



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduate Studies**

**College of Languages**



**Investigating the Possibility of Using Simultaneous  
Interpretation in Enhancing the English-  
Language of Sudanese University Students'  
Speaking and Listening Skills**

تقصي إمكانية إستخدام الترجمة الفورية في تعزيز مهارتي المخاطبة و الاستماع لدي  
الطلاب الجامعيين السودانيين في اللغة الإنجليزية

**(A Case Study of 3<sup>rd</sup> year EFL Students at Sudan University)**

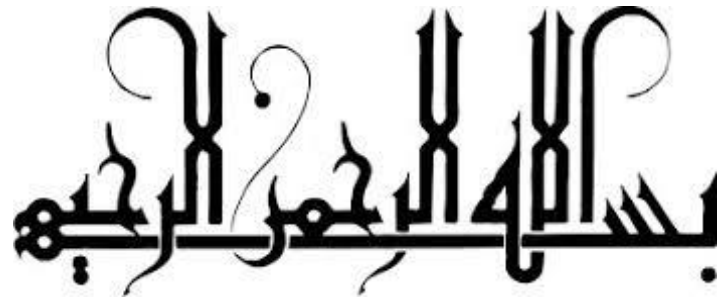
**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
PhD in English language (Translation)**

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# Preface



IN THE NAME OF ALLAH, THE MOST  
GRACIOUS, THE MOST MERCIFUL

# ***Dedication***

*To my mothers and sisters' souls, my father, brother,  
sisters, friends and colleagues.*

# ***Acknowledgements***

All my prayers and thanks to Allah the Almighty for making it easy to conduct this thesis.

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Ahmed Mukhtar Elmardi, who tirelessly helped and guided me throughout the time of carrying out this work. His long experience and competences have an essential role to enlighten me in the area of the study. His recommendations suggestions and advice have put me on the right track in the course of the study.

A lot of thanks are extended for all the libraries' staff members in different Sudanese, and Saudi universities for their assistance and co operation.

My thanks are also extended to the research tool jury members, the teachers and students who cooperated with me by responding to the questionnaire and the experiment tasks that made it easy for me to collect the primary data for the study.

### ***Abstract***

The study aims at investigating the possibility of using simultaneous interpretation in learning speaking and listening skills for 3<sup>rd</sup> year EFL students at Sudanese university. The research focused on six parameters; mainly, exploring the effect of interpretation in developing learners speaking and listening skills; developing speaking sub- skills, identifying English language prosodic features; examining the impact of interpretation in rising learner's awareness of English language items; clarifying the impact of interpretation in developing learners use of syntactic structures. The data were gathered through experimental method, where experimental group (A) which exposed to simultaneous interpretation tasks and control group (B) were used, speaking and a listening five scale rubrics were used to measure students' performance. As well, the researcher used a questionnaire to elicit English language teacher's views on the use of simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes. In this study, (SPSS) program was used for data analysis, the results were set in the form of graph and chart that shows different statistics constrains such as a comparison between group (A) and (B) based on the mean and difference, in addition to frequency and percentage of each item in the questionnaire, and the means and standard deviation. The results have shown a significant difference between the two groups, it is found that when the students are exposed to simultaneous interpretation their speaking and listening skills have been noticeably increased. The findings show teachers positive attitudes towards using simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes. They believe that 'interpretation is beneficial for language learning. It improves students' self-confidence in speaking; besides interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening' and also using L1 helps learners become more familiar with (L2) the target language culture. Moreover, SI develops language items i.e. vocabulary; improves syntactic structure i.e. complex sentence; fosters prosodic features i.e. intonation; enhances speaking sub skills i.e. fluency and accuracy. The researcher recommends a number of recommendations of which are: It is important to use interpretation as a teaching aid to develop learners' different speaking and listening skills because it creates a suitable language practice environment for the students so that they are able to practice speaking and listening skills at any time. The curriculum designers should incorporate interpretation in the future syllables as well as, the authorities should use interpretation for teaching EFL students and f training programs. In addition to some suggestions for further studies.

## Arabic Version of the Abstract

### المستخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة الى امكانية استخدام الترجمة الفورية لتعزيز مهارتي التحدث والاستماع للطلاب الجامعيين السودانيين الدارسين اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. تقوم الدراسة على ستة محاور على النحو التالي، معرفة أثر الترجمة الفورية في تطوير مهارات التحدث والاستماع لدى الطلاب، وأيضا تطوير مهارات التحدث الفرعية، اضافة الى ذلك التعرف على المهارات اللغوية التي تعتمد على النبرات الصوتية، وتحديد اثر الترجمة الفورية على ادراك الطلاب لعناصر اللغة الإنجليزية و اخيرا معرفة أثر الترجمة الفورية في تطوير استخدام التراكيب النحوية لدى الطلاب. لجمع البيانات الاولية تم استخدام الطريقة التجريبية حيث تم تحديد مجموعة تجريبية تم تدريسهم ترجمة الفورية ومجموعة اخرى قياسية ومن ثم تم اخضاع المجموعتين لاختبار مهارة التحدث والاستماع مبنية على فرضيات البحث وتم قياس النتيجة باستخدام اداة التقويم المستمر وتعرف بنماذج التقويم (روبرك) وهي عبارة عن جدول يحتوي على العناصر المراد قياسها وتدرج قياسي يبدأ بممتاز وينتهي بضعيف. وأيضا استخدم الباحث استنباطاً لاستنباط آراء معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية حول استخدام الترجمة الفورية في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. في هذه الدراسة تم استخدام برنامج تحليل الحزم الاحصائية لتحليل البيانات. تم تعيين النتائج في شكل رسوم ومخططات بيانية توضح المفاهيم الإحصائية على سبيل المثال مقارنة بين المجموعة التجريبية(أ) و القياسية(ب) بناءً على المتوسط والفرق الاحصائي بالإضافة الى التكرار ونسبة كل عنصر في الاستبيان. أظهرت النتائج فرقا احصائيا بين المجموعتين حيث وجد أن مهارة التحدث والاستماع لدى الطلاب في المجموعة التجريبية في تطور ملموس مقارنة بالمجموعة القياسية وهذا يعود الى تعرضهم للترجمة الفورية. اظهرت النتائج اراء ايجابية من المعلمين تجاه استخدام الترجمة الفورية في تدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية حيث يرون ان الترجمة الفورية مفيدة لتعلم اللغة. وأيضا تشير النتائج ان الترجمة الفورية تعمل على تعزيز الثقة بالنفس في مهارة التحدث. علاوة على ذلك تعمل الترجمة الفورية من اللغة الاجنبية الى لغة الام في بثقافة اللغة الاجنبية باستخدام رفع الادراك تطوير مهارة الاستماع في اللغة الاجنبية كما يساعد استخدام اللغة بتطوير عناصر اللغة كالمفردات ؛ الترجمة الفورية المعنى المرادف دون المعنى الحرفي. علاوة على ذلك ، تقوم وتحسين التراكيب النحوية كالجمل المعقدة ؛ وتعزز نقل المعاني بالنبرات الصوتية دون المفردات ؛ وتعزز وقد قدمت الباحثة بعض التوصيات منها: استخدام الترجمة الفورية. مهارات التحدث الفرعية كالطلاقة والدقة كأداة مساعدة في التدريس لتطوير مهارات التحدث والاستماع المختلفة لدى الطلاب لأنها تخلق بيئة مناسبة يجب على مصممي المناهج تضمين الترجمة الفورية في المناهج لممارسة مهارات التحدث والاستماع. هذا بالإضافة لبعض التوصيات المستقبلية واستخدامها لتدريس طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية وللبرامج التدريبية المقترحة لدراسات لاحقة.

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### List of Abbreviations

<b>No</b>	<b>Abbreviations</b>	<b>Word/s</b>
1	<b>SI</b>	Simultaneous Interpretation
2	<b>EVS</b>	Ear-Voice-Span
3	<b>FLT</b>	Foreign Language Teaching
4	<b>L2</b>	Second Language
5	<b>ELT</b>	English Language Teaching
6	<b>L1</b>	First Language (Mother Tongue Language)
7	<b>ESL</b>	English as a Second Language
8	<b>EFL</b>	English as a Foreign Language
9	<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for Social Science
10	<b>EE</b>	Error Elimination
11	<b>TT</b>	Tentative Theory
12	<b>DTS</b>	Descriptive Translation Studies
13	<b>ST</b>	Source Texts
14	<b>TL</b>	Target Language
15	<b>DAF</b>	Delayed Auditory Feedback
16	<b>SAS</b>	Supervisory Attentional System
17	<b>BIA</b>	Bilingual Interactive Activation (BIA)

## Definition/s of Term/s

Term/s	Definitions
<b>Simultaneous Interpretation</b>	"(SI) is when an interpreter translates the message from the source language to the target language in real-time. Unlike in consecutive <b>interpreting</b> , this way the natural flow of the speaker is not disturbed and allows for a fairly smooth output for the listeners."
<b>Prosodic Features</b>	" <b>Features</b> that appear when we put sounds together in connected speech. It is as important to teach learners <b>prosodic features</b> as successful communication depends as much on intonation, stress and rhythm as on the correct pronunciation of sounds. Intonation, stress and rhythm are <b>prosodic features</b> ."
<b>Visuospatial Sketchpad</b>	<b>Visuospatial Sketchpad</b> is a component of Working Memory Model proposed by Alan Baddeley and Graham Hitch in 1974. The <b>visuospatial sketchpad</b> (VS) is the section of one's normal mental facility which provides a virtual environment for physical simulation, calculation, visualization and optical memory recall.
<b>Phonological Loop</b>	"The <b>phonological loop</b> is a component of working memory model that deals with auditory information. It is subdivided into the <b>phonological store</b> (which holds words we hear) and the articulatory process (which allows us to repeat words in a <b>loop</b> )"
<b>Long-term memory</b>	" <b>Long-term memory</b> refers to the storage of information over an extended period. If you can remember something that happened more than just a few moments ago whether it occurred just hours ago or decades earlier, then it is a <b>long-term memory</b> "
<b>Delayed Auditory Feedback</b>	" <b>Delayed Auditory Feedback</b> (DAF), also called <b>delayed</b> sidetone, is a type of altered <b>auditory feedback</b> that consists of extending the time between speech and <b>auditory</b> perception. ... DAF has been shown to induce fluency in many individuals who stutter, though not all stutterers experience enhanced fluency by this technique".

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**CHAPTER ONE**  
**INTRODUCTION**

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **1.0 Background**

Interpreting is a mode of translation that involves orally translating the message heard in one language immediately and continuously into another language while the message is still being produced. It is a complex cognitive activity that requires the interpreter to listen to what the speaker says and render it immediately into another language, listen to the speaker's next message, store the message in memory before retrieving it again for translation, and monitor his or her own output, all at the same time.

The interpreter, while trying to render the preceding message into another language, has to continue to listen to the incoming message. This concurrent comprehension of the source language and production of the target language is perhaps the most amazing characteristic of the interpretation task. Studies show that the interpreter's speech overlaps with the speaker's speech time significantly (Lee, 1999b). This demand for concurrent listening and speaking has also made performing interpretation different from other communicative activities such as speaking or listening alone in at least two ways: First, unlike normal listening activities, the comprehension process of the source message is incremental (Frauenfelder & Schriefers, 1997). Second, the interpreter needs to give selective attention to both speaking and listening tasks.

Drawing on several linguistic theories, Schweda-Nicholson (1992) provided two justifications for the standard practice of interpreting only into the L1 language. First, the interpreters need to pay more attention to syntactic structure and lexical gaps when speaking L2 language; and second,

they also need to put more attention to prosodic features of L2 production and speaking sub-skills, such as fluency, discourse markers, accuracy ...etc.).

When learners rely on their L1 to process L2 and L2 to process L1 later they become able to have direct conceptual processing of L2 language, consequently their language proficiency will improve. The researcher, therefore, is intended to use interpretation of L1 to L2 as a tool to develop learners speaking and listening skills, because the process of L1 to L2 and L1 to L2 interpretation involve conscious cross-linguistic attention to syntactic structure and lexical gaps when speaking L2 language; besides attention to prosodic features of L2 production and speaking sub-skills, which in turn will develop students speaking and listening skills.

### **1.1. Statement of the Study Problem**

During the recent years, it has been noticed that Sudanese students have low proficiency in speaking and listening skills. The research attributes this phenomenon to students lack of practice and nonexistence to a suitable language environment that allow students to speak and listen naturally. The research, therefore, is intended to use interpretation as an aid or a tool to create fertile room for the students so that they are able to practice speaking and listening skills naturally. Using interpretation for this purpose will developing students linguistic conscious and develop their performance in L2 speaking and listening skills.

## **1.2 Objectives of the Study**

The study aims to:

1. Determining teachers' perception about the effect of using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching.
2. exploring the effect of interpretation in the developing of learners speaking skills.
3. Investigate the effect of interpretation in the developing of learners listening skills.
4. Find out speaking sub-skills which can be developed through interpretation.
5. Identifying prosodic features (patterns) which can be developed through interpretation.
6. examining the impact of interpretation in rising learners' awareness(consciousness) of (L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions.
7. Identifying the impact of interpretation in the developing of learners' use of syntactic structures.

## **1.3 Research Questions**

The study will explore the efficiency of using interpretation in developing student's language proficiency, accordingly the following questions are immersed:

1. What are the Teachers' perception about the effect of using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching?
2. Does interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 develop learners speaking skills?
3. Does interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 develop learners listening skills?

4. What type of speaking sub-skills does interpretation develop?
5. What type of the prosodic features (patterns) does interpretation develop?
6. Does interpretation develop learners' awareness (consciousness) of (L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions?
7. What type of syntactic structures does interpretation develop?

#### **1.4 Hypotheses**

The researcher hypothesizes the following:

1. Teachers' have positive attitudes towards using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching.
2. Interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners speaking skills.
3. Interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners listening skills.
4. There are different types of speaking sub-skills which can be developed using interpretation.
5. There are different types of the prosodic features (patterns) which can be developed using interpretation develop.
6. Interpretation can develop learners' awareness (consciousness) of (L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions.
7. There are different types of syntactic structures which can be developed using interpretation.

#### **1.5. Significance of the Study**

The study might be significant for the teachers because they will be able to use interpretation as a teaching aid to develop learners' different speaking and listening skills. In addition to that the study will create a suitable language practice environment for the students so that they are able to practice speaking

and listening skills at any time. The study might be significant for the curriculum designers to incorporate interpretation in the future syllables and also for the authorities to use interpretation for interpreters training programs.

## **1.6 Methodology**

The study aims at examining the use of interpretation as an aid of developing students' speaking and listening skills for EFL learners, therefore, an experimental research method is used, the researcher used two groups, experimental group (A) and Control group (B), then group (A) exposed an intensive interpretation task L1 to L2 to develop students speaking skills and L2 to L1 to develop their listening skills based on the research hypothesis and the teachers questionnaire items, such as fluency, discourse markers, accuracy, prosodic features, awareness of (L2) lexical items and L2 syntactic structures. Then the both groups were asked to again do other interpretation tasks to measure their performance using speaking and listening skills rubrics (**Appendices (B,C)**).

A Questionnaire was administrated for the teachers to elicit their perspectives about using interpretation as an aid for learning speaking and listening skills. (**Appendix (A)**).

## **1.7 Limits of the Study**

The study will be limited in identifying the effect of interpretation in developing students speaking and listening skills, it focus on the developing of students fluency, discourse markers, accuracy, prosodic features, awareness of (L2) lexical items and (L2) syntactic structures. The sample of the study are English major students at Sudan university in Khartoum state. The study will be conducted in the academic years 2016-2019.

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**CHAPTER TWO**  
**LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDISE**

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## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

#### **Part One: Literature Review**

##### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter is a theoretical framework of the study, it shows some literature review and previous studies about the implementations of simultaneous interpretation into EFL classes to promote university students listening and speaking skills.

##### **2.1 Definitions and Applications of Simultaneous Interpretation**

Simultaneous interpreting (SI) is a mode of translation that involves orally translating the message heard in one language immediately and continuously into another language while the message is still being produced. It is a complex cognitive activity that requires the interpreter to listen to what the speaker says and render it immediately into another language, listen to the speaker's next message, store the message in memory before retrieving it again for translation, and monitor his or her own output, all at the same time. Being highly proficient in at least two languages is a prerequisite for performing the act of simultaneous interpreting. Although interpreters are often assumed to have achieved perfect command of their working languages, second language and psycholinguistic studies have shown that, even for advanced learners of a second language, the comprehension and production processes in the second language (L2) often differ from the first language (L1), lending support to the hypothesis that simultaneous interpreting from L1 to L2



and from L2 to L1 may involve different processes and result in different products.

This distinction is the basis for a debate on directionality in SI, that is, whether interpreters should work from an L2, or a weaker language, into their L1, or a dominant language (referred as *B-to-A1* interpreting), or vice versa (referred as *A-to-B* interpreting or *detour* interpreting) (Pochhacker, 2003). Proponents of B-to-A interpreting assert that interpreters are at a disadvantage cognitively when interpreting from the A language into the B language due to the extra effort required to find corresponding expressions in their B language (e.g., Donovan, 2003; Seleskovitch, 1999). Supporters of A-to-B interpreting, on the other hand, contend that interpreters' better comprehension of their native language may help them produce a more complete and reliable interpretation (Williams, 1995).

While earlier debates about directionality in SI were based only on interpreters' personal experience or research findings extrapolated from other fields, increasingly more attention has been paid in recent years to providing evidence for either position through empirical studies of interpreters (Russo and Sandrelli, 2003). A review of this still limited pool of available research seems to support both ends of the directionality debate. For example, interpreters made more language use errors, but less meaning errors when interpreting from A to B (Lee, 2003). In terms of propositions correctly rendered from the source language to the target language, language direction did not produce results that were statistically different, although when interpreting difficult text, slightly more propositions were successfully rendered in the B to A direction (Tommola & Heleva, 1998). Regarding strategy use, interpreters seemed to use more transformation and generalization

when interpreting from A to B (Janis, 2002). The characteristics of the language pairs involved in the interpreting also appeared to affect interpreters' experience of interpreting from A to B and from B to A (Al-Salman & Al-Khanji, 2002).

## **2.2 The History of Simultaneous Interpreting**

The literature about the history of interpreting tends to associate simultaneous interpreting with the development of conference interpreting, and in particular with the Nuremberg trials, after World War II (e.g. Baigorri Jalón, 2004). It is definitely the Nuremberg trials which gave high visibility to simultaneous interpreting, which had been experimented with at the ILO (International Labor Organization) and at the League of Nations with limited success (Baigorri Jalón, 2004, chapter III), perhaps to a large extent because of resistance by leading conference interpreters who were afraid that this development would reduce their prestige and be detrimental to working conditions (Baigorri Jalón, 2004, p. 148). In signed language interpreting, in all likelihood, simultaneous interpreting became a popular interpreting mode, perhaps even a default mode early on. It allowed faster communication than consecutive. Moreover, whereas in spoken language interpreting, there is vocal interference between the source speech and the interpreter's speech, in signed language interpreting, there is none. Ball (2013, p. 4-5) reports that as early as 1818, Laurent Clerc, a deaf French teacher, addressed US President James Monroe and the Senate and Congress of the United States in sign language, and "while he signed", Henry Hudson, an American teacher, "spoke the words". After World War II, simultaneous was used mostly in international organizations where fast interpreting between several languages became necessary and where waiting for several consecutive interpretations into more than one language was not an option. But it soon extended to other environments such as multinational corporations, in particular for Board of Director meetings, shareholders

meetings, briefings, to press conferences, to international medical, scientific and technological conferences and seminars, and to the media. Television interpreting, for instance, has probably become the most visible form of (mostly) simultaneous interpreting, both for spoken languages and for signed languages, and there are probably few people with access to radio and TV worldwide who have not encountered simultaneous interpreting on numerous occasions. Professional conference interpreter organizations such as AIIC (the International Association of Conference Interpreters, the most prestigious organization, which was set up in Paris in 1953 and has shaped much of the professional practices and norms of conference interpreting) claim high level simultaneous interpreting as a major conference interpreting asset, but simultaneous interpreting is also used in the courtroom and in various public service settings, albeit most often in its whispered form. All in all, it is probably safe to say that besides signed language interpreting settings, where it is ever-present, simultaneous interpreting has become the dominant interpreting mode in international organizations and in multi-language meetings of political, economic, scientific, technical and even high-level legal meetings as well as in television programs, while consecutive interpreting is strong in dialogue interpreting, e.g. in one-on-one negotiations, in visits of personalities to foreign countries, and in encounters in field conditions where setting up interpreting equipment is difficult.

### **2.3 The Phenomenon of Simultaneous Interpreting**

### **2.3.1 Concurrent Listening and Speaking**

A simultaneous interpreter, while trying to render the preceding message into another language, has to continue to listen to the incoming message. This concurrent comprehension of the source language and production of the target language is perhaps the most amazing characteristic of the SI task. Studies show that the interpreter's speech overlaps with the speaker's speech time significantly (Chernov, 1979; Gerver, 1974, 1975; Lee, 1999b). This demand for concurrent listening and speaking has also made performing SI different from other communicative activities such as speaking or listening alone in at least two ways: First, unlike normal listening activities, the comprehension process of the source message is incremental (Frauenfelder & Schriefers, 1997). Second, the interpreter needs to give selective attention to both speaking and listening tasks in order to do the job well.

However, despite the heavy demand on working memory imposed by the task of simultaneous interpreting, research has shown that interpreters do not necessarily have a larger working memory than non-interpreters but instead have learned to use their working memory more efficiently (Liu, 2001). Neither is it that interpreters divide their attention during simultaneous interpreting. Rather, they selectively attend to important information (Cowan, 2000).

### **2.3.2 Ear-voice-span (EVS)**

Another noticeable characteristic of SI is the lag, also known as ear-voice-span (EVS), between the time the speaker's messages are heard and the time the interpreter actually produces the translation of the messages. EVS provides good evidence for the interpreter's incremental

comprehension of messages (Frauenfelder & Schriefers, 1997) as the interpreter often has to start uttering a translation of a message before the source message is completed. Studies calculating the average length of EVS have reported the range to be from 2 to 10 seconds (for a review, see Lee, 2002).

The length of EVS has a great impact on the interpreter's performance. A short EVS can result in less smooth production while a long EVS can result in loss of information. Consequently, interpreters continuously adjust their EVS during the SI process to achieve the best effects (Gile, 1995).

