehension enhancing strategies
Anticipation and chunking

Two different comprehension enhancing strategies were identified in the corpus examined, i.e. seventeen cases of anticipation (approximately one every minute of in-

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[23] Parliamentarians are given only very short speaking times, into which they try to squeeze the contribution that they wish to make; the result is fast and dense speeches.

[24] www.exmaralda.org.

[25] The EXMARaLDA has the advantage over regular text editors that it allows the simultaneous presence of sound and transcription. Thus, a video with its two audio streams could be played back at the same time that the transcription was displayed in a subtitle mode (see Appendix 1 for a snapshot of the EXMARaLDA software).

[26] See section 3.1.

terpreting) and merely five cases of chunking (approximately one every three minutes of interpreting).

5.3.2. Target-text production strategies

5.3.2.1. Source-text conditioned strategies
Syntactic transformation
Of the "source-text conditioned strategies" only one case of "syntactic transformation" was recorded.[27] All other sentences seemed to follow the syntax of the source text.

5.3.2.2. Target-text conditioned strategies
Regarding "target-text conditioned strategies", three different categories were recorded: "EVS", "text compression" and "text expansion". [28]

EVS
EVS was practically recorded in every sentence of the interpretings, as is natural, since the simultaneous interpreter needs this time distance in order to understand what they hear and to determine the meaning that they should interpret.

Text compression: a "target-text conditioned" or an "emergency" strategy?
Text compression was recorded twenty-eight times in this corpus, i.e. almost two times per minute. It is difficult to classify compression cases as either "target-text conditioned" or "emergency" strategy instances,[29] however, as neither Kalina provides specifications on the categorisation, nor does information exist on the circumstances under which the compression took place. The belief holds that a compression instance can be characterised as a "target-text conditioned" strategy when the interpreter consciously decides to omit information for the sake of the TT's more accurate and succinct presentation.

Text expansion
Text expansion is recorded only four times in this corpus, i.e. about one time every 3 ½ minutes.

5.3.2.3. Emergency strategies
Compression
Kalina mentions "compression" as the only emergency strategy, comprising "se-

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[27] Transcoding was not recorded at all in the corpus.

[28] No data can be provided regarding "stylistic" and "presentation strategies", since feedback from the interpreter about their stylistic choices is non-existent and "supra-linguistic" characteristics are not examined here.

[29] See section 3.1.

lection", "deletion", "generalisation" and "simplification" as subcategories. As explained in the previous section, it is difficult to determine how compression instances should be classified. The hypothesis is that compression is an emergency strategy when it is enforced by adverse interpreting circumstances. Relevant information is, unfortunately, nonexistent.

5.3.2.4. Repair strategies
Self-correction and the decision for no-correction
Twelve instances of self-correction were recorded in the corpus, that is one per 1 ¼ minutes. Data on the "decision for no-correction" cannot be provided, as feedback from the interpreter would be needed.

5.3.2.5. Global strategies
Monitoring
The global strategy of "monitoring" cannot be detected but for its results. No numerical data on its presence can be provided; it is definitely active, however, since, for example, no "self-correction" would have been possible if monitoring were not active.

5.3.3. Stalling
The strategy of "stalling", finally, which is not listed in Kalina's classification, but could be classified as a "comprehension enhancing strategy", was recorded ninety-six times in this corpus and is thus, after EVS, the most frequent interpreting strategy with about seven instances per minute. This fact can be seen more clearly from the graph below (fig. 2), presenting the distribution of those strategy instances on which numerical data can be recorded.
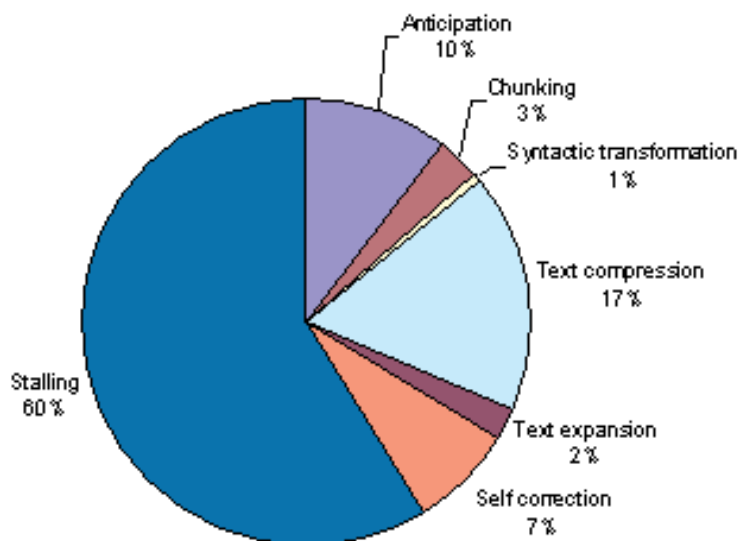

Figure 1. Distribution of "countable" strategy instances

6. Language-specificity of recorded interpreting strategies

Having identified the strategies that appeared in this fifteen-minute long DE-EL interpreting corpus and having determined their frequency, the next step was to investigate how they relate to the specific language pair under study. This should be achieved by examining the sentences in which the strategies were applied, the hypothesis being that: a) strategies that were used solely in sentences that differed syntactically between DE and EL could probably be characterised as "language-specific" and b) strategies that were used irrespectively of the syntactic characteristics of the source and target texts could be characterised as "general" and their use attributed to the demands of the interpreting practice *per se*.

In the next paragraphs the language-specificity of the detected strategies is examined. The strategies are presented by frequency of occurrence, starting from the most and ending with the least frequent strategy in the corpus.