## **2.4 Theoretical Models of Interpreting**

### **2.4.1 Gile's Effort Model**

The difficulty posed by simultaneous interpreting is evidenced by the fact that even experienced interpreters produce errors when interpreting. It shows that there is an intrinsic difficulty in interpreting and Gile's (1995) Effort Model for simultaneous interpretation sought to capture this difficulty. The basic notion underlying this model is that the interpreter's processing capacity is limited, thus when the processing demands exceed processing capacity, interpretation performance will deteriorate.

There are a number of information processing models that have been proposed to account for the SI process (Moser-Mercer 1997). One of most cited models is the Effort Model proposed by Gile (1995, 1997).

The Effort Model describes the process of SI as a combination of four concurrent efforts—SI = Listening and Analyzing (L) + Production

(P) + Memory (M) + Coordination (C). When the total processing requirements for these efforts (or any individual process requirement) exceed the interpreter's available cognitive resources, errors or omission of speech segment during or following the "cognitive breakdown" is likely to occur, even if that segment *per se* is not problematic.

Based on his observation of simultaneous interpretation, Gile modeled simultaneous interpretation as consisting of three major Efforts: the listening and analysis effort, speech production effort, and short-term memory effort. A fourth component of the model is the coordination effort. The three major effort components are thought of as being active at the same time while each possesses limited capacity. Depending on the tasks involved, each effort is given specific processing capacity requirements. Further, because the incoming speech flow varies widely and each interpreter segments processing units differently, processing capacity requirements for each effort may vary to a great extent over a matter of just a few seconds. For the interpretation to proceed smoothly, at any given point during interpretation, the capacity required for each of the four efforts must be tantamount to or greater than its requirements for the task at hand (Gile, 1997).

Gile (1995) noted that processing capacity requirements for each effort sometimes are further burdened by interaction between the individual requirements for the separate efforts. Interference from source language to target language is one instance, which is why the interpreters are often taught to make every effort to not use words and sentence structures that resemble those in the source language speech (Gile, 1995).

## 2.4.2 Baddeley's Working Memory Model

Baddeley developed one of the most influential models of working memory (Baddeley, 1986; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). Working memory, based on this model, is composed of three subsystems: a) the central executive, b) the phonological loop, and 3) the visuospatial sketchpad. Baddeley (2000) added a fourth component, the episodic buffer, which is assumed to be capable of “storing information in a multi-dimensional code” (p. 421) and serves as an interface between long-term memory and the phonological loop and visuospatial sketchpad. The central executive coordinates the processes of the episodic buffer and two other subsidiary slave systems and acts as an attentional control mechanism. The visuospatial sketchpad processes visual images while the phonological loop is responsible for storing verbally coded information and is therefore most relevant for simultaneous interpretation. The central executive is involved in “general” processing but does not have storage capacity, but this gap was filled by the addition of episodic buffer to Baddeley's (2000) working memory model.

According to Baddeley (2000), the phonological store and the sub vocal rehearsal process are the two subparts of phonological loop. The phonological store temporarily holds acoustically perceived verbal information that quickly decays after about 1.5 to 2 seconds unless the information gets refreshed by the sub vocal rehearsal process.

Memory traces of verbally coded messages are fed back into the articulatory control processes through sub vocal rehearsal, thereby prolonging their presence within the working memory.

Studies examining the relation between working memory and simultaneous interpretation have found that when participants were subjected to articulatory suppression, i.e., when they were asked to perform recall tasks and utter a string of irrelevant syllables or words, the interpreters outperformed the other groups (e.g. Bajo et al., 2000; Padilla, Bajo, Cañas, & Padilla, 1995; Padilla, Bajo, & Macizo, 2005). The condition of articulatory suppression poses difficulty in verbal recall tasks mainly because it disrupts the process of sub vocal rehearsal that is necessary for refreshing verbal information and maintaining the information in the phonological store (Baddeley, 1996). Since the articulation of output material in simultaneous interpretation resembles articulatory suppression (Padilla et al., 2005), simultaneous interpreters are viewed as being more resistant to its negative effects and are consequently considered to have a larger working memory.

### **2.4.3 Just and Carpenter's Theory of Working Memory Capacity**

Based on Baddeley's (1981, 1986) working memory model in which he emphasized the processing and temporary storage functions of this system, Just and Carpenter (1992) developed the working memory capacity model. According to Miyake, Just, and Carpenter (1994), working memory is capable of both processing and storing information and is considered to be the site for both carrying out various language processes and holding intermediate and/or final products of comprehension. The processing and storage functions of the working memory compete for a shared limited capacity, and the ability to process and store information simultaneously is often used to distinguish skilled and unskilled speakers (Daneman, 1991).



Although being of limited capacity, working memory is not the same between two individuals. Those who are more “efficient” in executing the cognitive tasks at hand are regarded as having a larger working memory capacity. A good reader, for example, may need fewer processes than the poor reader to process the same material and therefore be considered more efficient as well as possessing a larger working memory capacity (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980). Working memory also plays an important role in verbal fluency (Daneman & Green, 1986) and can be used as an index for choosing or training individuals in professions that require a lot of speaking such as simultaneous interpretation. In ordinary speaking, all speakers have to plan what to say, temporarily store the plans, and finally implement them in the form of words or sentences. As such, speakers who have small working memory capacities have been found to be slower and less fluent at producing words, sentences, and phrases that are context-appropriate than speakers who have larger working memory capacities (Daneman, 1991). In simultaneous interpretation, the interpreter is continuously engaged in online processing and storing of information and having a large working memory capacity is therefore crucial (e.g., Christoffels et al., 2003; Christoffels et al., 2006). The reading span test developed by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) is frequently used as a measure to assess or predict an individual’s performance in tasks that involve concurrent processing and storage of information such as language comprehension. In the reading span test, participants read sentences that increase in set sizes and recall sentence-final words. The total number of successfully recalled words (e.g., Daneman, 1991) or the largest set size in which the majority of the sentence-final words are recalled (e.g., Daneman & Carpenter, 1980) represents the participants’ working memory capacity.

## **2.5 Conference Interpreting (Community Interpreting)**

The institutional setting of interpreted events has been used to carve up the field of SI practitioners in terms of resources and prestige. “Conference” interpreting is usually posed in contrast with “community” interpreting, and conference interpreters have generally received more training and more prestige than their counterparts working in the everyday world of social services, public education, medical appointments, court cases, employment situations and emergency response. The terms of distinction are instructive and a target for critique.

The conference interpreting style in the European Parliament is descended directly from the Nuremberg precedent. It generally adheres to a translation ideal that “historically...has valorized translations that measure up to some ideal by smoothing over contradictions, and has ignored or dismissed those which do not seem to cohere. Such a practice, in turn, affects that which gets produced” (Gentzler, 2001, p. 200). Community-style interpreting has been indirectly influenced by the Nuremberg precedent through the process of professionalization. To some extent, community SI has escaped the full force of conference-style systemic constraints. Although struggle has been necessary to mold this relative looseness in community SI to support a broader range of voices during SI, this struggle brings the double constitution of language use and the social co-construction of reality into view.

Gentzler (2001) explains it like this:

In the act of reproducing the textual relations (of the original text), a double constitution becomes quite lucid: the language restraints imposed by the receiving culture are enormous, yet the possibility of creating new relations in the present are also vivid - not just the old relations transported to a new time and place, but also a myriad of signifying practices that both reinforce and alter present signifying practices. In fact, the process of translation and the process of

construction of our own identities may be analogous: as translations are subject to at least the two semiotic systems (source and target languages) but are nevertheless capable of changing those very structures, so we, as humans, are the subjects of a variety of discourses but are also free to change those relations that condition our existence. (p. 200)"

## **2.6 Interpreting Vs Translation**

One way to understand the essential difference between interpretation and translation as cultural productions is to apply McLuhan's (1964) insight about communication technologies: the medium is the message. The standard distinction, that translation is written and interpretation live is both too simplistic and exactly the point. The frozen quality of words written in a permanent form puts readers in a specific zone of asynchronous relationship with the other participants in the communication process. The author(s), translator(s) and readers are usually not together in either time or space: they are typically scattered about in more-or-less random places which may or may not even be in the same geographic location where the author wrote or the translator translated. Readers and translators are engaged with the text after the time the author has written, and at different times than when other members of the audience are reading it. Characteristically and classically, translation involves relatively few overlaps in time space.

In contrast with the essentially solitary activity of writing or reading a written text, the experience of participating as an interpreter in simultaneous interpretation puts one in the midst of a spontaneous and dynamic communication process. Typically, interpreters are in the same physical space, or conditions are created so as to seem 'together' through the use of sophisticated technology (such as video).

Simultaneous interpretation has time boundaries in the present: there is a starting and endpoint, you are ‘here’ and ‘now’ (present in body, with others) and may (or may not) achieve voice depending on the attention and focus of your mind, rhetorical skills, and familiarity with the norms of social interaction in the specific setting.

(Recordings that one can watch or listen to afterwards shift the audience member along the relational time space continuum in the direction of frozen text because the immediate interactive capacity is eliminated.) Crucially, and in sharp distinction from translation, interpretation occurs within a relationally-shared time space. We will not forget that *at the linguistic level* translators of written texts do sometimes interpret, and simultaneous interpreters sometimes achieve felicitous translations. This may be why Vermeer can “[state] that everything he says about translation refers to interpreting, and *vice versa* (1989: 83-83)” (Vuorikoski, 2004, p. 55). Here is a brief illustration from a prose-poem by Ama Ata Aidoo:

‘Zo vas is zis name, “Sissie”’?

‘Oh, it is just a beautiful way they call “Sister” by people who like you very much. Especially if there are not many girl babies in the family . . . . one of the very few ways where an original concept from our old ways has been given expression successfully in English.’

‘Yes?’

‘Yes . . . . Though even here, they had to beat in the English word, somehow.’ (Aidoo, 1977, p. 28)

The closeness of match between languages regarding a particular expression is what distinguishes, linguistically, a “literal” translation from a “free” interpretation. The closer a lexical match, the more

translational; the further the reach to establish a connection of some sort, the more interpretive. Nuances of distinction and similarity at these semantic, syntactic, or grammatical levels will generally not be included in this study, which is focused on the interactional level, e.g., the collective and group-level dynamics of engaging the interpreter as a remedy for many kinds of repairs.

Using the terms ‘interpret’ and ‘translate’ as if they are synonyms has effects that will be demonstrated. Analogies from math and engineering serve as metaphors to illustrate the significance of distinctions between translation and interpretation, all in service of demonstrating that the differences are worth serious consideration. In contrast with the linguistic emphasis on control via immediate matching of meaning in the space of interaction, we will focus on the unfolding of meaning in time at the level of relationships as they are co-constructed among interpreter and interpreters through mutual engagement in intercultural communication using simultaneous interpretation.

The theoretical goal is to establish, on the basis of discursive and behavioral evidence, the necessity of valuing and making creative social uses of the time space components of simultaneous interpretation. Two aspects of temporality have been identified as figural in distinguishing between interpretation and translation. One aspect is the synchrony of participants in interpretation versus the asynchrony of participants in translation. The other aspect is the fixing of meaning in a linguistic now instead of in a continuously-unfolding time stream. The practical goal of comprehending these temporal features is to produce an argument illustrating that the intercultural communication practice of simultaneous interpretation can be revitalized to serve, institutionally, as a societal-level design intervention for promoting cultural and linguistic

diversity in order to counteract time-space compression (Harvey 1990), particularly as it has been generated, via language and language use, by the age of mechanical reproduction.

## **2.7 Approaches of Translation in Teaching**

Looking at approaches to translation in teaching indicates that not all translation theories are suitable to guide translator training. This section will examine some representative approaches or applied theories of translation which are frequently used and quoted in translation teaching, though they may not often be well understood. These approaches are: the interpretive approach, translation as cultural communication, translation strategies, the integrated approach to translation studies, and functionalist approaches. The purpose of this examination here is to introduce their main contents, models, assumptions and contributions to teaching – besides considering some of their limitations.

### **2.7.1 The Interpretive Approach**

A manifesto of the interpretive approach to translation can be seen in the Canadian scholar Delisle's (1988) *Translation: An Interpretive Approach*. He regarded translation as an intellectual activity located in the process of thinking, language and reality: teaching students how to translate meant teaching the intellectual process by which a message is transposed into another language, i.e. the meaning or sense of a message is transferred from one language to another. Establishing a link between theory and practice, Delisle

proposed a model which is intended to provide teachers of translation with an original method for training students to translate pragmatic texts<sup>2</sup> from English to French. His basic premise was that ‘translation is an art of re-expression based on writing techniques and a knowledge of two languages’ (1988: 3). This model worked via two logical routes: an interpretive approach to discourse analysis with emphasis on the manipulation of language; and pedagogical objectives and exercises that are directly related to this approach and its theoretical basis. In his model, two complementary aptitudes of comprehension (to extract the author’s intended meaning from the original text [interpretive analysis]) and re-expression (to reconstruct the text in another language [writing techniques]) were required. To train his students to develop them, he provided a heuristic process of intelligent discourse analysis for translation, which involves three stages of comprehension, reformulation and verification. Comprehension requires decoding the linguistic signs of the source text with reference to the language system. Reformulation involves re-verbalizing the concepts of the source language by means of the signifiers of another language, realized through reasoning successive associations of thoughts and logic assumptions. Verification can be described as a process of comparison of the original and its translation.

Notably, Delisle emphasizes is that it is important to differentiate between professional translation and academic (or pedagogical) translation in order to set specific goals for an introductory course. His point in expounding academic and professional translation and the qualities of the translator is that pedagogical translation cannot be equated with the pedagogy of translation: he limits translation pedagogy to ‘the manipulation of language’ (1988: 81). This raises a fundamental

question in translation pedagogy: how the teaching of translation should be structured so that the student emerges mindful of how to go about translating rather than with a mind full of facts. What sounds coherent in Delisle's theory of translation pragmatically is the assumption that the novice translator should focus on the manipulation of language by making use of pragmatic texts before dealing with more complex processes of translation. This limits his model to training novice translators in the stage of understanding the manipulation of language.

### **2.7.2 Translation as cultural communication**

Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997) look at translation as cultural communication by incorporating research in sociolinguistics, discourse studies, pragmatics and semiotics. They view discourse in its wider context and define it as 'modes of speaking and writing which involve social groups in adopting a particular attitude towards areas of socio-cultural activity (e.g. racist discourse, bureaucratise, etc.)' (1997: 216). They limit their texts to three categories - argumentative, expository and instructional text types (1990: 155-159) - in order to train translation students to pay attention to the realization in translation of ideational and interpersonal functions (rather than just textual functions). In their opinion, texts function as socio-cultural 'signs' within a system not merely of linguistic expression but also of socio-textual conventions. They particularly concentrate on identifying 'dynamic' and 'stable' elements in a text (1997: 27-35), because they use these two key notions to analyze the translation process and the role of the translator as communicator. Accordingly, from the point of view of pedagogy they relate the notion of text type to the actual process of translation and to the translator at work. For this consideration, they put forward a set of the relevant criteria for text selection, evaluation and assessment. This is



useful for training students how to relate an integrated account of discourse processes to the practical concerns of the translator; it promotes translation teaching from a linguistic to a communicative perspective. To attain this, Hatim and Mason propose that ‘what is needed is systematic study of problems and solutions by close comparison of the source text and the target text procedures. Which techniques produce which effects? What are the regularities of the translation process in a particular genre, in particular cultures and in particular historical periods?’ (1990: 3). From this viewpoint, translation is regarded not as a sterile linguistic exercise but as an act of communication. The translator is viewed as an intercultural mediator who incorporates notions of culture and ideology into their analysis of translation.

Looking at translators as communicators provides translation students with a situation in which they can know that a translator who works in a particular socio-cultural situation is likely to have an ideological background, and acts in a social context and is part of that context. However, Hatim and Mason’s (1990) three categories of text type are narrow. There is no consideration of any hybrid text type. Furthermore, the approach to the analysis of texts starts from source language and text, which leads to a linguistic center focus, both in its terminology and in the phenomena investigated (‘lexical choice’, ‘cohesion’, ‘transitivity’, ‘style shifting’, ‘translator mediation’, etc.). Besides, this textbook has numerous concepts which easily shift attention from understanding translation, at least for non-European language learners.

### 2.7.3 Translation strategies

Most translation textbooks list different translation strategies, skills and methods which are in linguistic domains. This is because translation strategies and translation skills are necessary in foreign language teaching. Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies was one of main topics in translation teaching. A notable feature is that he presents his view of translation theory metaphorically in a Popperian framework by integrating the idea of 'memes from sociobiology' in cultural evolution studies (1997: 5) with Karl Popper's philosophical concept of the three Worlds<sup>3</sup>. He develops his 'Popperian framework' from theory to practice by illustrating his five 'super memes' of translation theory: the source-target metaphor, the equivalence idea, the myth of untranslatability, the free-vs.-literal argument and the idea that all writing is a kind of translating. This frame was displayed as follows:

$$P1 \implies TT \implies EE \implies P2 \text{ (Chesterman 1997: 14)}$$

In this framework, he considered that all knowledge acquisition starts with a Problem (P1). In dealing with P1, people need a Tentative Theory (TT) or tentative hypothesis, which is a trial solution. The TT is subjected to a process of Error Elimination (EE). This is a methodological stage and it is exposed to tests and criticism of all kinds. The result of the EE process leads to a new Problem (P2). In his Popperian framework, Chesterman regards translation strategies as 'memes' which 'are ways in which translators seek to conform to norms [...] not to achieve equivalence but simply to arrive at the best version they can think of, what they regard as the optimal translation' (1997: 88). This framework displayed by Chesterman describes the translation process of scientific methodology and in fact describes the acquisition

of all rational knowledge. For this reason, Chesterman classifies translation strategies into three categories of *syntactic strategies*, *semantic strategies* and *pragmatic strategies*, which he regards as ‘production strategies’ (1997: 92).

According to Chesterman, syntactic strategies should be regarded as involving purely syntactic changes of one kind or another; semantic strategies manipulate meaning, and they mainly have to do with lexical semantics but also cover aspects of clause meaning such as emphasis; and the pragmatic strategies primarily have to do with the selection of information in the target text which is subjected to the translator’s knowledge of the potential readership of the translated texts. These three categories of translation strategies interact in the Popperian framework, but pragmatic strategies are considered at a higher level. Chesterman argues, ‘if syntactic strategies manipulate form, and semantic strategies manipulate meaning, pragmatic strategies can be said to manipulate the message itself’ (1997: 107). So he sets the pragmatic strategies in groups of cultural filtering, change in explicitness, information change, interpersonal change, illocutionary change, coherence change, partial translation, visibility change, trans editing, and other pragmatic changes (1997: 92-112; cf. Chesterman and Wagner 2002: 60-63).

Chesterman’s (1997) Popperian framework provides a scientific method for looking at a translation process of using translation strategies. They were chosen as an exemplar, though the category of the pragmatic strategies relates to ‘the selection of information in the target text’, is an inter textual process which depends on the translator’s manipulation of language. Chesterman’s Popperian framework and his translation strategies are systematic but hierarchical in terms of the

starting point of translating a source text. Little attention is paid to the translator's subjectivity and social cultural factors. Compared to his causal model, this appears very limited and contradictory to what actually takes place currently in translation teaching and is thus, arguably, less useful for translation teaching.

#### **2.7.4 Descriptive Translation Studies: norms**

Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) nowadays is frequently used synonymously with literary translation studies and cultural studies (Schaffner 2004: 37). The Descriptive translation approach is also categorized into Systems Theories by Jeremy Munday (2001: 108-121) and it relates to literary translation. In particular since the late 1970s, scholars have increasingly (and more forcefully) pointed out that authentic translations are not faithful and equivalent reproductions of the source texts (ST) as demanded by (normative) linguistics-based translation theories. These findings are related to the socio-historical constraints which translators face. Scholars working within DTS describe translation as the result of a context-dependent activity, and the resulting target texts (TT) are seen as facets of target systems (Herman's, 1999).

Taking his inspiration from the work of Even-Zohar's poly system (1990), Toury (1995: 13, 36-39 and 102) thinks that translation basically takes up a position in the social and literary systems of the target culture, and this position affects the choice of translation strategies that are taken into account. With this approach in mind, he establishes his view on the poly system work of Even-Zohar who sees translated literature as part of the cultural, literary and historical system of the target language (TL), and advances his three-dimensional

methodology for systematic descriptive translation studies (DTS), integrating a description of the product and the wider role of the socio-cultural system: 1) situate the text within the target culture system, looking at its significance or acceptability; 2) compare the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) for shifts, identifying relationships between ‘coupled pairs’ of ST and TT segments, and attempting generalizations about the underlying concept of translation; and 3) draw implications for decision-making in future translating. This methodology allows not only the possibility of other pairs of similar texts to build up a descriptive profile of translations according to genre, period, author, etc. but also the norms pertaining to each kind of translation to be identified, with the ultimate aim of stating laws of translation behavior in general.

In order to distinguish trends in translation behavior, to make generalizations regarding the decision-making processes of the translator and then to ‘reconstruct’ the norms that have been in operation in the translation and make hypotheses that can be tested by future descriptive studies, Toury (1995: 56-59) looks into different kinds of norms operating at different stages of the translation process, such as initial norms (which refer to a decision made by translators to adhere primarily to source text or target culture), preliminary norms (which refer to overall strategy, using existing texts and previous translations) and operational norms (actual decisions during translation processes) in order to express ‘the translation of general values or ideas shared by a community – as to what is right or wrong, adequate or inadequate—into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations’ (1995: 55). His argument is that ‘norms always imply sanctions’ and ‘serve as criteria according to which actual

instances of behavior are evaluated'(ibid.). Thus, norms are not prescriptive but a category of descriptive analysis, for these norms 'determine the (type and extent of) equivalence manifested in actual translations' (1995: 61). Baker comments, 'The notion of norms provides a descriptive category which makes it possible to elaborate precisely such nonrandom, verifiable statements about types of translation behaviors' (Baker 2009: 190). What Toury appears to argue through norm theory is that translators cannot avoid the constraints of different norms when they make decisions during the procedure of doing translation. The appropriateness of translational behavior is determined by a given set of norms in a given community. Further other 'norms' were developed (cf. Hermans 1998, 1999; Chesterman, 1997, 2001). For example, Chesterman views 'norms' as product or expectancy norms and process or professional norms, which cover the area of Toury's initial and operational norms. He views that product or expectancy norms 'are established by the expectations of readers of a translation (of a given type) concerning what a translation (of this type) should be like' (1997: 64). Factors governing these norms cover the predominant translation tradition in the target culture, the discourse conventions of the similar target language (TL) genre, and economic and ideological considerations. Professional norms 'regulate the translation process itself' (1997: 67). His ideas of norms are further developed in his consideration of translation ethics.

Thus, DTS scholars examine decision-making in translation, translation norms, and the effects of translated texts on the target national literature. They also consider how target texts have been brought into line with the system of norms that govern the literary system in a culture, and how they have succeeded (or not) in competing

with original texts and genres for prestige and power in the target polycyclic. It is argued that, from the target text (TT) perspective ‘all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the ST for a certain purpose’ (Hermans 1985: 11 – hence the name ‘Manipulation School’). The term ‘equivalence’ is either rejected or redefined in the controversy with respect to this term in general and also within the framework of DTS. The remarkable point is that source texts have been somewhat ‘dethroned’ from translation ever since. Recent research on the sociology of translation (Wolf and Fukari, 2007) further develops norms and conventions to describe socio-cultural constraints of product, translator and process in more wide ranging sociological views.

The norm theory of Descriptive Translation Studies is barely reflected in current translation teaching: it seems largely absent from textbooks and theoretical courses; there are few explanations of what and how the norm theory functions in translation, and how this theory can benefit translation students. Yet it seems evident that norm theory will be helpful to cultivate and shape the viewpoints of translation students on socio-cultural contexts of target texts if it is facilitated into translation theory and practice in teaching.

### **2.7.5 Functionalist approaches**

Functionalist approaches to translation appeared mainly during the 1970s and 1980s when both practical translation activities and translator training increased particularly in Germany and Finland (Schaffner 2001:14). Translation theories started to move away from the static linguistic typologies of translation shifts to a functionalist and communicative approach for the analysis of translation. For example, Katharina Reiss (1989) stresses equivalence at text level, linking

language functions to text types and translation strategy. Holz-Manttari (1984) proposes the theory of translational action which borrows concepts from communication theory and action theory with the aim of providing a model and guidelines applicable to a wide range of professional translation situations. Vermeer's *Skopos* (1989/2000) focuses on the purpose of the translation, which determines the translation methods and strategies that are to be employed in order to produce a functionally adequate target text result. With her critique of Reiss's text type approach and *Skopos* theory, Nord (1991) provides a functional model of translation-oriented text analysis which is applicable to all text types and translation situations. Since the model inherits the other functional concepts, it enables understanding of the function of source text (ST) features and the selection of translation strategies appropriate to the intended purpose of the translation. Thus, 'Functionalist approaches' is a cover term for a number of theoretical reflections in translation teaching and translator training.

Functionalist approaches emphasize the intention of a text, its essential information and business, rather than the static linguistic-based source language (SL) analysis. Functionalist approaches are not based on an opposition between linguistic and cultural aspects. On the contrary, they take into account the systematic relationship between linguistic structures at the textual micro-level and social, cultural, historical conditions of text production and reception (both in the ST and TT cultures). They also accommodate Toury's differentiation between the act of translation and the translation event (e.g. Toury 1995: 249ff.), i.e. the distinction between the cognitive aspects of translation as a decision-making process and the social, historical, cultural, ideological, etc. contexts of situation in which the translation



act is embedded. This is the point for functionalist approaches to be well suited to the systematic training of translators. Nevertheless, whereas for Toury the TT is the starting point for identifying regularities in translators' behavior and linking them to acts and events and determining norms, the TT is usually (but not exclusively) the end product when functionalist approaches are used for training purposes. As Schaffner argues, for this applied area of Translation Studies, 'functionalist approaches to translation work can describe and explain translation processes and products very well' (2001: 13).

The perspective of functionalist scholars means that the linguistic structures of the ST are no longer seen as the only yardstick with which to judge the quality and appropriateness of the target text (TT). The choice of the linguistic structures of the TT is not determined by the linguistic structures of the ST but by the translation brief; i.e. consideration needs to be given to the intended purpose of the TT, its situation of use, its addressees with their knowledge and expectations, the relevance of genre conventions, etc. In other words, the linguistic structure of the ST is only one in the network of factors determining TT production. This is important for this research since functionalist approaches do not 'dethrone' the source text (ST), but they require the translator to carry out a thorough ST analysis of a text in its source culture to determine the strategies by which the translation brief can be fulfilled most appropriately. Such a perspective was seldom stressed in translation teaching.

It is significant for teachers of translation to know the nature of functionalist approaches and employ them in teaching. This can be helped by understanding the 'three aspects of functionalist approaches that are particularly useful in translator training: the importance of the

translation brief, the role of source-text analysis, and the classification and hierarchization of translation problems' (Nord 1997: 59). Take the translation brief for example: it can help the translator to compare source text and target text profiles defined in the brief to see where the two texts may diverge; it should offer information for both texts, like the intended text functions, the addressees, the time and place of text reception, the medium and the motive (Nord 1997: 59-62). Hence functionalist approaches can lead to translation as a purposeful activity which is embedded in and determined by other activities. It will be useful for translation pedagogic purposes that the application of functionalist approaches can offer guidelines to translation teaching and point out the complexity of translation which needs to link decisions at the micro level to macro aspects such as the immediate context, the larger context, the function of the ST, and the *skopos* of the TT.

## **2.8 Factors affecting SI performance**

A wide variety of factors have been identified to affect SI performance (Liu, 2001; Setton, 1999). Many of these factors are concerned with the characteristics of the source texts. Studies investigating the temporal features of simultaneous interpreting have shown, for example, that an interpreter's performance is very sensitive to the delivery rate of speech input. As the rate of speech input increases, the portion of speech accurately interpreted decreases (Lee, 1999a). The optimal rate for interpreting non-recited texts has been suggested at about 100-120 wpm (words-per-minute), with 150-200 wpm as an upper limit (Seleskovitch, 1965, cited in Gerver, 1976). For recited texts that lack the features of hesitation and redundancy typically characterizing

normal oral speech, the maximum rate is suggested at 100 wpm (Lederer , 1981, as cited in Setton, 1999).

The “writtenness” of the source speech, which may involve features such as language complexity and information density , has also been found to affect SI performance. Speeches with more difficult syntactic structures and words of lower frequency have been found to pose more problems for interpreters (Daro et al., 1996). So were speeches with less redundancy (Chernov , 1994). In addition, noise or a speaker with an unfamiliar accent can also be detrimental to SI performance (Sabatini, 2000/01).

Factors involving the characteristics of individual interpreters have received less attention in interpreting research. Most discussions has focused only on the background knowledge of the interpreters as an important factor affecting their performance on different topics, as speeches with less familiar topics are usually harder to interpret (Chernov , 1994). Although language proficiency of the interpreters by all means affects their performance, it is an assumed and often neglected factor. Given the prominence of linguistic proficiency in the SI process and the fact that there is almost always a lag between one’ s proficiency in L1 and L2, it is safe to expect that language direction is one of those variables that influence interpreters’ performance and different uses of strategies.

## **2.9 Directionality in SI**

The issue of directionality, or whether an interpreter should work into his or her dominant or non-dominant language, has remained one of the most controversial issues in interpreting studies

(Dejean le Feal, 1998). The debate on directionality in SI is often traced back to the different ideological positions taken by some prominent interpreting researchers and practitioners in the “Paris School” and those in the “Soviet School” (Minns, 2002; Pochhacker, 2003), whereas the former insisted only interpreting into the A language could provide interpreting of the highest quality and the latter emphasized the advantage interpreters enjoyed as a result of superior understanding of their native languages. Perhaps because the western tradition has long favored SI into one’s A language (Pochhacker, 2003), most research on SI over the past decades has focused only on B-to-A interpreting, resulting in little empirical evidence to settle the debate on directionality.

Likewise, most information processing models proposed over the past three decades to account for the SI process also do not take interpreting direction into consideration (Moser-Mercer, 1997). One of the few exceptions is Gile’s (1997) **Effort Model**, which briefly discussed the effects of language direction on the four concurrent processes in SI—Listening and Analyzing, Production, Memory, and Coordination on the ground that some languages may pose fewer or more processing-related problems in comprehension or production. Recently, studies using neurolinguistic techniques have revealed that simultaneous interpreting into L1 and simultaneous interpreting into L2 activate different brain areas (Tomola, Laine, Sunnari & Rinne, 2000), providing further argument for accounting for the possible different mechanisms involved in simultaneous interpreting of different directions.

### 2.9.1 Arguments for Interpreting from B to A Language

The conventional practice in many international organizations has long been for simultaneous interpreters to interpret only into their **A** language, which is usually the interpreters' native or dominant language. Most arguments against simultaneous interpreting into **L2**, or a non-dominant language, center on the extra cognitive burden placed on the interpreters and the loss of quality it entails (Seleskovitch, 1999). Although interpreters are often assumed to have perfect command of both their working languages, the adverse conditions under which they have to operate has given rise to the commonly held opinion that, because one's **L2** production is more likely to suffer, or "backslide" in Selinker's term (1972), under stress (Dewaele, 2002), one should work into the language that is more resilient to stress, namely, one's **L1** or dominant language.

Drawing on several linguistic theories, Schweda-Nicholson (1992) provided two justifications for the standard practice of interpreting only into the **A** language. First, the interpreters need to pay more attention to syntactic structure when speaking their **L2**; and second, they also need to put more attention to prosodic features of their production in **L2**.

This greater need for monitoring one's **L2** output, even for **L2** learners who are highly proficient as simultaneous interpreters, was demonstrated in Moser-Mercer, Frauenfelder, Casado and Kunzli's (2000) study, in which both professional and novice interpreters were found to perform worse when shadowing their non-dominant language. In delayed auditory feedback (DAF)

condition, DAF effects were significantly less for professionals only when they used their dominant language.

In addition, in her reflection on the teaching of conference interpretation over the past decades, Seleskovitch (1999) asserted, “When [the interpreters] worked both ways, it is easy to note not only that the ‘**B**’ language is poorer but that it is subservient to the ‘**A**’ source language and that the efforts made to find corresponding expressions in **B** distracts the mind from constructing sense”(p. 62), suggesting that problems of syntactic interference and lexical gaps are also more likely to occur when interpreting into one’s **L2**.

Apart from greater likelihood of lexical gaps in one’s **L2**, the retrieval speed of a lexical “equivalent” that does exist also points to the possible disadvantage of interpreting into the **B** language. According to the Revised Hierarchical Model proposed by Kroll and Steward (1994), **L2** learners first rely on their **L1** to process **L2** meaning and only later become able to have direct conceptual processing via **L2** as their **L2** proficiency improves. As a result, the lexical link between the two languages is stronger from **L2** to **L1** than from **L1** to **L2**, and the conceptual link between concepts and the two languages is also stronger for **L1** than for **L2**. The model thus predicts that translation from **L1** to **L2** will be slower than translation from **L2** to **L1**, creating a translation asymmetry.

This asymmetry is demonstrated by studies measuring the reaction time for translating into **L1** vs. into **L2**. For example, in de Bot’s (2000) study, participants of three levels of proficiency showed a clear effect of direction of translation, as well as a

significant effect of level of proficiency. In other words, producing words in L2 took a longer time, but the asymmetry decreased with increasing level of proficiency.

In Christoffels' (2004) study, translation direction in the word translation task did not have any effect on professional interpreters; however, an effect of language dominance was detected in the picture naming task, as picture naming in the L2 was still slower than in the L1 for professional interpreters.

It should be noted that these studies were limited to word translation, which is very different from SI, during which an interpreter can use different strategies to compensate for the disadvantages of producing L2. Therefore, it is difficult to apply these results directly to real-life conference interpreting.

### **2.9.2 Arguments for Interpreting from A to B Language**

Challenging the assumption that simultaneous interpreting from L2 to L1 results in better quality work, Denissenko (1989) argued that mother tongue-to-foreign language mode of interpreting was actually a more optimal approach, as the interpreter would have an easier time in comprehending the source language, which he considered the most crucial stage in the interpreting process, and "[the losses at input cannot be repaired" (p.157). He further claimed that, the resourcefulness interpreters enjoy in interpreting into the mother tongue may turn out to work against them because "with a large variety of options, decision-making and delivery control take more time in the rigid split-second attention distribution cycle" (p. 157).

William (1994, 1995) drew on results in second language research to highlight the disadvantages interpreters need to face when interpreting from their L2 into their L1, including limited memory in L2 and the possible deterioration of L2 perception and comprehension skills under stress and noise. She suggested that “interpreting from L2 to L1 can result in more superfluous formulation and self-corrections” and “although there appear to be fewer syntactic errors when interpreting into L1, there may well be more semantic errors in comparison to the source text” (p. 21).

Recent studies in psycholinguistics seem to corroborate William’s argument. L2 learners were found to use L1 listening strategies when listening to their L2 (Cutler, 2000/2001) and their comprehension performance was influenced by the noise level to a larger degree than that of native speakers (McAllister, 2000). McAllister (2000) conducted an experiment to assess the perceptual performance of L2 user by comparing the perceptual performance of proficient L2 users of Swedish and native speakers of Swedish. The results of the study showed that, while L2 users demonstrated perceptual performance equal to that of the native speakers in a quiet environment, when the speech was masked by noise, L2 users’ ability to decode the speech was affected negatively to a larger extent than that of the native speakers. Noise has also been found to have a detrimental effect on interpreters’ performance (1974), which explains Pinhas’ (1972, as cited in Ivanova, 1999) suggestions that interpretation should be from one’s mother tongue when it must be performed under noisy conditions.



### **2.9.3 Empirical Studies on Directionality in SI**

Empirical evidence on the issue of directionality from earlier studies often came as a byproduct of research focusing on some other issues of interests. In Daro et al's (1996) study on interpreters' monitoring of attention, 16 French/English interpreters with either French or English as L1 were asked to interpret one easy and one difficult text in different directions. The results showed that, while in terms of the total number of mistakes, there was no difference between French/ English interpreting from L1 to L2 or from L2 to L1, when interpreting difficult texts from L1 to L2, interpreters committed more errors that led to loss of information. In addition, when focusing attention on the input, interpreting difficult texts from L1 into L2 also resulted in more errors that affected the style of the interpreters' output, including false starts, pauses/long hesitations, corrections, additions, slips of the tongue, and morpho-syntactic mistakes. It should be noted that the texts used in this study were isolated "micro-texts" consisting of only five sentences each, which makes extrapolating its findings to real-life conference interpreting of coherent, extended texts difficult (Setton, 1999).

Tammola and Heleva (1998) examined the effects of both language direction and text complexity on propositional accuracy in a study on 12 Finnish/English student interpreters' performance. They found that linguistic complexity of the source text produced a significant effect on students' performance. When texts were linguistically simple, students performed equally well in both directions in terms of the number of propositions accurately rendered, but when texts were linguistically complex, students

performed slightly better in the L1 to L2 direction, although the difference was not statistically significant in their small data set. The results seemed to replicate the performance data from non-trained bilinguals in Barik's (1975) study, who also performed better in the L1 to L2 direction.

Tommola and Laakso (1997) compared the performance of eight Finnish/English interpreting students (all Finnish L1) in interpreting speeches in different directions and at different speech rates by manipulating the pausal segmentation of the speech. Although the student interpreters' propositional accuracy was significantly better when the speech was segmented with pauses, no significant effect of language direction or interaction of segmentation and language direction was observed.

Lee (2003) compared the error frequency in nine first-year Korean/English student interpreters' interpreting in different directions and found they made significantly more language use and presentation errors, but less meaning errors, in the **A** into **B** direction.

Some studies pertinent to the issue of directionality involve strategies interpreters use to cope with the challenge of interpreting for different language combination.

It should be noted that so far most of the studies on directionality have been conducted on student interpreters. As many studies on expertise in SI has demonstrated that there are both quantitative and qualitative differences in professional and student interpreters' interpreting performance (for a review, see

Liu, 2001), it may not be safe to hypothesize professional interpreters' performance in different directions based on results from student interpreters (Setton, 1999). Although there is little experimental research on professional interpreters' experience of interpreting in different directions, a few questionnaire surveys revealed that professional interpreters may again behave differently from student interpreters regarding interpreting in different directions.

In a survey of 53 students and 40 professional conference interpreters with mostly European language combinations, Bartłomiejczyk (2004) found that while student interpreters were mixed in their opinions about their performances in different directions, the majority of professional interpreters felt they performed better when interpreting into their mother tongue. The author suggested that the discrepancy may be the result of professional interpreters' more realistic opinions of their mastery of the **B** language.

In a survey (Donovan, 2002 as cited in Donovan, 2003) of professional conference interpreters who worked regularly into their **B** language, most respondents felt it more tiring and stressful working into **B** and also were less satisfied with the quality of their interpreting into **B**.

Other surveys, however, seemed to point in a different direction. Al-Salman and Alkhanji (2002) used both questionnaires and the analysis of real conference recording of professional Arabic/English interpreters and found that interpreters whose native language was Arabic preferred and also worked more efficiently when interpreting from Arabic into English. To explain

Arabic-English interpreters' preference for interpreting into English, the author claimed that Arabic was a language easier to comprehend but harder to produce because of the differences between colloquial, standard, and classic Arabic, suggesting language combination as an important variable in interpreting in language directions.

In addition, in Szabari's (2001, as cited in Donovan, 2002) survey in Hungary, some interpreters also indicated preferences for working into B, a result Donovan (2003) attributed to the more rewarding feelings experienced by interpreters who interpreted from a less widely used language to a more widely used one, when they were aware that their listeners depended completely on their interpretation. This explanation seems to suggest that the working context of the interpreters and their resulting subjective feeling toward their work should also be taken into consideration in any discussion of directionality in simultaneous interpreting.

In sum, the research findings described above, albeit still quite limited, have generally suggested interpreters face interesting challenges when dealing with their B, or their weaker, language. In A-to-B interpreting, interpreters seemed to make more meaning errors as a result of miscomprehending B. In B-to-A interpreting, interpreters seemed to make more language and style errors as a result of difficulty in producing B.

However, as these studies focused mostly only on student interpreters, many aspects that are relevant to professional interpreters interpreting in different directions are still left unexplored.

## **2.10 Cognitive challenges in simultaneous interpreting**

Lay people often ask how simultaneous interpreters manage to translate highly technical speeches at scientific and technical conferences. Actually, the language of specialized conferences is not particularly complex in terms of syntax, much less so than the language of non-technical flowery speeches, and its main difficulty for interpreters is its specialized lexicon. The relevant terminology needs to be studied before every assignment, which can be done with the appropriate documents, and interpreters tend to prepare ad hoc glossaries for specialized meetings. Language is not the only challenge that simultaneous interpreters face. There are also cultural challenges, social challenges, affective challenges having to do with their role as message mediators between groups with different cultures and sometimes different interests, as witnesses of events and actions about which they may feel strongly, as persons whose social and cultural status and identity can be perceived differently by the principals in the interpreter-mediated communication and by themselves, but these challenges are not specific to simultaneous interpreting and will not be discussed here. The main cognitive challenge of simultaneous interpreting is precisely the high pressure on the interpreter's mental resources which stems from the fact that they must understand a speech and produce another at the same time at a rate imposed by the speaker. A more detailed analysis of the nature of this challenge is presented in Section 4.3. At this point, suffice it to say that interpreters have always been aware of the fact that the difficulty was considerable as soon as the speech was delivered rapidly, and that interpreters could not always cope (see for example George Mathieu's statement made in 1930 as quoted in Keiser, 2004, p. 585; Herbert, 1952; Moser, 1976; Quicheron, 1981). The practical

consequence of this challenge is the presence of errors, omissions and infelicities (e.g. clumsy wording or syntax) in the simultaneous interpreters' production. How many there are in any interpreted speech or statement is a topic that interpreters are reluctant to discuss. It depends on a number of factors, including the interpreter's skills and experience, features of the speech (see the discussion of problem triggers in the next section) and environmental conditions such as the quality of the sound (or image) which reach the interpreter, background noise, the availability of information for thematic and terminological preparation, and probably language-pair specific features. In many cases, interpreters are able to translate a speaker's statement faithfully and in idiomatic, sometimes elegant language, but in other cases, which are far from rare, errors, omissions and infelicities (EOIs) can be numerous. In a study of authentic online simultaneous interpretations of President Obama's inaugural speech in January 2009 by 10 professional interpreters working into French, German or Japanese, Gile (2011) found 5 to 73 blatant errors and omissions over the first 5 minutes of the speech. In other words, these experienced, proficient interpreters made on average from 1 to more than 14 blatant meaning errors or omissions every minute when translating a difficult, but not extraordinarily difficult speech. How this affects the comprehension of the speaker's message and intentions by users remains to be investigated. Some EOs may have little or no impact, for instance if they affect speech segments which are highly redundant or of little relevance to the message, while others may deprive the users of important information – for example if numbers measuring the financial performance of a company are omitted or translated incorrectly. The number of EOIs is therefore not a sufficiently reliable metric to measure the amount of information

actually transmitted to users of the target language, but the image of the simultaneous

interpreter producing a very faithful and idiomatic version of the source speech in the target language at all times is clearly not a realistic one.

## **2.11 Reasons of Incorporating translation into FLT**

The use of translation as a pedagogical tool has been justified by many researchers (Harmer 2007; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). Having highlighted this need, Howatt (1984) also draws attention to the fact that translation should not be used the way it was in the GTM:

The practice of translation has been condemned so strenuously for so long without any really convincing reasons that it is perhaps time the profession took another look at it. Was it really translation that the reformers objected to a hundred years ago, or, as Prendergast suggest, the way in which it was used? (Howatt 1984: 161)

When there are so many alternative ways to exploit translation in the classroom, it would be a pity to condemn it with the old arguments about the GTM and vote for its exclusion. Even if it is excluded from the classrooms, today translation is everywhere in our lives: “Outside the classroom [...] translation is going on, all the time. Why not inside the classroom?” (Duff 1989: 6). Beyond the simple replies to negative arguments, there are several main reasons why the role of translation is being reconsidered. We will now consider the many levels on which these reasons operate.