6.1. EVS

The "ear-voice-span" strategy was recorded in every sentence that was interpreted, thus forming the most obvious "general" interpreting strategy. It has to be noted, however, that there was a tendency for longer *waiting* in sentences with greater syntactic differences between DE and EL.

6.2. Stalling

"Stalling" instances appeared in both sentences with and without syntactic differences between DE and EL. Thus, it seems that stalling is a general strategy, which, however, is often utilised to counter language-specific difficulties; e.g. to "fill" the waiting time until a verb or a negation that appears late in a German sentence is heard.

6.3. Text compression

"Text compression" also appeared irrespective of the syntactic similarities or discrepancies between SL and TL. The first indications are that its use is imposed by the nature of SI, independently of the language pair of the interpreting.

6.4. Anticipation

All "anticipation" instances were recorded in sentences where discrepancies existed between the DE and the EL syntax. This is a clear indication that anticipation is rather a language-specific strategy, employed to assist the interpreter out of the plight imposed by language dissimilarities.

6.5. Self-correction

The majority of "self-correction" instances of this corpus concerned the correction of slips of the tongue or the choice of a different, sometimes more accurate and specific, rendition of a ST term other than the verb. Only two cases did concern the "correction" of an anticipated verb, which the interpreter "re-produced" in order

to provide a more accurate and less general rendition. Thus, self correction seems to be rather connected to stylistic choices made, irrespective of the language pair of the SI, than to language-specific factors.

6.6. Chunking

It would be arbitrary to reach a conclusion on the language-specificity of "chunking" based only on the five instances recorded in this study. There seems to be a tendency for the use of this strategy when syntactic differences exist between the ST and the TT. The strategy is not exclusively employed in such sentences, though. A more extensive study based on a larger corpus would probably shed more light on its use.

6.7. Text expansion

All four cases of "text expansion" appeared in sentences which did not pose any syntactic challenge. This could speak for the characterisation of the strategy as "general", since it seems to have no connection with language-specific difficulties. As above, however, so few instances are not enough for safe conclusions to be drawn.

6.8. Syntactic transformation

The strategy of "syntactic transformation" was used only once in this corpus, in a sentence where the verb appeared later in the DE sentence than it would be needed in its EL counterpart. One instance, however, is not enough in order to reach conclusions on the nature of this strategy.

7. Conclusions

The preceding corpus analysis verified the hypothesis that interpreting strategies would be used in DE-EL SI. Even in such a limited corpus, nine different strategies were recorded with various frequencies of appearance. As far as the relation of the strategies to the specific language pair is concerned, only anticipation showed clear indications of being dictated by the syntactic differences between DE and EL, so as to be characterised as "language-specific". Chunking and syntactic transformation also displayed indications of language-specificity; since there were only few instances of these strategies detected, however, no safe conclusion could be reached on their language-specific nature. Stalling could be characterised as a general strategy that, nonetheless, is often used to counter language-specific difficulties. The rest of the strategies that were recorded did not seem to be called for by the language pair involved in the interpreting; they appeared as general strategies evoked by the nature of the SI practice.

Needless to say that the present small-scale study is far from being exhaustive. It is based on an indicative corpus and thus manages to provide only some hints on the use of interpreting strategies in DE-EL SI; above all, it examines the use of SI strategies only in the specific context of the European Parliament.

A more extended study involving a larger corpus and more participating interpreters would be desirable, primarily in order to put these preliminary results to test, and most importantly to provide new, reliable evidence on strategy use in DE-EL SI.

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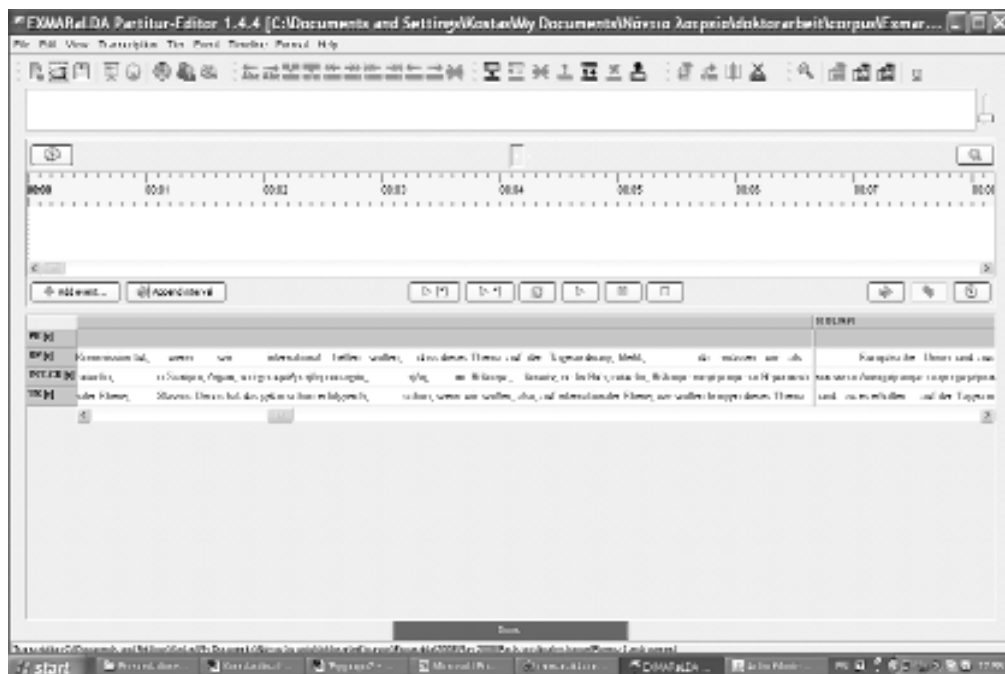
Appendix 1

Figure 2. Snapshot of EXMARaLDA software