### **2.11.1. Humanistic Causes**

It seems obvious that learning is facilitated when learners feel relaxed and free. This means that having many prohibitions in the classroom is likely to affect the learning process negatively. One of the most frequently observed restrictions in the classroom is the amount of L1 use. Although it is admittedly useful to encourage learners to communicate in L2, it seems rather discouraging to impose this as a rule. This is likely to create a hostile atmosphere in the classroom by having relatively shy learners prefer not to express themselves. The teachers can also resort to translation whenever they feel learners are becoming tense and are not keeping up with the lesson. Harmer (2007: 133-134) thus considers that “students (and their teachers) can use the L1 to keep the social atmosphere of the class in good repair”. Although more emphasis is placed on using translation as a mediating tool, learners at all levels are likely to benefit from multiple translation activities. Learners engaging in translation in pairs or groups can improve by sharing their opinions, justifying their decisions and considering other possibilities. As Stibbard (1998: 71) notes, “justification for the use of translation is also found in the role assigned to it in affective-humanistic approaches in TEFL, which emphasize the need to reduce anxiety in the early stages of language learning by allowing some use of the mother tongue”.

### **2.11.2. Practical Causes**

Translation can be used in classes for practical reasons. In other words, it is practical because it saves time. Teachers sometimes spend minutes explaining something in L2 and their efforts can be in vain because their words do not make much sense to the learners. However, if the teacher



uses a word or two in L1, the likelihood of the learners grasping the meaning could be higher. A learner who does not understand anything is more likely to lose interest in the lesson than will a learner who tries to keep up with a teacher who uses one or two L1 words as a clue. Kerr (2014) suggests teachers leave the jargon in L1 when using meta-language, which he describes as taking the short cut. Learners can also benefit from code-switching. When teachers use code-switching in the class, they move between L1 and L2. Cook (2010: 46) notes that “[m]any recent studies and materials have, with varying degrees of caution, been supportive of codeswitching”. When a lesson is interrupted by a student who asks the meaning of a word while they are engaged with a reading task, the teacher can quickly give the meaning in L1 and proceed with the lesson. Particularly when it is not a target word in the context, this is unlikely to have a detrimental effect on the learning process. Code-switching may sometimes help learners proceed in carrying out a task. When they are stuck in trying to explain something just because they cannot figure out the meaning of a word, expression or usage, they can benefit code-switching instead of simply choosing silence. As Cook (2010: 32) puts it, “[a] learner may well resort to unidiomatic formulations or to code switching or translation in order to complete a task in an authentic way”. In addition to the classroom context, code-switching and loan words are quite frequent in everyday life. In the news, in films or on the street, Turkish people frequently use English words even where there are clear equivalents in Turkish. It seems that this is a popular trend in the rest of the world, as well. Stibbard (1998) takes note of the wide use of code-switching in Hong Kong in everyday life, which makes it difficult to exclude it from the classroom: “This code-mixing and code-switching is so characteristics of the Hong Kong linguistic situation that to ignore it in

the classroom would be foolish and try to ban it would be futile” (Stibbard 1998: 70). The judicious use of all these ways of using L1 needs to be considered for practicality in the teaching process.

### **2.11.3. Technical Causes**

We are living in a digital world where technology is indispensable. So technology occupies a large space in language classrooms today. Coursebooks are designed in accordance with the popular technological tools and teachers are trained to exploit them to the fullest. However, there is one technological tool that is often presented as a villain: online translation sites like Google Translate or Microsoft Translate. These are accessible to all learners who are familiar with technology. Since these systems do not offer definitely accurate solutions, learners are often forbidden to make use of them. Nevertheless, learners do use these technologies. It is common for them to resort to them when they are trying to write something in L2. It is thus imperative to teach learners how to use online machine translation in a principled way, instead of banning its use. The prospective employees of the future are likely to make use of it at certain stages in their professional lives; therefore, it seems useful to learn about them while in training.

### **2.11.4. Political Causes**

Some political reasons are given by Kerr (2014) when he notes the dominance of L1 speakers of English in the world of FLT. For him, the discourse of FLT is created mainly by L1 speakers of English and their teaching background is identified with monolingual classes in languages with ideally twelve students. However, this is not the reality today. As Stibbard (1998: 71) notes “English is a lingua franca for travel and trade

and many speakers of it will be called upon to translate to and from their mother tongue”. Travel agencies, for example, employ translators or bilingual guides when they organize international tours, and established companies prefer bilingual or multilingual employees. Even when people are not trained to become translators, they are likely to find themselves in a situation where they need to translate just because they know a foreign-language. Therefore, having experience in translation offered during foreign-language education would probably help future performance.

#### **2.11.5. Cognitive Causes**

Despite all the intimidating warnings by teachers, it seems impossible to interfere with the minds of language learners and prevent them from translating in their heads. That is to say, translation might be excluded from the classroom, but it cannot be excluded from the heads of the learners. When we learn something new, we use what we already know as a basis for building these new pieces of information Ellis (2009: 153) explains this with a comparison by noting that “the language calculator has no ‘clear’ button”. In other words, you cannot simply act as if you do not have any L1 linguistic knowledge while you are learning a new language. Learners of L2 are highly likely to make use of their L1 sources through comparison when they try to learn a new language. All learners of a second or foreign-language bring in a large repertoire in L1. They have already built linguistic knowledge in L1, so they are likely to benefit from a mode of learning built on their previous learning. For instance, when people learn how to drive a car, if they have any knowledge of how to ride a bike they are likely to transfer their previous knowledge. Evidence from both cognitive linguistics and neuroscience points strongly towards a role for the students’ own

language in the language classroom (Kerr 2014: 5). Contexts that bring learners with the same L1 together serve as a good setting to encourage learners use their L1 repertoire. The latest tendency in textbooks to teach L2 German (e.g., *Deutsch ist easy!* and *Menschen*) is to include translation activities as well as parts that encourage comparative grammar (Pym et al. 2013: 68). This is an example of how learners' previous knowledge can be used while teaching a new language.

## **2.12 The Simultaneous Interpreter's Language Skills**

AIIC offers very general descriptions of language skills required for conference interpreting. It defines three types of working languages: The 'A' language is the interpreters' mother tongue (or its strict equivalent) into which they work from all their other working languages in both consecutive and simultaneous interpretation. It is the language they speak best, and "in which they can easily express even complicated ideas", and the interpreter's main 'active language'. 'B languages' are languages in which interpreters are "perfectly fluent" and into which they can work (they are also 'active languages'), and 'C languages' are languages which they "understand perfectly", from which they work but into which they do not translate (they are 'passive' languages). All conference interpreters are supposed to have an A language and at least a C language. However, there is little work for interpreters with one A language and one C language only. The vast majority of them have at least two active languages (one A language and one B language or two A languages) or one active language (generally an A language) and at least two passive languages. In many parts of the world, and in particular in Asia, interpreters tend to have one A language and one B language and work both ways (from A into B and vice-versa), though the prevailing norm is that it is better to work into one's A language

only – a controversial norm (e.g. Kelly et al. 2003). Due to the cognitive pressure explained earlier, in terms of language skills, requirements from simultaneous interpreters are more stringent than being “perfectly fluent”, being “able to express easily even complicated ideas” and being “able to understand a language perfectly.” Because of the vulnerability of simultaneous interpreters to cognitive saturation, linguistic processing of the incoming speech sounds or visual signs must be very rapid and require as little attentional capacity as possible. This ‘comprehension availability’ comes after repeated exposure to speech (or signed utterances in the case of a sign language) in a variety of situations and with a variety of sociolects and accents. It does not necessarily develop after repeated exposure to written texts, which are perceived visually with only an indirect link to their phonological form. Student interpreters with an excellent comprehension of a passive language in its written form, including those with considerable experience as translators, often fail to have the required availability for the spoken form of their passive languages. With respect to active languages, cognitive pressure on the simultaneous interpreting process, especially limitations on maximum time lag between reception and reformulation, imposes two requirements. One is the interpreters’ ability to access lexical units and assemble them into idiomatic statements rapidly and with little attentional processing capacity expenditure so as to leave enough resources free for other operations, in particular those making up the Reception Effort. The other is flexibility, in other words the ability to start an utterance on the basis of partial information and continue its assembly into an idiomatic sequence of sentences as the incoming source speech unfolds while maintaining rigorous compliance with a given information content. This contrasts sharply with everyday situations in which speakers can plan their utterances in advance or

change their content online if they encounter difficulties in formulating their ideas. Such production skills, when they are not part of a person's baseline aptitudes, come after much speaking/signing practice – as opposed to writing, in which, at cognitive scale, that is, fractions of a second, text producers have much more time to retrieve words from memory, assemble them and write them down. As discussed in section 7, interpreters also need to have correct prosody and speak without a strong accent so as to be easily understood by users.

In the case of signed language interpreting, for Reception, interpreters need to be familiar with non-standard forms of signing, as they may encounter signers from various backgrounds and geographic areas, with dialects and idiosyncrasies. For Production, they need to be creative in the use of their sign language in order to deal with frequent lexical gaps. Such requirements are only met by a small proportion of 'bilinguals' or 'multilinguals', and earning a foreign language degree is far from sufficient to give them sufficient linguistic qualifications. Initially, in the West, it was thought that only persons who came from a culturally and linguistically mixed background or had lived for many years in foreign countries could acquire them. Experience has shown that this is not the case, as some competent simultaneous interpreters have actually acquired their foreign language(s) as adults and have not lived in the relevant country for any significant length of time, but such people presumably have higher than average talent. In prestigious conference interpreter training programs in Europe, insufficient language skills are probably by far the most frequent reason of students' failure in graduation examinations. Requirements are far less stringent in consecutive interpreting, in which, while the source speech unfolds, the interpreter's attention can be focused on the incoming speech – and on

note-taking when notes are taken. Production follows – after the comprehension process is completed, and at that stage, the interpreter’s attention can be focused on word retrieval and utterance assembly, without the need to keep part of it available for comprehension of the incoming speech as is the case in simultaneous. This is why some interpreters who refuse to work from their A language into their B language in simultaneous do work regularly into their B language in consecutive.

## **2.13 Strategy and Simultaneous Interpreting**

### **2.13.1 Strategy Use in Simultaneous Interpreting**

There have been many discussions of effective strategies in the SI literature (e.g., Al-Salman & Al-Khanji, 2002; Kornakov, 2000; Wu, 2001). These strategies are usually designed to address the time constraints and cognitive overload problems interpreters encounter during the comprehension of the source texts, production of the target texts, or other memory and monitoring processes, and hence are often divided into comprehension strategies, planning or production strategies, as well as global strategies that influence the overall interpreting performance such as monitoring of the comprehension and production processes (Riccardi, 2002). Most studies on SI strategies have only listed the strategies interpreters use to overcome different constraints imposed by the interpreting task. Among the most frequently mentioned strategies are anticipating, maintaining comfortable ear-voice-span, reformulating, chunking, simplifying, generalizing, summarizing, paraphrasing, and omission.

In addition to describing interpreter's strategy use, some studies have tried to tackle the mechanism behind interpreters' strategy use, linking individual strategies to the overall cognitive processes involved in the SI task (Vik-Tuovinen, 2002). Kalina (1992) defined a strategy as "goal-oriented, so that the goal determines the amount and thoroughness of processing. It may be consciously used but may also have become automatic in so far as the processor will not have to make any cognitive decision." (p. 253) By constructing a discourse-based mental modeling of simultaneous interpreting, she described SI strategies as processing strategies developed in response to the constraints imposed by the interpreting task, such as lack of semantic autonomy on the part of the interpreter. Interpreters' strategy use, therefore, reflect their cognitive processing efforts to achieve their mediation goals.

Using retrospection as a tool to capture the interdependence and interaction of various SI strategies, Kohn and Kalina (1996) confronted interpreters with their own interpreting output immediately after the interpreting task and were not only able to gain rich information about the interpreters' strategy use, but to overcome an inherent problem in many studies on SI strategies that focused only on the interpreters' linguistic output (e.g. Al-Khanji, El-Shiyab & Hussein, 2000), that is, the difficulty of determining, for example, whether an omission of a source text message is a consequence of a comprehension problem, a production problem, or a strategic choice.

Retrospection was also used by Vik-Tuovinen (2002) to gain information about her participants' actual strategies, preferred



strategies, and their knowledge of the languages concerned. Using both the transcript of the source text and the tape recording of the source text and the interpreting as stimuli, she asked 21 interpreters at three different levels of proficiency as interpreters to comment on their own interpretation. By using the retrospective protocol as a main source of data, along with questionnaires and the interpreters' written comments, she was able to gain a more comprehensive picture of the strategies and techniques used in the cognitive processes involved in simultaneous interpreting.

Ivanova's (1999, 2000) also employed retrospection as one of a number of different methods to elicit data about the discourse processing of expert and novice interpreters during SI. Unlike the previous two studies employing retrospection, which gave interpreters both the script of the source speech and the recordings of both the source speech and the interpreting, Ivanova used only the script of the source text and the notes she had taken during the interpreting as stimuli. In her analysis of the retrospection protocol, she divided her data into three categories: problem, monitoring observations, and strategies, and found that, compared to student interpreters, professional interpreters often used a variety of strategies for different types of problems.

### **2.13.2 Strategy Use and Language Direction**

Most research on strategy use in SI described above only dealt with **B-to-A** interpreting. However, it should be noted that different strategies are often designed to overcome different problems. For example, strategies such as summarization are often

used to overcome time pressure. Paraphrasing and simplification, on the other hand, are more often used to overcome linguistic difficulty.

Following Flavell's (1987) definition of meta-cognition, Alexander, Schallert, and Hare (1991) categorized a person's strategy knowledge as one of the variables in his/her meta-cognition, along with three other variables, self-knowledge, task knowledge, and plans and goals. The four variables interact with each other as a person may change his/her strategy use according to changes in the other variables. Interpreters' strategy use should be of no exception. Although all the strategies described in the SI literature may be used both when interpreting into one's **A** language and into one's **B** language, it is reasonable to expect to find them being used to a different degree according to factors such as language direction, language pairs, the interpreters' level of language proficiency, or text difficulty.

For example, in a qualitative analysis of a small corpus of Finnish/Russian student interpreters' end-of-course exams (Janis, 2002), student interpreters were observed to behave differently in interpreting in different directions. When interpreting from **B** to **A**, the student interpreters seemed to have more resources for processing output, as they made more transformation in their interpreting based on the collocation or discourse pattern in the target language. When interpreting from **A** to **B**, on the other hand, they tended to use more compression and generalization.

Moreover, discussions of strategy use or interpreting directions eventually have to deal with the issue of language combination

(e.g. Bartłomiejczyk, 2004), which includes not only the characteristics of the pair of languages involved in interpreting but also the question of which one of the language serves as the source language and which as the target language.

The possibility of interpreters using different strategies according to language combinations has been confirmed in a number of SI studies focusing on specific language pairs with apparent syntactic asymmetry, such as German to Italian (Riccardi, 1995) and Chinese to English (Dawrant, 1996).

Chinese and English are recognized as a language combination that differs linguistically as well as culturally in many ways (Setton, 1993, 1999). These differences may result in different problems and consequently call for different strategies than other language combinations. For example, Dawrant (1996) found that in simultaneous interpreting from Chinese to English, interpreters relied heavily on certain strategies (waiting, linearity/segmentation, anticipation) to overcome the problems caused by word-order differences between the two languages.

Drawing from Hall's (1976) theory of contexting, Wu (2001) also proposed that, in simultaneous interpreting from Mandarin Chinese to English, the interpreters' summarizing skills are vital because "when interpreting from a hi-context and implicit source language like Mandarin into a low-context and explicit target language like English, more words and longer delivery times are required" (p.84). Wu also proposed a number of other strategies aimed at helping interpreting students with Chinese as an **A** language and English as a **B** language interpret more successfully

into English. Given that interpreting students may carry the strategies they have learned explicitly at school to real-life conference situations once they become professional interpreters, it is possible that these guidelines for strategy use in different translation directions can continue to be internalized and reproduced as “norms” in the profession as described by Schlesinger (1989).

### **2.13.3 Strategy Use and Norms**

Compared to the cognitive, psycho- or neuro-linguistics factors in SI, the socio-cultural, communicative, and ideological contexts of simultaneous interpreters’ actual behaviors have received less attention in SI research (Diriker, 2004). One of the sociocultural concepts that may be of great implications for research on interpreting strategies is the concept of norms, or “the social reality of correctness notions” (Bartsch, 1987, p.xii).

The existence of norms has been studied extensively in translation studies. Based on definition developed by Bartsch (1987), Schaffner (1999) defined norms in translation studies as knowledge of what counts as correct and appropriate behaviors that is developed through socialization and shared by members of a given community. Chesterman (1993, 1997) divided translation norms into “expectancy norms”, i.e. what a translation should look like in order to be considered correct and appropriate, and “professional norms”, i.e. the acceptable methods and strategies to produce a translation. As process is determined by the product, professional norms were subordinate to the expectancy norms. The

goal of translation strategies, therefore, is to “conform to the relevant professional and expectancy norms.” (1993, p.14)

Applying the concept from translation studies to interpreting studies, Pochhacker (2003) suggested the “expectancy norms” may be “as powerful as cognitive constraints in shaping the interpreter’s strategic response.” (p.132) In his discussion of interpreting strategies, Gile (1999) also argued that, even though many of the simultaneous strategies are intended to address cognitive constraints, interpreting strategies are just as norm based as translation strategies. Of the five rules he proposed governing the selection of interpreting strategies: 1) maximizing information recovery; 2) minimizing recovery interference; 3) maximizing the communication impact of the speech; 4) the law of least effort; 5) self-protection, he suggested that Rules 1 and 3 can be considered as “target norms,” and Rule 2 as an “optimization norm” (Gile, 1995, 1999).

Pointing out the possibility that interpreter-subjects’ performance can be norm driven, Shlesinger (1999) emphasized the importance for studies on cognitive processing involved in simultaneous interpreting to distinguish between the interpreters’ cognitive constraints and their norm-driven strategy use. She categorized interpreting norms as those involved an obligation or a prohibition and those that involved a release from an obligation or prohibition:

In the case of interpreting, the *obligation/prohibition* category would include, for example, sanctions on a very uneven delivery marked by prolonged silences, even if the output *per se* is complete; the *non-obligation/non-*

*prohibition* category would include the license to omit “less important” components of the source text. The norms in this category center on fluent output and smooth delivery. The implicit acceptance of deletions and generalizations based on macro propositions seems to have guided my subjects’ spontaneous change of strategy as they settle into the texts I had prepared for them. (p.73)

In other words, strategies driven by norms not only can help interpreters deal with cognitive constraints but also can alter the interpreter’s cognitive processes and ultimately affect the output.

## **2.14 Input Speech Rate and Density**

The rate at which the source language speech is delivered has a decisive impact on performance in simultaneous interpreting. An input rate of 100-120 wpm (words per minute) is considered acceptable for interpreters, with 150-200 wpm as an upper limit (Gerver, 1976). On the other hand, for recited text which has high information density, Lederer (1981) suggested an input rate of 100 wpm as a maximum. Barik (1973) found that the faster the source speech rate, the more flaws were observed in the interpreters’ output and the longer they lagged behind the speaker. Although faster input speech rate is generally believed to have a detrimental effect on interpreting, there are exceptions where slow speech rates were shown to have more negative effects on output. Slow, monotonous delivery of the input speech can be difficult, if not more difficult than messages that are delivered with a faster rate (Gerver, 1976).

Some professional interpreters are more concerned about density of the input message than the rate of speech delivery (Setton, 1999).

Simultaneous interpreters often find it extremely challenging to interpret for a speaker who reads from a dense written text which is delivered at a high speed. Treisman (1965), for example, found that the accuracy of interpreter's performance suffered with increasing information density in the source speech. Chernov (1994) also noted that redundancy in speech as opposed to non-redundant speech such as poetry or legal papers can facilitate interpretation performance because the former allows the interpreter to anticipate subsequent input.

## **2.15 Characteristics of Source Text**

Characteristics of the source language input such as difficulty of texts, whether the texts are more spontaneous or structured, and the difference of language structure between the source language and target language can potentially affect interpretation performance. Differences in word order and syntactic structure between the source language have been found to impose difficulty for interpreters working from Chinese into English and from German into English (Setton, 1999).

Another source of difficulty in simultaneous interpretation arises from the difficulty of the source text. Darò, Lambert, and Fabbro (1996) found that when the source text contained more low-frequency words and had sentence structures which were more complex, more errors were detected in the target language output than when the source text was easy. Single words in the source language text may also pose problems for the simultaneous interpreter. Abstract words that may have different meanings in the target language (Barik, 1975) as well as words with greater word length (Christoffels & De Groot, 2005) can potentially decrease the quality in the interpretation output.

## 2.16 Bilingual Language Control

Bilinguals are generally defined as people who can use two languages and engage in all or some of the comprehension and production tasks involving these two languages. Since all interpreters are bilinguals or even multilinguals, a brief discussion on some scholars' views about how they keep their languages separate, i.e., how they control their languages and avoid "switching" to the non-target language will follow.

In describing how bilinguals exert control over their speech, Green (1998) proposed the Inhibitory Control Model. According to this model, language selection is achieved by inhibiting candidates in the nontarget language which in turn requires monitoring and control by a supervisory attentional system (SAS). Green (1986, 1998) stated that so called language task schemas "regulate the outputs from the lexicon-semantic system by altering the activation levels of representations within that system and by inhibiting outputs from the system" (p. 69). As such, based on Green's model, two types of language control operate in bilingual language processing: one acts proactively by adapting the levels of activation of the L1 and L2 items to the demands of the specific task; a second operates reactively by suppressing non-target language output (Green, 1986). Green's Inhibitory Control Model assumed separate language subsystems for

bilingual's two languages just as Dijkstra and Van Heuven (1998, 2002) also proposed a Bilingual Interactive Activation (BIA) model in which the two languages of the bilingual are represented by two separate language nodes. The two language nodes are capable of receiving activation from lexical items in the other language and this in



turn triggers excitatory connections between words of the two languages and the corresponding language nodes.

Meuter and Allport (1999), meanwhile, used switch tasks in their study to explore how bilinguals control their languages. When the participants (unbalanced bilinguals) in their study were asked to perform tasks that required switching between the easy, dominant task (L1 numeral naming) and the more difficult, weaker task (L2 numeral naming), it appeared that a switch from the more difficult to the easy task incurred a greater switching cost reflected by longer response latencies. Meuter and Allport explained the “counterintuitive” results by citing a phenomenon called “task set inertia”.

An individual engaged in a switch task encounters a task set inertia when the task set of the previous trial carries over into the current trial, so that when s/he performs a task switch from L2 numeral naming (weaker task) to L1 numeral naming (dominant task), the strong suppression of the dominant task in the previous trial affects the performance in the current trial and results in longer reaction time (greater cost) for the L1 numeral naming task (Allport, Styles, & Hsieh, 1994). The results suggest that bilingual language production involves the suppression of the non-target language and the activation of the target language and that the stronger or more proficient the non-target language, the larger the cost associated with suppressing it.

Bialystok, Craik, Klein, and Viswanathan’s (2004) research went further to show that the advantage of bilingualism extends to areas beyond language control superiority as evidenced by their study’s bilingual participants who outperformed other monolinguals in a task called the “Simon task.” Simon task is used to assess a

participant's ability to ignore irrelevant spatial information and is intended to measure one's effectiveness in inhibitory processes. The bilinguals in Bialystok et al.'s (2004) study not only were found to have better inhibitory control (smaller "Simon effect") than the other monolinguals, they also showed a smaller increase of the Simon effect with aging. Another unexpected finding in their study was that bilingualism also had a positive effect on working memory for the older bilingual adults, showing that bilingualism can offset the negative impacts of aging on working memory.

Extending the view of how regular bilinguals control their two languages, Paradis (1994) attempted to explore how simultaneous interpreters regulate the source and target languages. Because in simultaneous interpretation, comprehension of the source language and production of the target language co-occur most of the time, Paradis (1994) suggested that both language systems are activated at the same time, though the threshold of elements in the source language is set higher so that only the target language is spoken. This view, however, was problematic in that lower activation of the source language meant that comprehension of the source language would be compromised, which may lead to less-than-perfect performance in simultaneous interpreting (Tommola, Laine, Sunnari, & Rinne, 2000/2001).

An alternative view was proposed by Grosjean (2001) who added input and output processing mechanisms to both language systems. The two language systems were not differentially activated, according to Grosjean, but the output mechanism of the source language is inhibited while the input mechanism of the source language is activated. In addition, both the input and output processing mechanisms of the target language are activated. The input mechanism

of the target language is also activated for reasons that interpreters monitor their speech during simultaneous interpreting (Isham, 2000). Both Paradis (1994) and Grosjean's (2001) proposals assume the activation or deactivation of language whole or subsystems.

La Heij's (2005) "complex access, simple selection" is perhaps the least complex of all. La Heij suggested that the preverbal message must not be affected by the language of an input and that output in the intended language will emerge if the preverbal message correctly specifies the target language. This view is an extension of the theory of vertical or conceptually mediated translation (Christoffels & De Groot, 2005) in which the "non-linguistic" meaning is seen as the crucial connection between source and target language. The language cue is the vital piece of information in La Heij's language control model which guarantees that output in the target language, rather than words in the source language, will be produced.

## **2.17 Simultaneous Interpretation Activities**

Teachers can give the students different strategies to interpret messages in different languages such as discussions about translation in film-subtitling, dubbing or interpreting so that they may be able to take part in communicative activities of dubbing or simultaneous interpretation. Although film-subtitling may not seem as communicative as the other activities, it is essential to mention that the introduction of an activity in which students have to listen what other people say in one language and write it into their mother tongue is an entertaining activity which makes students improve their ability to interpret messages in different languages, their listening skills and their

capacity to think in both the FL and the L1. Consequently, their ability to speak also improves.

Dubbing or interpretation activities also contribute to this improvement of the speed of interpretation of messages. Despite depending on the level, this type of activities should be developed from the FL into the L1, given the difficulty of inverse interpretation.

One practical example could be the following: one student says one sentence or speaks freely in the FL, while the other student has to say the same in his/her mother tongue. The rest of the class can assess the interpretation of the student in the L1 and can ask questions.

Any other type of simultaneous interpretation could be developed within the foreign language classroom: interpreting an advert, a scene of a film, a conversation; all these kinds of activities would involve a large number of benefits for the students.

This type of activity also allows students to acquire skills for being focus on their work and concentrated when there is noise, since they have to translate at the same time as another person is speaking. Consequently, they realize how much effort interpreters and translators have to make to fulfill this task.

## Part Two: Previous Studies

This part depicts the previous studies which were conducted on using translation and interpretation in the field of English language teaching and learning. The researcher discussed eight different studies, two of them are local studies, three regional and three international studies as following:

### 2.18 Local Studies

**The First study:** Entitled “*Enhancing EFL Learners’ Competence and Performance through Translation*” and presented by Atif Abdalla Mohammed El-Mahi to Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Graduate Studies, College of Education in 2018. The study aimed at clarifying the good benefits and the bad effects of using translation in teaching and learning processes, at investigating the role of translation in developing and promoting English language acquisition and also aims at helping students to progress translation skill and increasing their motivations of English language acquisition. The study adopts descriptive analytical method and a questionnaire as a tool for data collection. The sample of the study consists of (50) EFL teachers from ELManagil Locality Secondary Schools. (SPSS) program was used to analyzing collected data. The study found that translation is time- saving but should be restricted to abstract words only .Discussion of linguistic differences and similarities of language one and language two among the students can help them to reduce the mother tongue interference to enable them understanding the subtle meaning of the two languages. Translation motivates students to participate and interact in the lesson effectively. It also find that designing of well translation activities in classroom can encourage and enhance learners to practice the four skill of language. Translation considers the skill number six as a helpful, useful, meaningful medium and natural communicative activity for both teachers and students. The study

concluded in some recommendations regarding syllabus an curriculum designers should insert translation in curriculum of secondary levels to motivate students using dictionary skill well .Student should have more exercise in translation of suitable texts to enable them acquire the language accurately and fluently. The teachers must be trained well how to teach English language through translation that along with some suggestions for further studies.

**The second study:** Entitled “*Utilizing Translation to Boost Understanding among English Language Learner’s*” and presented by Waleed Abd El wahab Abd El majid to Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Graduate Studies, College of Education in 2016 The study aimed at identifying the role of translation as a means to boost learning skills and communicative competence for EFL Learners. To prove the research hypotheses, the study applied the experimental method that required teaching material in translation (for three weeks) to thirty-five students in order to enhance their learning skills and communicative competence so as to find out the impact of the practicing translation techniques on the development of these skills. To analyze the data, (SPSS) program has been used. A number of results have been arrived at, the most essential ones: Most students are unable to use monolingual dictionaries let alone bi-lingual ones. The students’ motivation and participation will increase when using technological means in English classes especially online sources, educational videos displayed via projectors. Using translation syllabuses in teaching English will contribute significantly to the development of students’ language skills. The most significant recommendations: In translation classes, students should be trained basically on how to guess the meaning from context first and then how to use dictionaries to get the appropriate equivalent words. Teachers should concentrate on fluency more than accuracy in English classes. EFL Students should be trained exclusively

on the differences between English and Arabic language in terms of sentence structure, grammatical rules, and idiomatic expressions in order to overcome the grammatical mistakes. The study also recommended the use of translation as part of the English curriculum in English programs at universities, in general.

### **2.19 Regional Studies**

**The third study:** Entitled *Strategic use of translation in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) among Bahrain university students*” presented by Numan M. Al-Musawi to University of Bahrain in 2014. The study explores the strategic use of translation in learning English by undergraduate students in Bahrain. The Arabic Version of the Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (AITLS) was prepared by the author and was administered randomly to 360 undergraduate students who majored in English at the College of Arts of the University of Bahrain. The student response to the AITLS items revealed two contradictory tendencies toward using translation as a learning strategy: the tendency to demonstrate medium support for the use of translation to learn English vocabulary, to read, to write, and check comprehension; and the tendency not to use translation to learn English idioms, phrases, expressions, proverbs, and grammatical rules. The pedagogical implications of the results for English language teaching are discussed.

**The fourth study:** Entitled “*Rendering Collocations in Arabic/English Simultaneous Interpreting*” presented by Hala Ghanim Mohammed to Department of Translation College of Arts, University of Al-Mustansiriya Baghdad, Iraq in 2018. This paper seeks to determine the strategies used by interpreters to render collocations in simultaneous interpreting. The interpretive theory of translation (ITT) is adopted in this paper as a theoretical framework. Derived from the ITT, two main parameters, i.e. comprehensibility

and transferability are underscored and treated to test the participants' strategies to render collocations in their interpretations. Drawing on the ITT, two types of data (qualitative and quantitative) are analyzed: transcribe data from a practical experiment carried out with 12 interpreting students and data from 33 interpreters of questionnaire conducted to reach the aim of this study. Both results show that interpreters manage collocation easily, as the retrieval of these readymade chunks is usually not difficult. In addition, interpreters try to use the equivalence strategy in simultaneous interpreting while rendering collocations. Partial omission through the merging of words is a strategy used by interpreters to keep the sense of collocations, especially when these collocations have semantic repetition. Paraphrasing is another strategy used by interpreters when rendering collocations. Finally, combination of strategies is utilized to render some collocations as these strings of words are above word level.

**The fifth study:** Entitled “*The Acquisition of the English Relative Pronoun ‘Who’ by EFL Arab Learners: a Translation Perspective*” presented by Mohammed Ali Mohsen to Najran University, Saudi Arabia in 2016. This paper aims to study Arab students' use of English relative pronoun ‘who’ via translating statements from their mother tongue (Arabic) into the target language (English). Thirty Saudi adult students, aged 18-20 years old, were asked to translate 20 relative clauses from Arabic into English. The results revealed that the students encountered various problematic areas in the use of relative pronoun 'who', viz. use of personal and possessive relative pronoun, position of relative pronoun, presence of resumptive pronouns in Arabic, absence of duality and plurality of relative pronoun “who”, use of relative pronouns with prepositional verbs. Such problematic areas were manifested in various errors of omission, addition, selection, word order, and avoidance. The results also showed that the average of the students' errors in “avoidance,



omission, and selection” were significantly higher than (30 %, 25%, and 24% respectively) the average for ‘addition’ and ‘word order’. These errors could be attributed to language transfer, overgeneralization, and ignorance of rules restriction, which were possibly grounded in the lack of exposure to the TL rules and insufficient practice of grammatical activities. Pedagogical implications of this study suggest that instructors should make a good use of the recommendations of contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) and Error Analysis (EA). Namely, the students should be made aware of the areas of similarities and differences between English and Arabic practically rather than theoretically. The study stresses the limitations of the findings and directs outlines for future research.

## **2.20 International Studies**

**The sixth study:** Entitled “*Language Learning Through Interpreting And Translation: Highlighting Students’ Experiences*” presented by Akhyar Rido to English Department School of Foreign Language (STBA) Teknokrat Lampung in 2011. The main objective of this study is to consider the use of interpreting and translation in language learning. Primarily, it looks into some benefits of using interpreting and translation in improving students’ second language (L2-English) abilities by closely examining the nature of the students’ experiences. Semi-structured interviews of 20 volunteer students were conducted. The findings show that the students developed their L2 skills. They also engaged in an active learning through interpreting and translation activities. It is proposed that translation may contribute to enhance the learner’s accuracy of the L2, which will eventually encourage development of their linguistic and communicative skills in both languages, particularly their L2. I, therefore, promote that interpreting and translation are apt for language teaching, mainly at the university level.

**The seventh study:** Entitled “*The Impact of Consecutive Interpreting Training on the L2 Listening Competence Enhancement*” presented by Tongtong Zhang<sup>1</sup> & Zhiwei Wu<sup>2</sup> to International College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China <sup>2</sup> Faculty of English Language and Culture, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China. The study sets out to investigate the impact of English-Chinese consecutive interpreting (CI) training on the enhancement of the second language (L2, English) listening competence. An empirical study was conducted on 50 interpreting student beginners to assess the effect of two different interpreting training modes on students’ English listening ability. The study indicates that CI training can enhance students’ L2 listening competence, specifically intensive listening skill and selective listening skill, but to a varying extent. Active listening, when trained as a stand-alone rather than a built-in component in the curriculum, contributes more to improving students’ listening ability. In view of this, pedagogical implications for interpreting training and L2 listening teaching are discussed.

**The final study:** Entitled “*The Role of Translation in Foreign-Language Teaching*” presented by Pinar Artar to University of Rovira I Virgili, Turkey, in 2017. . The study explores the extent to which people involved in foreign-language teaching in Turkey use translation in class, what they think about translation, and whether translation activities improve students’ language skills. A 33-item Beliefs Inventory was used to identify the initial beliefs of 30 learners and 32 student-teachers on a five-point Likert Scale, while an online survey was used determine the initial beliefs of 244 teachers. The results obtained from this initial administration of the Beliefs Inventory indicate that learners and student-teachers are relatively well disposed to the use of translation, whereas teachers tend to avoid it in their teaching. An experiment group of 16 learners was involved in translation activities for eight weeks,

while a control group of 14 learners did English-only activities. At the end of this period, the Beliefs Inventory Questionnaire was administered once again. The results indicated no significant change in the beliefs of the learners. In addition to their beliefs, the success of learners was also considered as an important indicator. Thus, the pre-test and post-test scores of the learners were analyzed to find out whether there was any change in their success at writing and speaking in English. The comparison shows that there is a significant improvement in the writing performances of the learners, whereas the translation activities seem to have not improved their speaking performance significantly. Given these results, it can be concluded that translation need not be avoided while teaching or learning a foreign-language under these conditions, as learners are likely to benefit from it with respect to their writing skills.

## **2.21 Summary**

The researcher discussed different concepts and ideas related to the use of simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes. The definitions and applications of simultaneous interpretation, followed by the history of simultaneous interpreting; and then some phenomenon related to interpretation i.e concurrent listening and speaking, Ear-voice-span (EVS) were elaborated in sub sections (2.1) ,(2.2) and (2.3) correspondingly. In the sub heading (2.4) the theoretical models of interpreting i.e Gile's Effort Model, Baddeley's Working Memory Model and Just and Carpenter's Theory of Working Memory Capacity were discussed. The concepts conference interpreting (Community Interpreting) and Interpreting Vs Translation were explained in sections 2.5 and 2.6. Some ideas such as approaches of translation in teaching; factors affecting SI performance; cognitive challenges in simultaneous interpreting and the need to incorporate translation into FLT were

screened in sections (2.7), (2.8), (2.9), (2.10) and (2.11). The researcher discussed the simultaneous interpreter's language skills and the idea of strategy and simultaneous interpreting in sections (2.12) and (2.13). This chapter shows some concepts related to simultaneous interpretation such as , input speech rate and density; characteristics of source text; bilingual language control and simultaneous interpretation activities in sections (2.14), (2.15), and (2.16) correspondingly. Finally, local, regional and international previous studies were presented in this chapter.

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**CHAPTER THREE**  
**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

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## **Chapter Three**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter shows the operational framework of the study. It is aim at discussing the methodology used in the study. It includes 7 sub-sections together with this introductory material. In the second section, the research data collection tools used in the study are described. The third section contains a presentation of the study population used in the study. In the fourth section, the sample used for the purposes of this study is described, including descriptions of both the subjects of the research and the general student population from which the sample was taken. In the fifth and sixth sections, several other methodological concerns are discussed, such as validity, reliability of the methodology. The various procedures were used in conducting the study are also highlighted in last section

#### **3.1 Procedures of Data Collection**

The researcher designed the questionnaires to examine the research hypotheses. The tools were sent to the jury members for validation. The researcher do the piloting study to check the reliability of the instrument. Then, the questionnaires were distributed to 37 English language teachers. The participants were asked to response for the questionnaire statements. The percentage and frequency of each response was calculated and presented in ch4. The researcher also conducted the experiment for 40 students who were subjected to (L1 to L2) and (L2 to 1) interpretation tasks to develop their speaking and listening skills. Then the experimental group experienced treatment sessions which focused on speaking and listening skills through

interpretation to meet the study hypothesis. The results of speaking and listening rubrics between the two groups were run through SPSS and then presented in forms of table and graph in ch4.

### **3.2 Data Collection Tools**

The study is experimental in nature which include two students' groups; experimental group (A) and control group (B). The experimental group exposed a considerable L1 to L2 and L2 to 1 interpretation tasks to develop their speaking and listening skills. Then the participants experienced treatment sessions which concentrated on speaking and listening skills through interpretation so that they are able to acquire the different spoken and listening skills that meet the research hypothesis. The researcher, therefore structured speaking and listening skills rubric to measure the students' performance and compare the result between the two groups. The rubrics are structured of 5 scales graded from 'Excellent' to 'Poor'. Then the overall grades were counted of 100 by summing up the students' scores and divided by to possible higher score of the rubric scales which is graded from (5 marks for excellent to 1 mark for poor). (**Appendices B, C and D**).

Moreover, the researcher depends on a questionnaire to collect the data from the English language teachers. A five-point Likert scale was used with the questionnaire statements, the scale was graded from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The teachers' questionnaire was used to measure the teachers' attitudes towards the use of interpretation in teaching and learning English as a foreign Language; besides investigating teachers perspectives about the effect of interpretation in the developing of learners listening skills; and figuring out the English teachers' opinions about speaking sub-skills which can be developed

through interpretation. The questionnaire is also designed to identify different types of the prosodic features (patterns) which can be developed using interpretation develop; to examine the teachers insights about using interpretation to develop learners awareness (consciousness) of (L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions; besides, their views about different types of syntactic structures which could be developed using interpretation. The participants' responses were collected and subjected to analysis and the result of the analysis were presented in in the form of tables and graphs followed by full description to show how the significant findings goes online with the research objectives.

### **3.3 The Study Population**

This study investigates views and conception of the effect of interpretation on developing speaking and listening skills. The study population include Sudanese English language teachers and English major students at tertiary level. The teachers have different qualifications, gender and years of experiences as shown in table below. They teach English as foreign language in schools and tertiary level.

### **3.4 Participants**

#### **Students:**

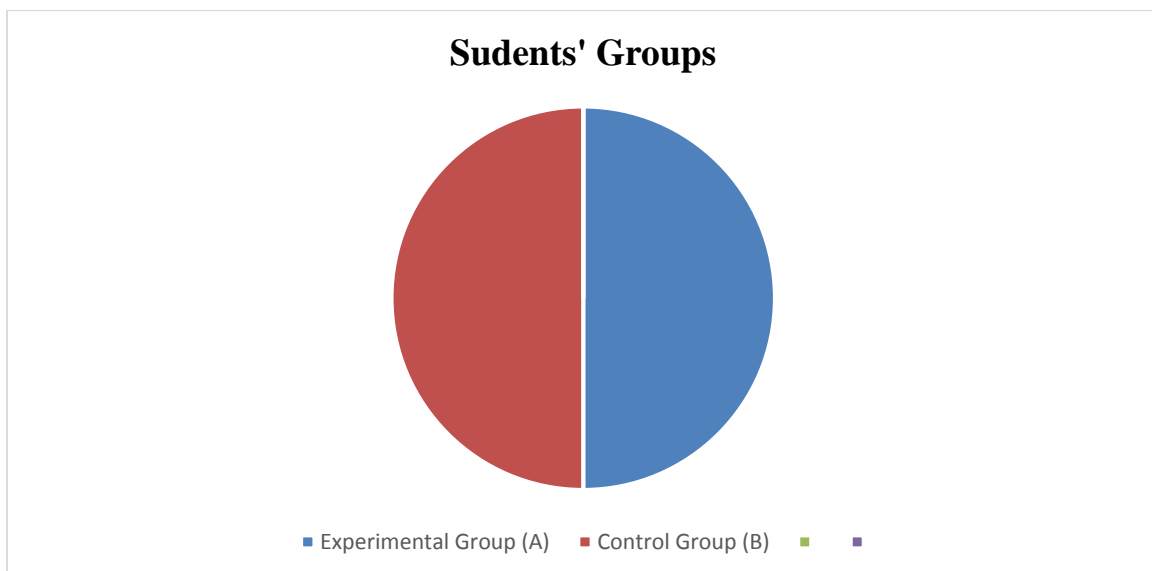
The participants include English major students who study at 3<sup>rd</sup> level Sudanese universities, specifically Khartoum University, Sudan University for Science and Technology and Bahri University. The population were from the same cultural background, they speak Arabic as their mother tongue language. The sample was selected randomly. They are 40 students in number, half of them is experimental group (A)



and the other half is control group (B). The following tables and charts show the students distribution according to their groups and gender.

**Table 3.1 Students' groups**

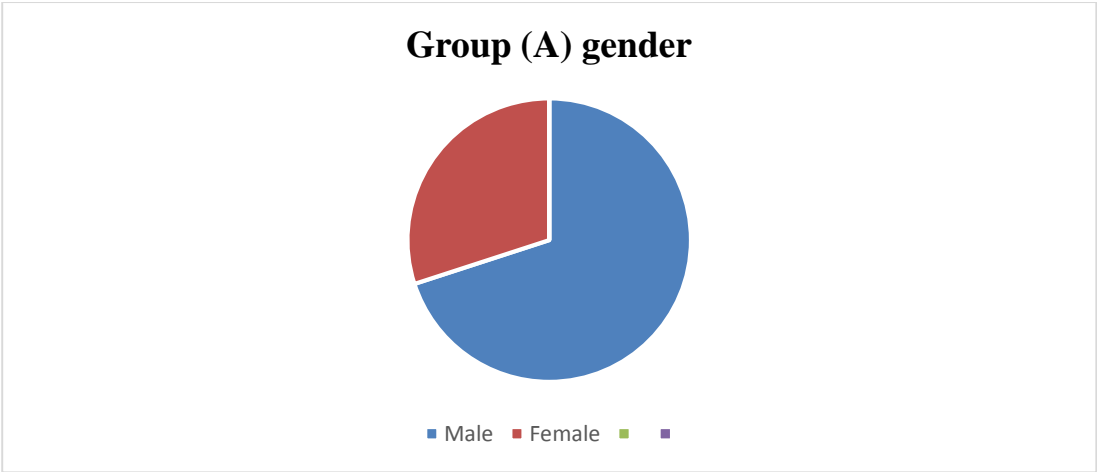
No	Groups	Frequency	Percentage
1	Experimental Group (A)	20	50%
2	Control Group (B)	20	50%
<b>Total</b>		40	100%



**Table 3.2 Students' gender**

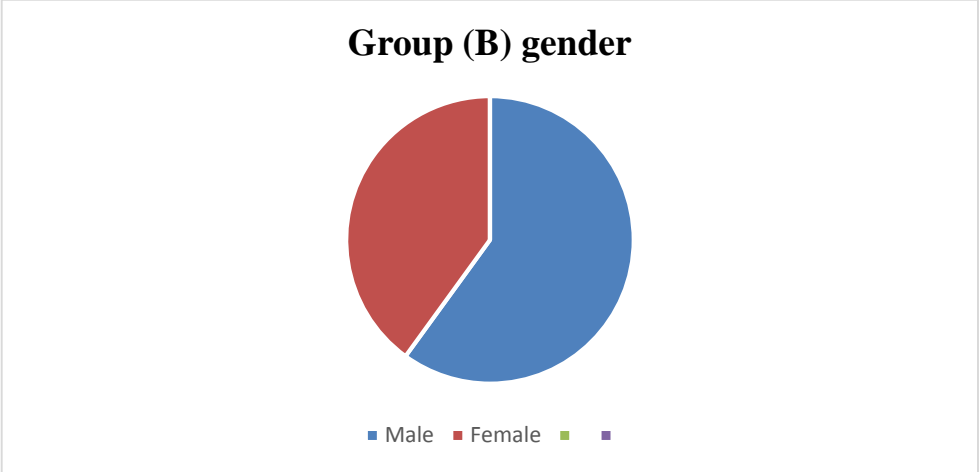
**1. Experimental Group (A)**

Item	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Group (A)	Male	14	70%
	Female	6	30%
Total		20	100%



**2. Control Group (B)**

Item	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Group (B)	Male	12	60%
	Female	8	40%
Total		20	100%



**Teachers:**

The respondents also consists of English language teachers who work for different universities and schools. They have different English language qualifications graded from B.As to PHD, and they have

different years of experience. The following tables and graphs show the distribution of their gender, qualification and years of experience:

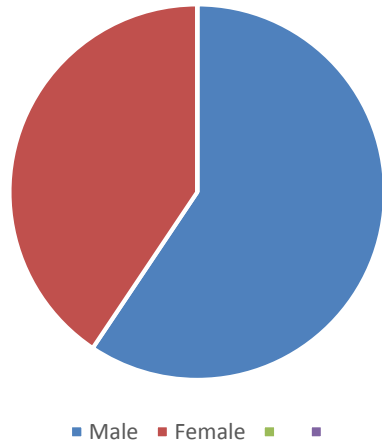
**Table 3.4.2.1 Distribution of Teachers according to Universities and Schools**

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Khartoum University	3	8.1 %
Sudan University of Science and Technology	4	10.8 %
El Neelain University	2	5.4 %
Bahri University	2	5.4 %
Red Sea University	2	5.4 %
El Azhari University	3	8.1 %
Jazan University KSA	12	32.4 %
British Schools	4	10.8 %
Algabas Schools	5	13.5 %
<b>Total</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Table 3.4.2.2 Teachers' gender**

<b>No</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1	Male	22	59.4 %
2	Female	15	40.6 %

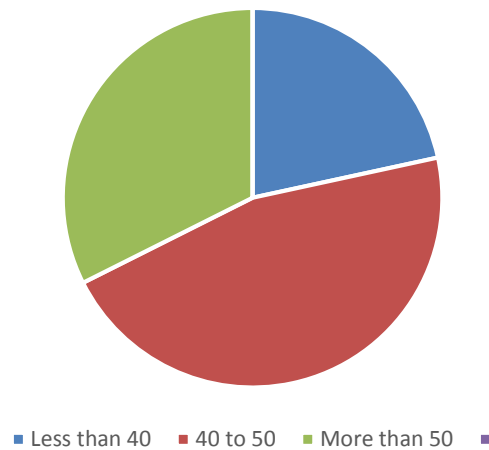
**Teachers' Gender**



**Table 3.4.2.3 Teachers' Age Distribution**

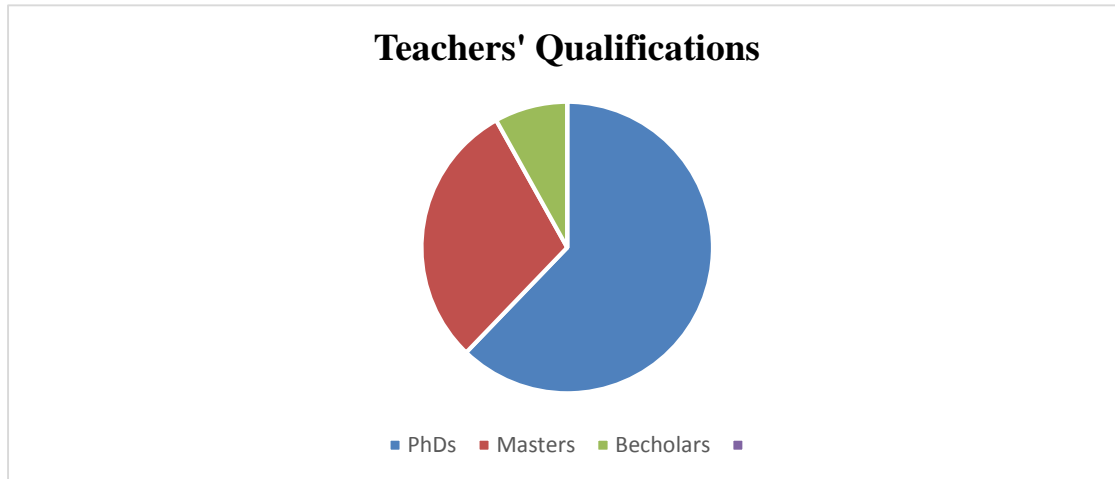
NO	Ages	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than 40	8	21.6%
2	(40 -50)	17	46 %
3	More than 50	12	32.4%
Total		100	100%

**Teachers' Ages**



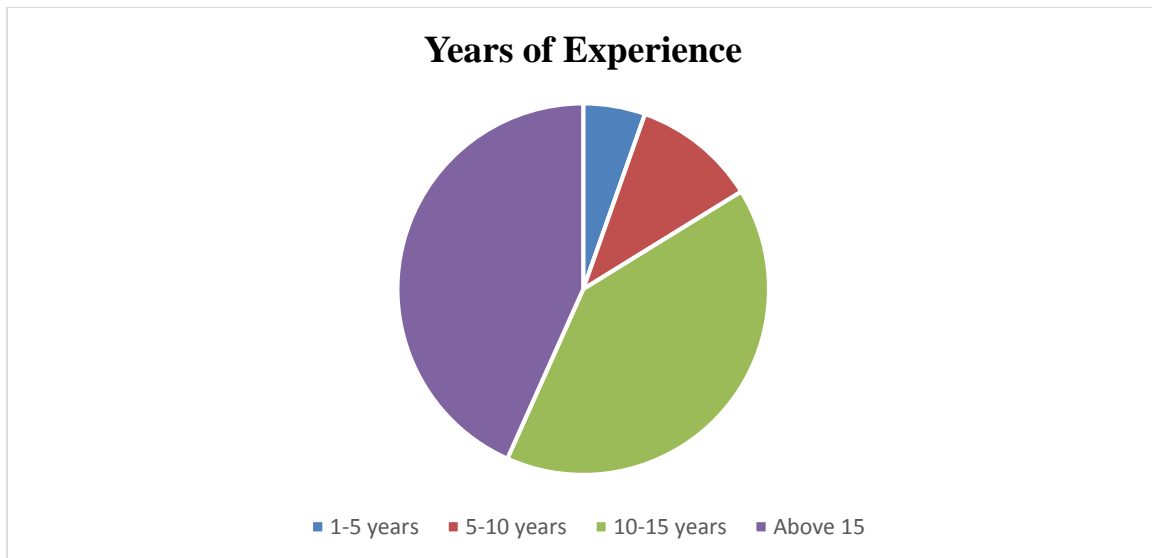
**Table 3.4.2.4 Teachers' Qualification**

No	Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
1	PhDs	23	62.2%
2	Masters	11	29.7 %
3	Bachelor degree	3	8.1%



**Table 3.4.2.5 Years of Experience**

NO	Years of Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1	(1 to 5) years	02	5.4%
2	(5 to 10) years	04	10.8%
3	(10 to 15) years	15	40.5%
4	More than 15 years	16	43.3%



### 3.5 Validity of the Instrument

To check the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher sent it to the supervisor and English language specialist. The juries were six teachers with different qualification and different years of experience. After reviewing the instrument the jury members gave the approval of the tools validly with some amendments on a few items. The researcher modified the faulty items and resent the questionnaire to the supervisor for final confirmation.

### 3.6 Reliability of the Instrument

The researcher compiled the data, then the reliability of the questionnaires were calculated by SPSS. The result shows that the data collection tools are reliable. Reliability was calculated using Cranach's alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{N-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation college grades}}$$

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{N-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation college grades}}}$$

The questionnaire Cronach alpha coefficient = (0.981) a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study. The reliability coefficient is (0.982), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.981	.982	39

Again cronbach's alpha method was used to check the reliability and validity for the students' performance in the experimental group (A) and control group (B) as shown in the below equation.

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{N-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation college grades}}$$

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{N-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation college grades}}}$$

Cronach alpha coefficient = (0.83) a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study.

The reliability coefficient is (0.91), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

**Cronach's alpha method:**

Value	Reliability	Validity
Experimental group	0.63	0.78
Control group	0.85	0.93
Total	0.83	0.91

### The Research Tools Jury Members

<b>No.</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Academic Position</b>	<b>Place of work</b>
<b>1</b>	Dr Al Tahir Qamar	<i>Assistant Professor</i>	Jazan University, KSA
<b>2</b>	Abdalla M S Ali	<i>Assistant Professor</i>	Jazan University, KSA
<b>3</b>	Sabri Omer Kojok	Assistant Professor	Bahri University, Sudan
<b>4</b>	Al awad Yagoub	Assistant Professor	Jazan University, KSA



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**CHAPTER FOUR**  
**DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

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## **Chapter Four**

### **Data Analysis, Results and Discussions**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter deals with analysis and presentation of data which was collected through teachers' questionnaires and the experiment to show how simultaneous interpretation play a crucial role in fostering students language standards, with focus on listening and speaking skills.

The researcher used a descriptive approach to analyze the data, then the analyzed data is tabulated in the form of frequencies and percentage. The result were discussed in the following sub sections. Finally the research hypothesis were tested.

The chapter contains (9) sections including the introductory material. The second section represent the analysis of students result on speaking and listening to show the result of simultaneous interpretation impact on these skills. In the third section the analysis of teachers' views about the effect of using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching, the fourth section deals with how teachers can use simultaneous interpretation in developing learners listening sub-skills. An analysis of teachers' attitudes towards using interpretation to enhance Speaking sub-skills is elaborated in the fifth section.

The sixth section reflects the effect of Interpretation on developing language prosodic features (patterns). In the seventh section, the analysis of the data shows how to use interpretation to increase learners' awareness of (L2) Language Items.

The effect of interpretation on learning language syntactic structure and how students could structure different types of sentences easily is discussed in the eighth section.

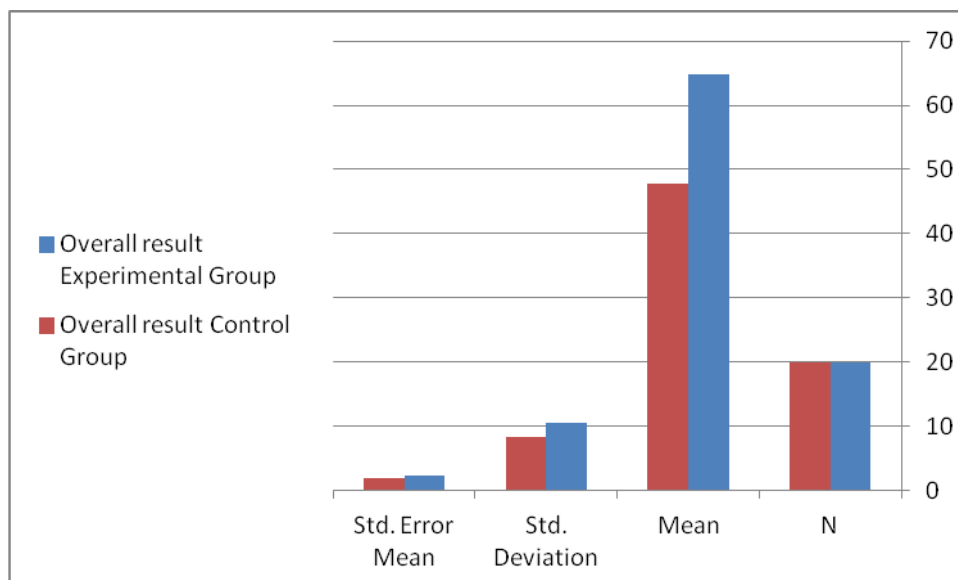
Finally, the findings of overall analysis of the data using ‘mean’ and ‘stander deviation’.

#### 4.1 The second Section: Students Result Analysis and Discussion

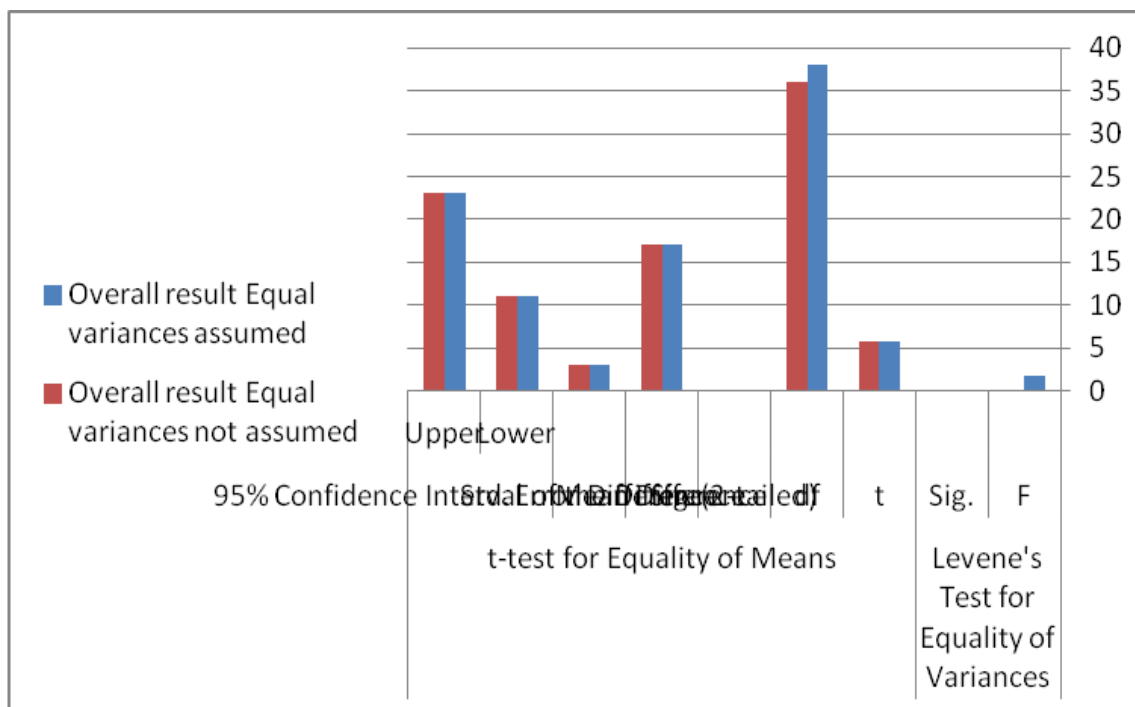
This section deals with the analysis of students result on speaking and listening performance after conducting the experiment. The tables and graphs shows the comparison between the Experimental group (A) and Control Group (B). The analysis was run through independent T-Test using SPSS to show if there is significant different between Group (A) and (B).

##### 4.1.1 The result of students' Speaking Performance (T-Test)

Group Statistics					
	Group Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Overall result	Experimental Group	20	64.90	10.498	2.347
	Control Group	20	47.80	8.218	1.838



Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Overall result	Equal variances assumed	1.685	.202	5.736	38	.000	17.100	2.981	11.065	23.135
	Equal variances not assumed			5.736	35.930	.000	17.100	2.981	11.054	23.146

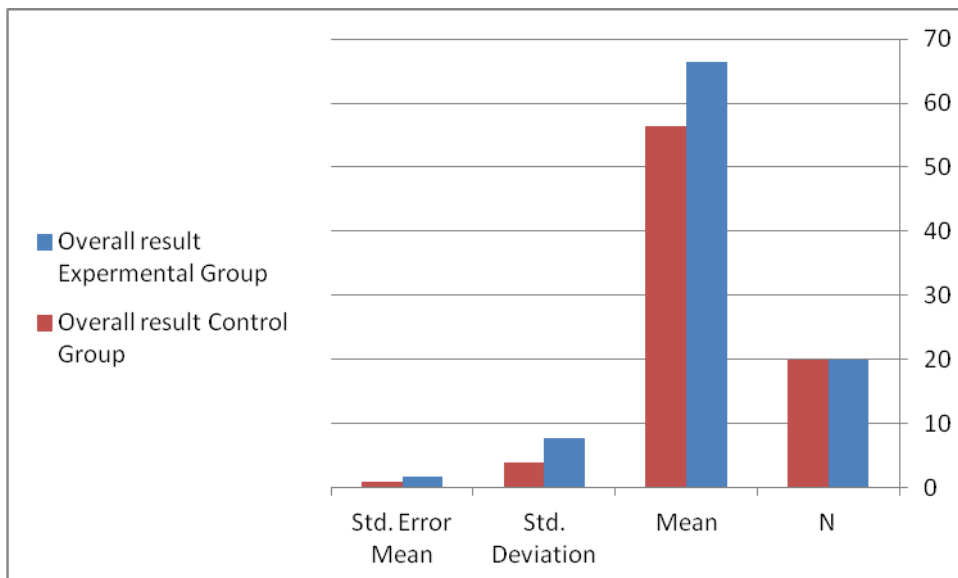


As can be seen from the above table, the value mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for speaking performance was (.000) which is lower than the level of

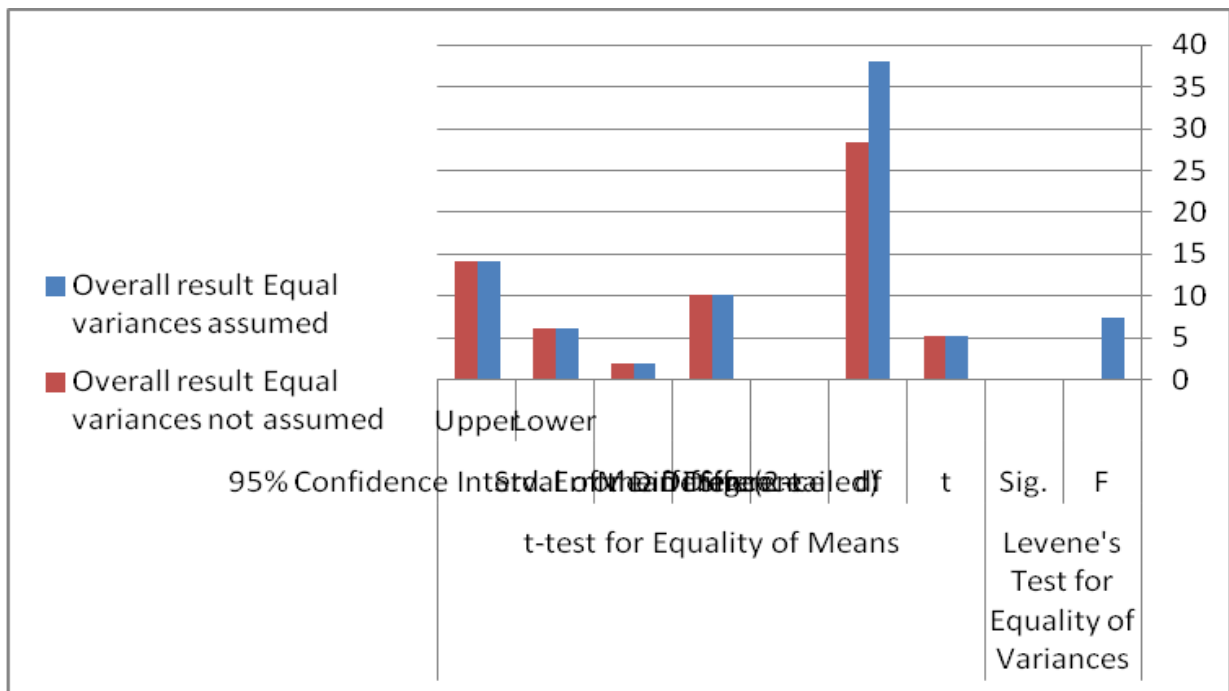
significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically between both groups.

#### 4.1.2 The result of students' Listening Performance (T-Test)

Group Statistics					
	Group Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Overall result	Experimental Group	20	66.45	7.715	1.725
	Control Group	20	56.30	3.975	.889



Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Overall result	Equal variances assumed	7.372	.010	5.230	38	.000	10.150	1.941	6.221	14.079
	Equal variances not assumed			5.230	28.423	.000	10.150	1.941	6.177	14.123



As can be seen from the above table, the value mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for listening performance was (.000) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically between both group

## 4.2 The Third section: Analysis of Teachers' perception about the effect of using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching.

This section shows the analysis of teachers' perception on using interpretation in Foreign Language Teaching. The data were analyzed by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item.

**Table (4.2.1) Using Arabic Language (L1) to learn English Language (L2)**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	21.1	21.6	21.6
	Disagree	5	13.2	13.5	35.1
	Neutral	7	18.4	18.9	54.1
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	81.1
	Strongly agree	7	18.4	18.9	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

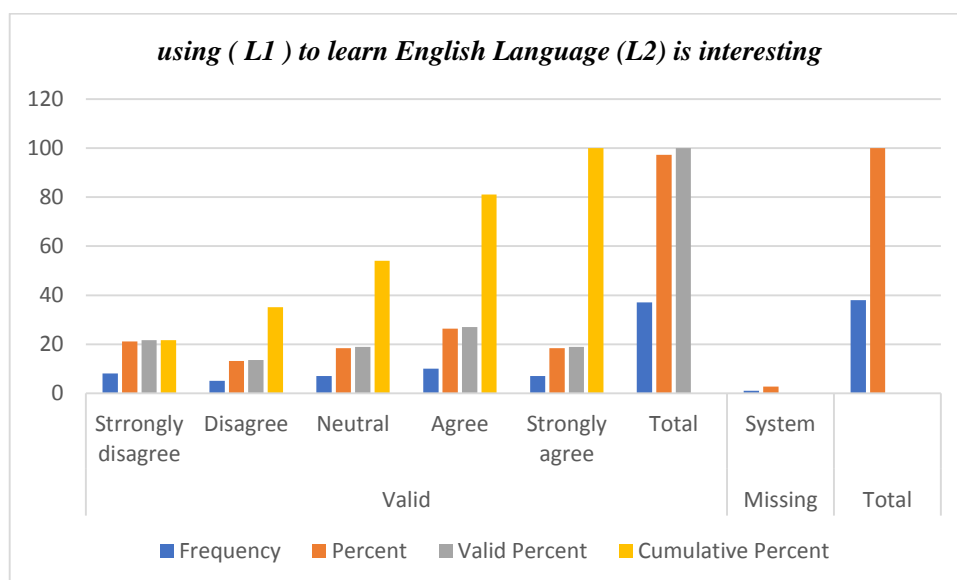
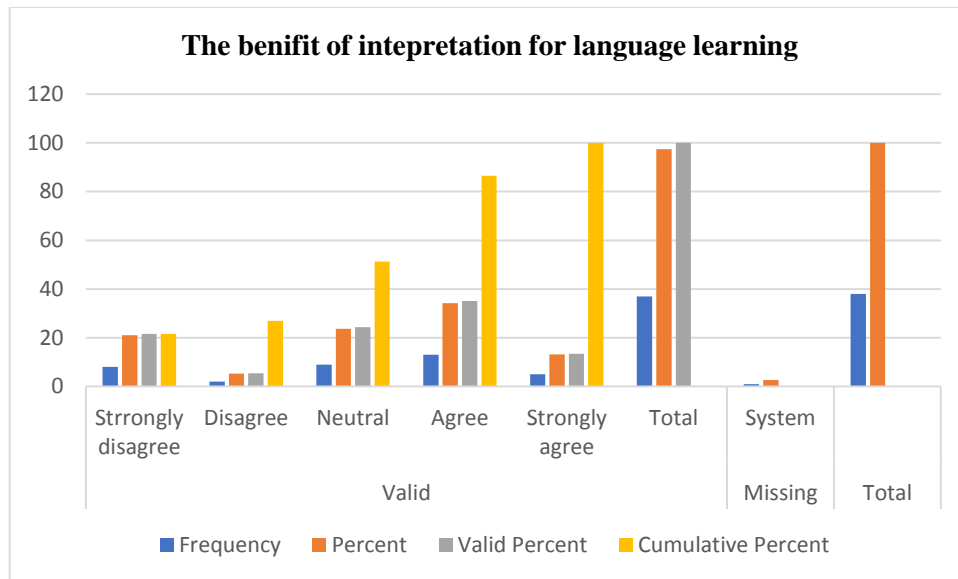


Table (4.2.1) illustrates the views about teachers' agreement on the use of simultaneous interpretation, using Arabic Language (L1) to learn English Language (L2). As can be seen from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%18.4) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%26.3) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand (%21.1) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%13.2) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%18.4) of the teachers remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%81.1) agree, (%35.1) disagree, (%21.6) strongly disagree and (%54.1) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It would be true to say that using mother tongue Language (L1) to learn foreign language (L2) is beneficial.

#### 4.2.2 The benefit of Interpretation in language learning:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	21.1	21.6	21.6
	Disagree	2	5.3	5.4	27.0
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	51.4
	Agree	13	34.2	35.1	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

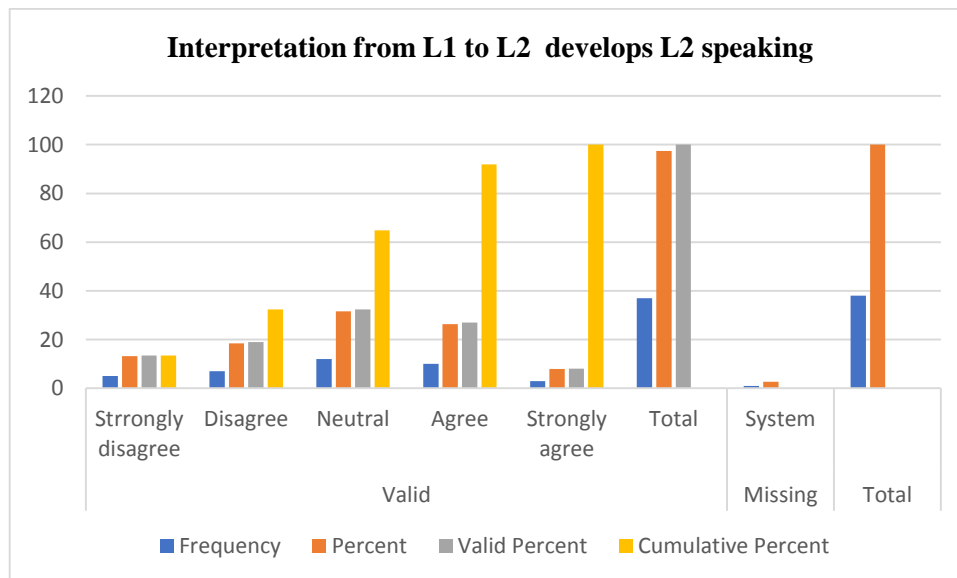




The above table (4.2.2) and chart depicts the results of the data about the benefit of interpretation on language learning. At the first glance, the result shows that (%32.2) of the respondents agree and (%13.2) strongly agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%21.1), (%5.3) strongly disagree and disagree respectively. (%23.7) of the participants remain ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%86.6) agree, (%27) disagree, (%21.7) strongly disagree and (%51.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. The results reveal that simultaneous interpretation is a promising tool for language learning.

### 4.2.3 Interpretation from L1 to L2 makes faster development in L2 speaking:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	7	18.4	18.9	32.4
	Neutral	12	31.6	32.4	64.9
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



Item (4.2.3) examine the faster development of L2 speaking skills through interpretation. The result on Table (4.1.3) and the bar graph shows (%7.9) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%26.3) of them ‘Agree’. On the other hand (%13.2) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%18.4) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%31.6) of the teachers remain ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%13.5)

strongly disagree and (%64.9) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above graph.

#### 4.2.4 Interpretation from makes faster development in L2 listening:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	5	13.2	13.5	27.0
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	51.4
	Agree	14	36.8	37.8	89.2
	Strongly agree	4	10.5	10.8	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

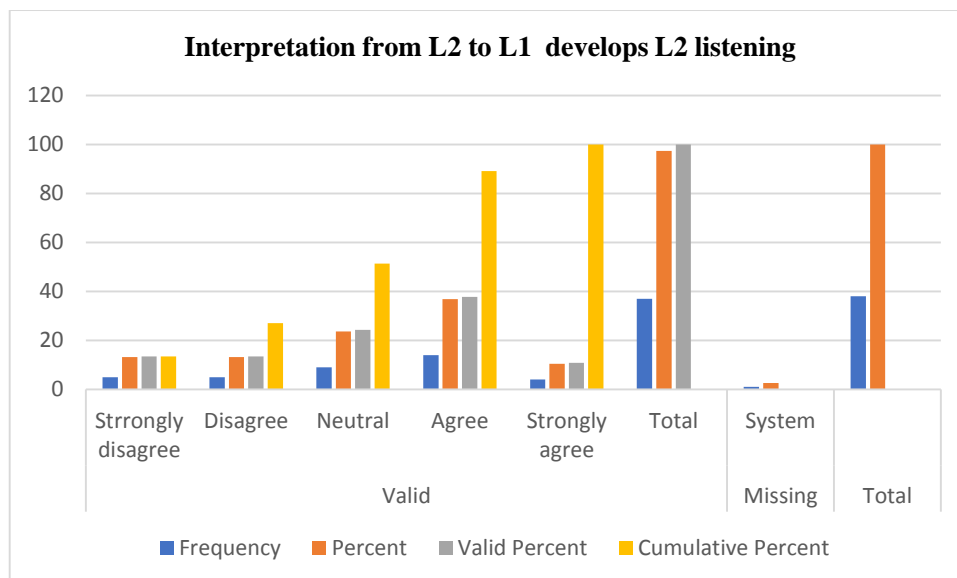


Table (4.2.4) outlines the views about teachers' approval on whether interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening. It is conspicuous from the table and the graph (%10.5) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%36.8) of them 'Agree'. Alternatively (%13.2) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%13.2) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The growing ratio signposts (%100) strongly agree, (%89.2)

agree, (%27) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%51.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It is valid to say that interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening.

#### 4.2.5 Interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	37.8
	Neutral	3	7.9	8.1	45.9
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	75.7
	Strongly agree	9	23.7	24.3	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

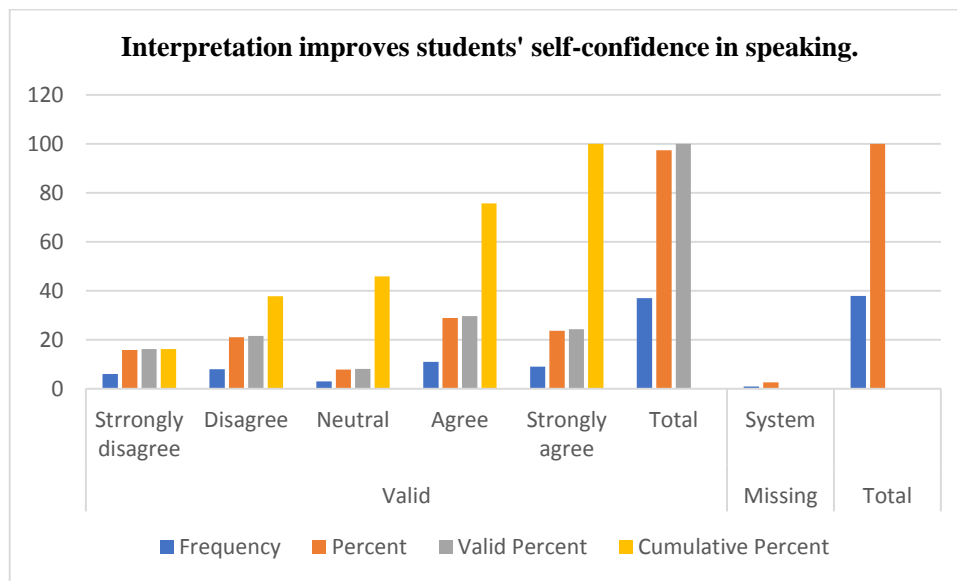
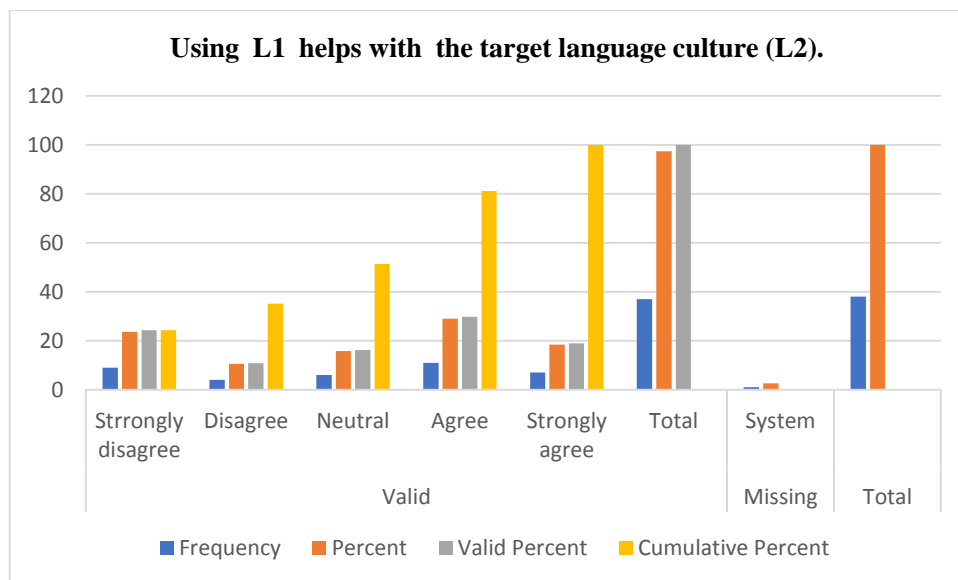


Table (4.2.5) clarifies the views about teachers' contract on if interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking. This graph displays (%23.7) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%28.5) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand (%15.8) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%21.1) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%7.9) of the teachers still 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage

indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%75.7) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%45.9) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is accurate to say that interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking.

#### 4.2.6 Using L1 helps learners to be aware of the target language culture

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	23.7	24.3	24.3
	Disagree	4	10.5	10.8	35.1
	Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	51.4
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	81.1
	Strongly agree	7	18.4	18.9	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



This Table demonstrates teachers' opinions on using L1 to familiarize the learners with the target language culture by finding the exact equivalent rather the literal interpretation of the text. As shown in figure (4.2.6), the distribution of the sample expresses (%18.4) of the

respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%28.9) of them ‘Agree’. Contrariwise, (%23.7) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%10.5) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%15.8) of the teachers remain ‘Neutral’. The incremental percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%81.1) agree, (%35.1) disagree, (%24.3) strongly disagree and (%51.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It honest to say that interpretation from L1 helps learners become more familiar with the target language culture (L2).

#### 4.2.7 Interpretation is ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	21.1	21.6	21.6
	Disagree	7	18.4	18.9	40.5
	Neutral	8	21.1	21.6	62.2
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	89.2
	Strongly agree	4	10.5	10.8	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

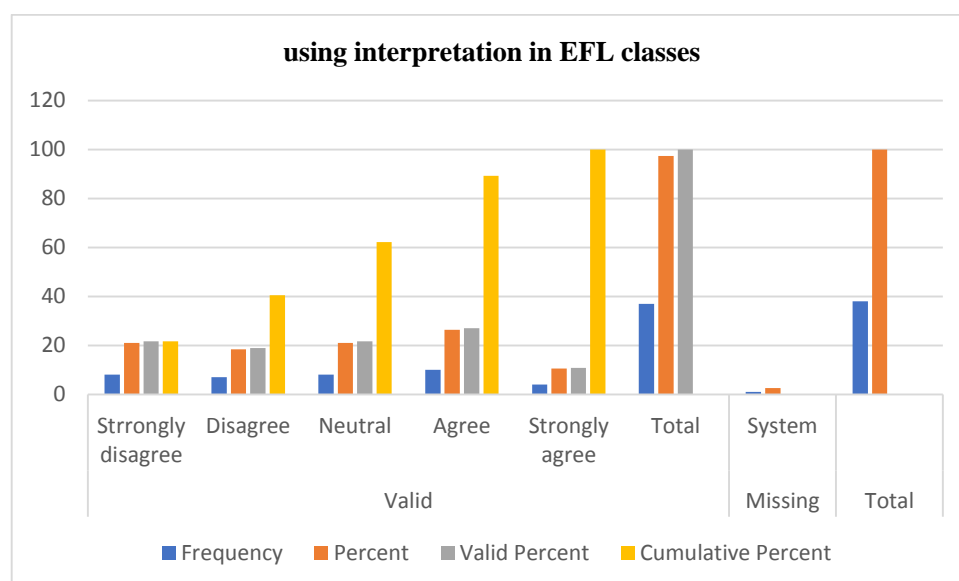


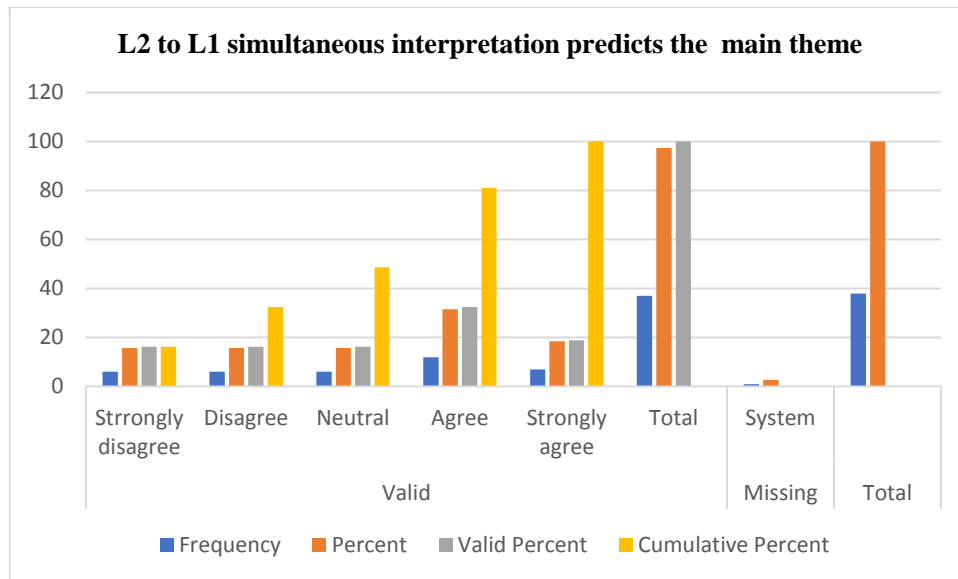
Table (4.2.7) explains the teachers' sights on using interpretation as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes. As can be seen from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%10.5) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%26.3) of them 'Agree'. Then again, (%21.1) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%18.4) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%21.1) of the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%89.2) agree, (%40.5) disagree, (%21.6) strongly disagree and (%62.2) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is valid to say that interpretation could be used as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes.

#### **4.3 The fourth section: Analysis of Teachers' insights about the effect of interpretation in developing learners listening skills:**

This sector demonstrates the analysis of teachers' views about the effect of interpretation in developing learners listening skills. The data were analyzed by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item.

**Table (4.3.1) L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation predict the speakers' main theme**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
Disagree	6	15.8	16.2	32.4
Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	48.6
Agree	12	31.6	32.4	81.1
Strongly agree	7	18.4	18.9	100.0
Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing System	1	2.6		
Total	38	100.0		



The above table (4.3.1) and chart depicts the results of the data about using L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation to let students guess the speakers' main theme (idea). At the first glance, the result shows that (%18.4) of the respondents strongly agree and (%31.6) agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%15.8), (%15.8) strongly disagree and disagree respectively. (%15.8) of the participants remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%81.1) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%48.6) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. The results disclose that simultaneous interpretation from L2 to L1 helps students to expect the speakers' general theme idea.



**Table (4.3.2) Interpretation allow students to guess the speakers' next word.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	7.9	8.1	8.1
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	29.7
	Neutral	8	21.1	21.6	51.4
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	81.1
	Strongly agree	7	18.4	18.9	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

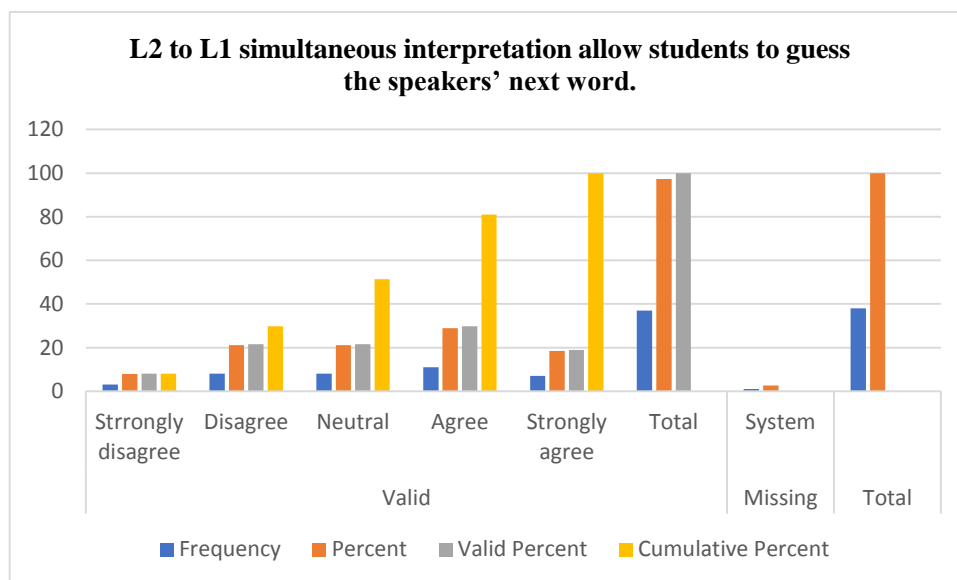
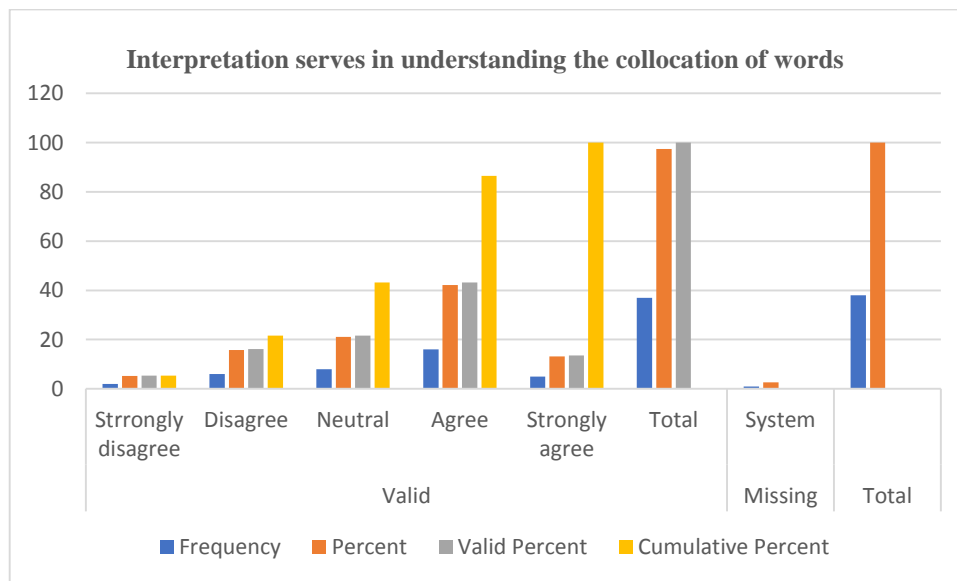


Table (4.3.2) clarifies the views about teachers' beliefs on using L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation to allow students guess the speakers' next word.. As shown on the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%18.4) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%28.9) of them 'Agree'. Oppositely, (%7.9) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%21.1) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%21.1) of the teachers stick at 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%81.1) agree, (%29.7) disagree, (%8.1) strongly disagree and (%51.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on

the above chart. It would be true to say that L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation allow students to guess the speakers’ next word.

**Table (4.3.3) Interpretation serves in understanding the collocation of words**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	5.3	5.4	5.4
	Disagree	6	15.8	16.2	21.6
	Neutral	8	21.1	21.6	43.2
	Agree	16	42.1	43.2	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The item (4.3.3) inspect teachers’ thoughts on using interpretation to understand the words association. The result on table (4.2.3) and the bar graph shows (%13.2) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%42.1) of them ‘Agree’. In contrast, (%5.3) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’

and (%15.8) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%21.16) of the teachers persist ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%21.6) disagree, (%5.2) strongly disagree and (%43.2) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above graph.

**Table (4.3.4) Interpretation develops the use of super-segmental features:**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	6	15.8	16.2	29.7
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	54.1
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	81.1
	Strongly agree	7	18.4	18.9	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

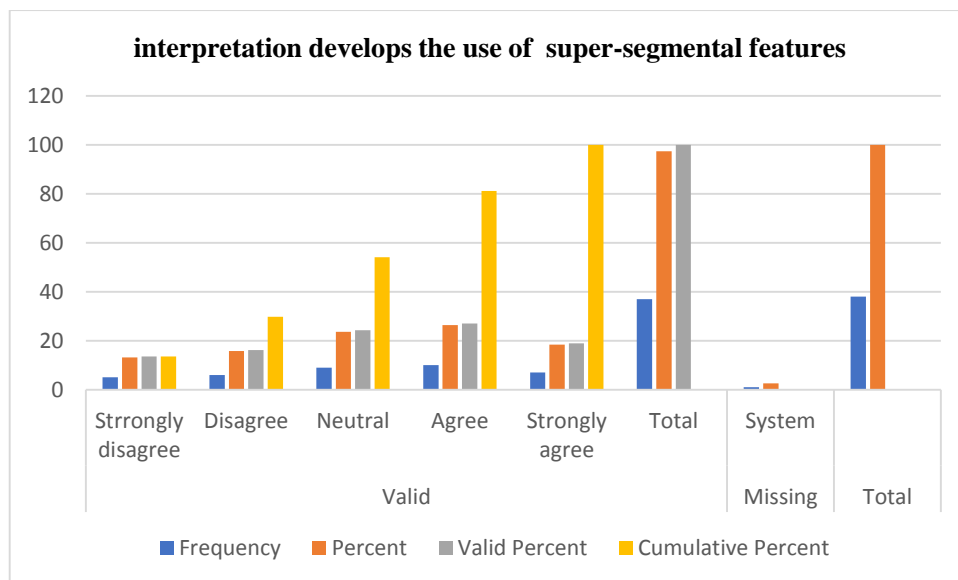


Table (4.3.4) summaries teachers’ visions on suing L2 to L1 interpretation to help students identify the meaning implies by stress,

intonation, and rhythm. It is obvious from the table and the graph (%18.4) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%26.3) of them ‘Agree’. On the other hand, (%13.2) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%15.8) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers stay ‘Neutral’. The growing ratio signs (%100) strongly agree, (%81.1) agree, (%29.7) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%54.1) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It is usable to say that L2 to L1 interpretation help students to identify the meaning implied by super-segmental features, such as intonation, stress....Etc.

**Table (4.3.5) interpretation help the student to guess the meaning from the context.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	4	10.5	10.8	24.3
	Neutral	7	18.4	18.9	43.2
	Agree	13	34.2	35.1	78.4
	Strongly agree	8	21.1	21.6	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

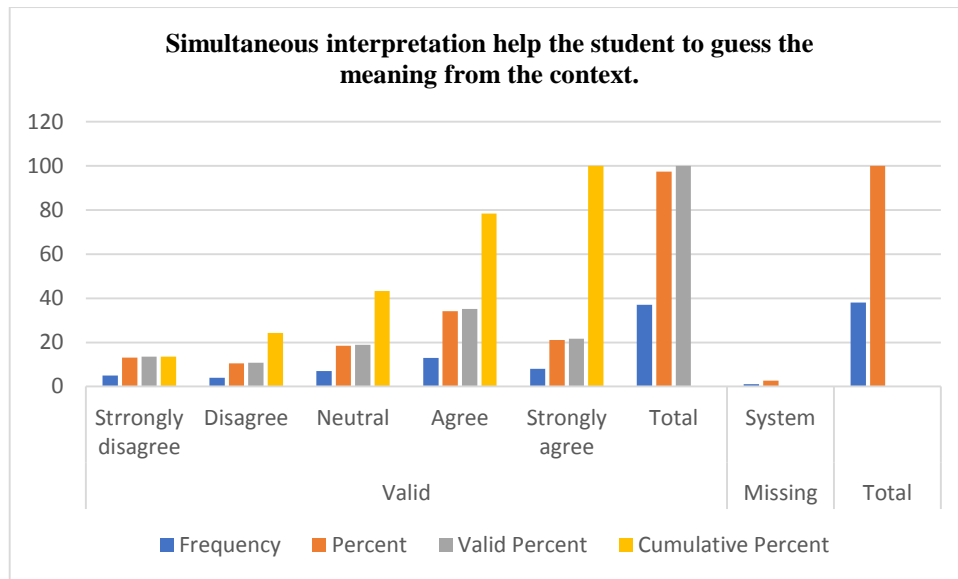
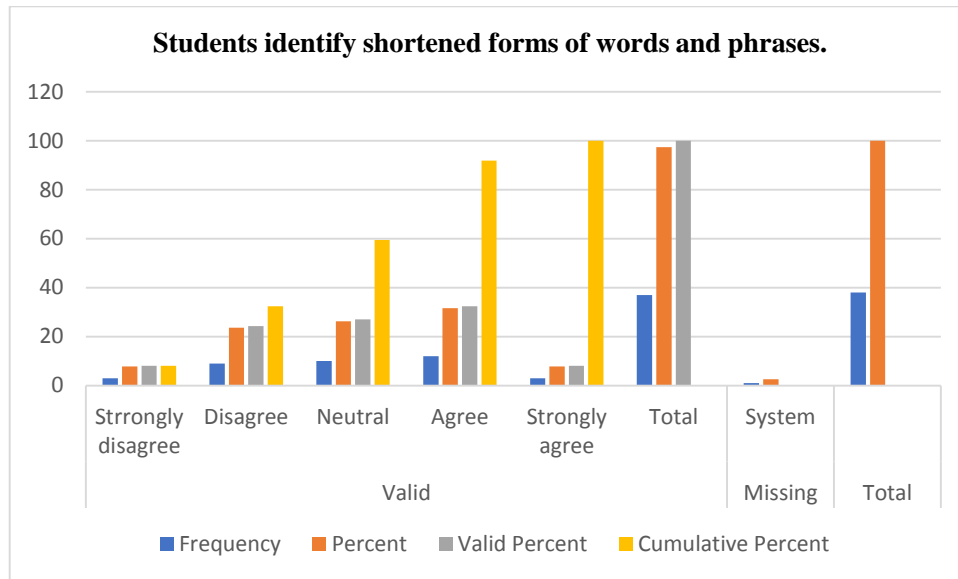


Table (4.3.5) elucidates teachers' viewpoint on using simultaneous interpretation to guess the meaning from the context. This graph indicates (%21.1) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%34.2) of them 'Agree'. However, (%13.2) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%10.5) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%18.4) of the teachers stick at 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%78.4) agree, (%24.3) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%43.2) neutral as revealed in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is correct to say that simultaneous interpretation help students to guess the meaning from the context.

**Table (4.3.6) Students identify shortened forms of words and phrases.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	7.9	8.1	8.1
	Disagree	9	23.7	24.3	32.4
	Neutral	10	26.3	27.0	59.5
	Agree	12	31.6	32.4	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



This Table reveals teachers' attitudes on using interpretation to allow students identify shortened forms of words and phrases. As shown in figure (4.3.6), the distribution of the sample states (%7.9) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%31.6) of them 'Agree'. Contrariwise, (%7.9) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%23.7) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%26.3) of the teachers remain 'Neutral'. The incremental percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%8.1) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is frank to say that interpretation permits students to recognize shortened forms of words and phrases.

**Table (4.3.7) Students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	18.4	18.9	18.9
	Disagree	3	7.9	8.1	27.0
	Neutral	12	31.6	32.4	59.5
	Agree	7	18.4	18.9	78.4
	Strongly agree	8	21.1	21.6	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

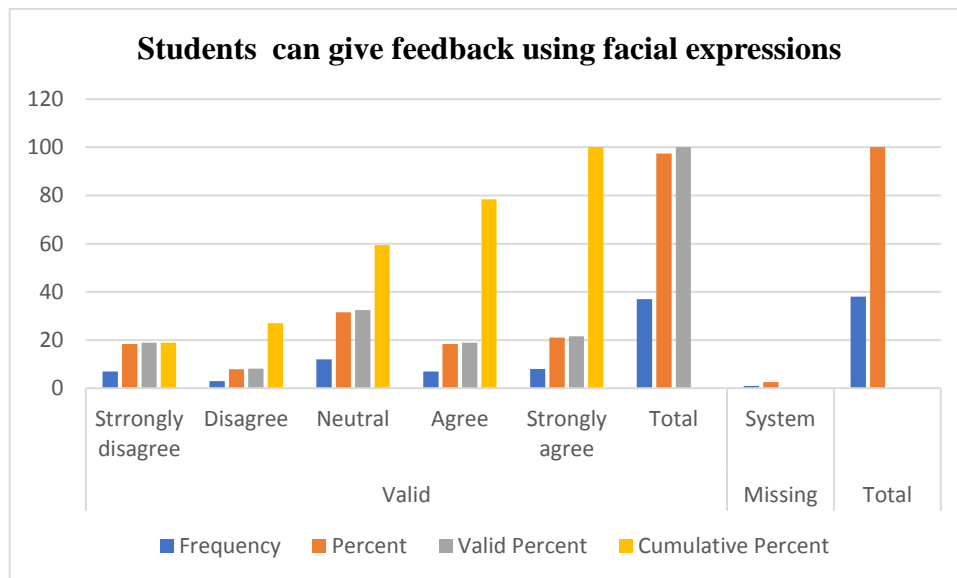


Table (4.3.7) describes the teachers' visualizations on how students learn to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent through simultaneous interpretation tasks. It is apparent from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample shows (%21.1) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%18.4) of them 'Agree'. Then again, (%18.4) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%7.9) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%31.6) of the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%78.4)

agree, (%27.0) disagree, (%18.9) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is useable to say that students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent.

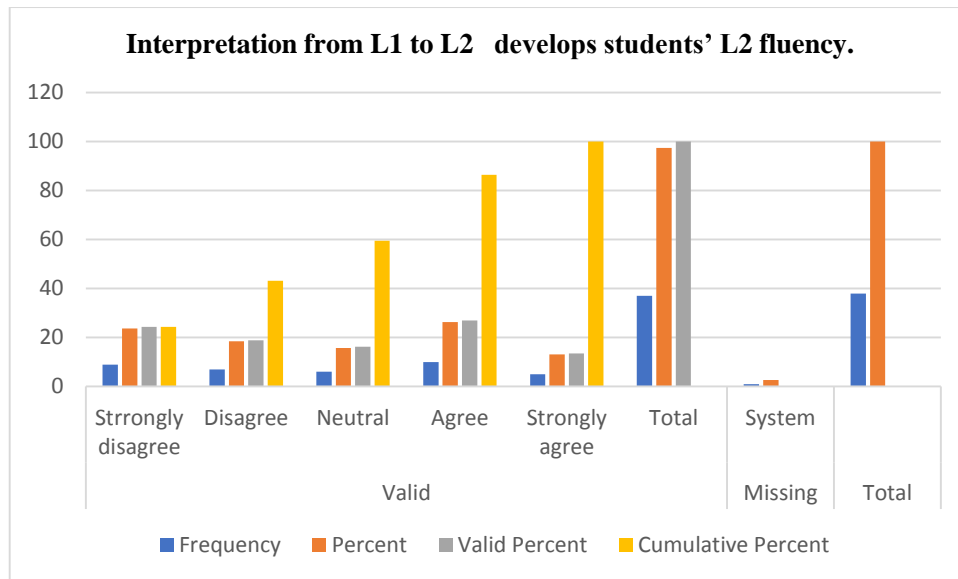
**4.4. The fifth section: Analysis of Teachers’ attitudes towards using simultaneous interpretation to enhance Speaking sub-skills:**

This subdivision establishes the analysis of teachers' views about the influence of interpretation in enhancing speaking sub-skills. The statistics were carried out by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables and graphs to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item in this domain.

**Table (4.4.1) Interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students’ L2 fluency.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	23.7	24.3	24.3
	Disagree	7	18.4	18.9	43.2
	Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	59.5
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

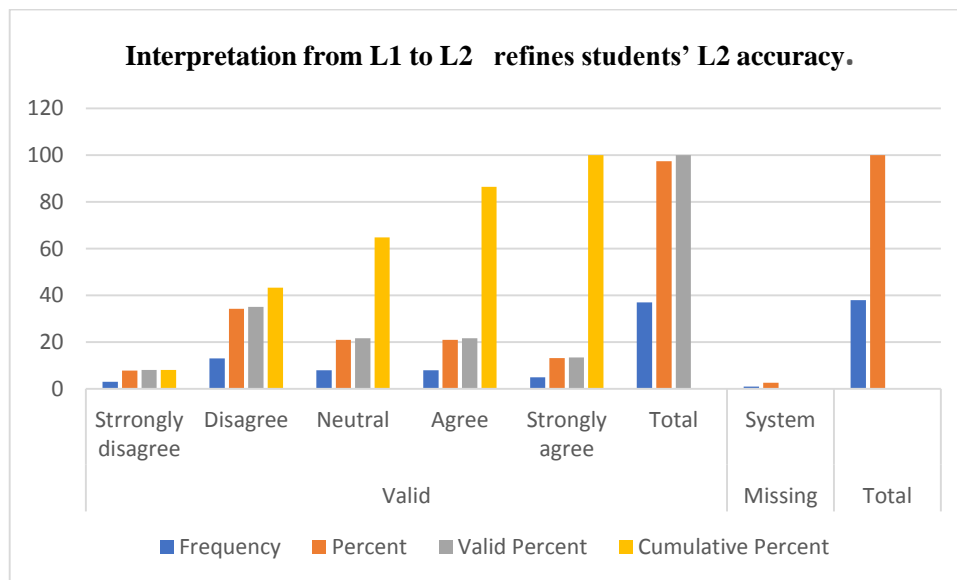




The result of the statement, interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students' L2 fluency is presented on table (4.4.1). The distribution of the sample indicates (%13.2) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%26.3) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand (%23.7) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%18.4) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%15.8) of the teachers remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%24.3) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It would be true to say that students will be fluent in L2 if they practice interpreting contents from their mother language to the target language.

**Table (4.4.2) Interpretation from L1 to L2 refines students' L2 accuracy.**

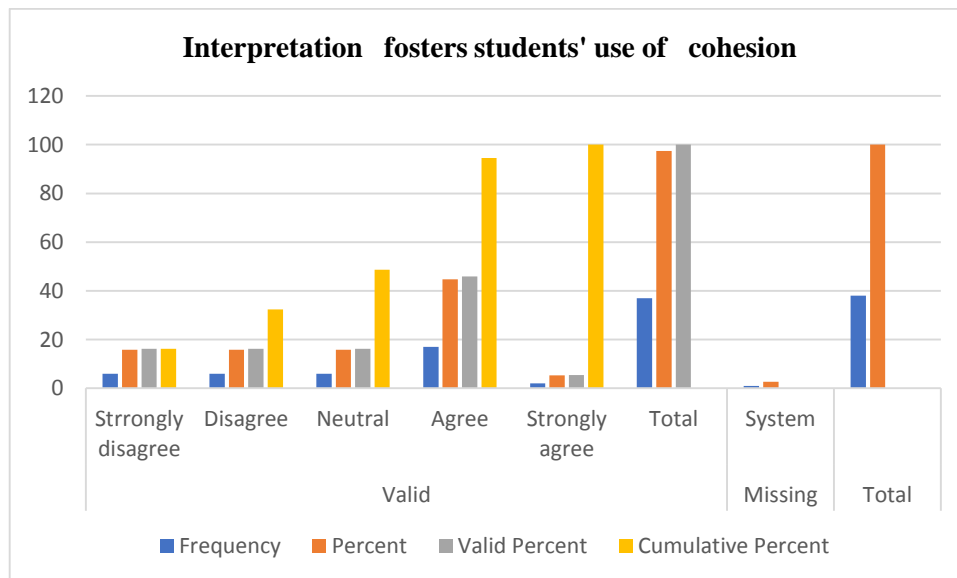
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	7.9	8.1	8.1
	Disagree	13	34.2	35.1	43.2
	Neutral	8	21.1	21.6	64.9
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The above table (4.4.2) and chart depicts the results of the data about fostering students' language accuracy through the implementation of simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes. At the first glance, the result shows that (%13.2) of the respondents strongly agree and (%21.1) agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%7.9), (%34.2) strongly disagree and disagree respectively. (%21.1) of the participants remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%8.1) strongly disagree and (%64.9) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart.

**Table (4.4.3) Interpretation fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions).**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	6	15.8	16.2	32.4
	Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	48.6
	Agree	17	44.7	45.9	94.6
	Strongly agree	2	5.3	5.4	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The screening in item (4.4.3) inspects students developing of cohesion devices and accurate use of transitions through simultaneous interpretations by finding the exact equivalent during simultaneous interpretation. The result on Table (4.3.3) and the bar graph shows (%5.2) of the respondents ‘Agree’ and (%44.7) of them ‘Strongly Agree’. On the other hand (%15.8) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%15.8) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%15.8) of the teachers remain ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates

(%100) strongly agree, (%94.6) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%48.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above graph.

**Table (4.4.4) Interpretation enhances students’ use of Coherence.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	3	7.9	8.1	24.3
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	54.1
	Agree	12	31.6	32.4	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

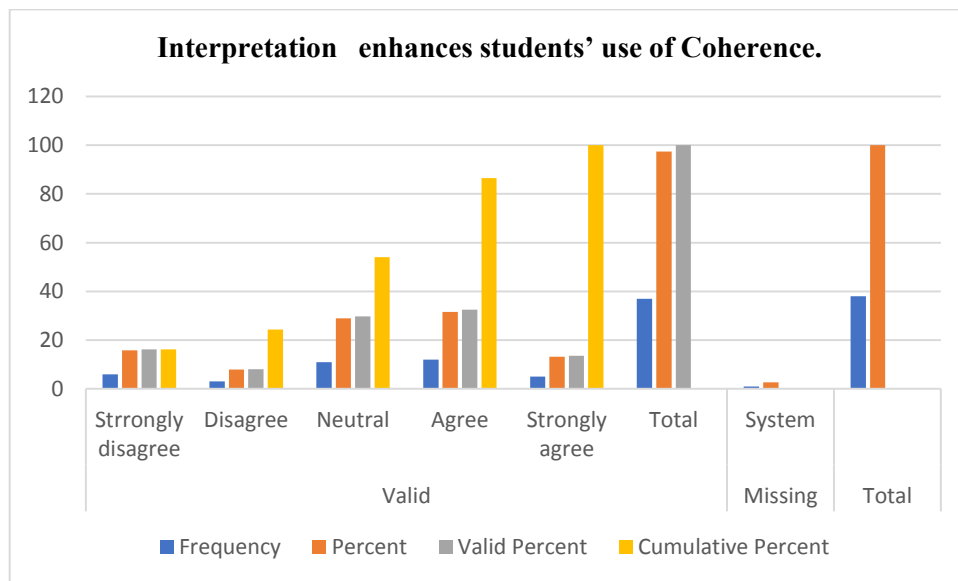


Table (4.4.4) outlines the views about teachers’ support on whether the students can use foreign language logically and consistently when they are exposed to simultaneous interpretations’ tasks. It is visible from the table and the graph (%13.2) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%31.6) of them ‘Agree’. Alternatively (%15.8) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%7.9) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%28.9) of

the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The growing ratio signposts (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%24.3) disagree, (%16.2 strongly disagree and (%54.1) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart.

**Table (4.4.5) Interpretation allows students to account for Turn - taking.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	6	15.8	16.2	32.4
	Neutral	10	26.3	27.0	59.5
	Agree	9	23.7	24.3	83.8
	Strongly agree	6	15.8	16.2	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

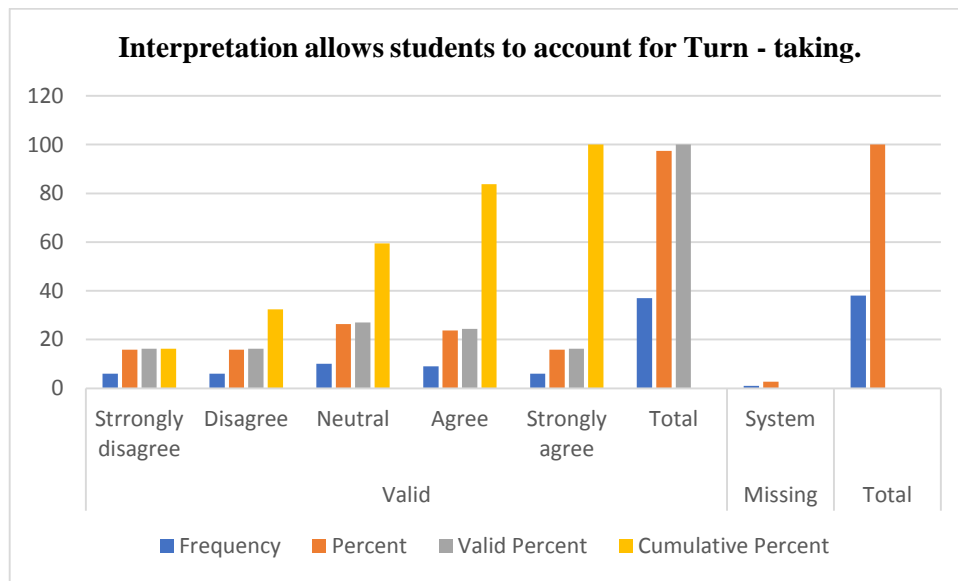
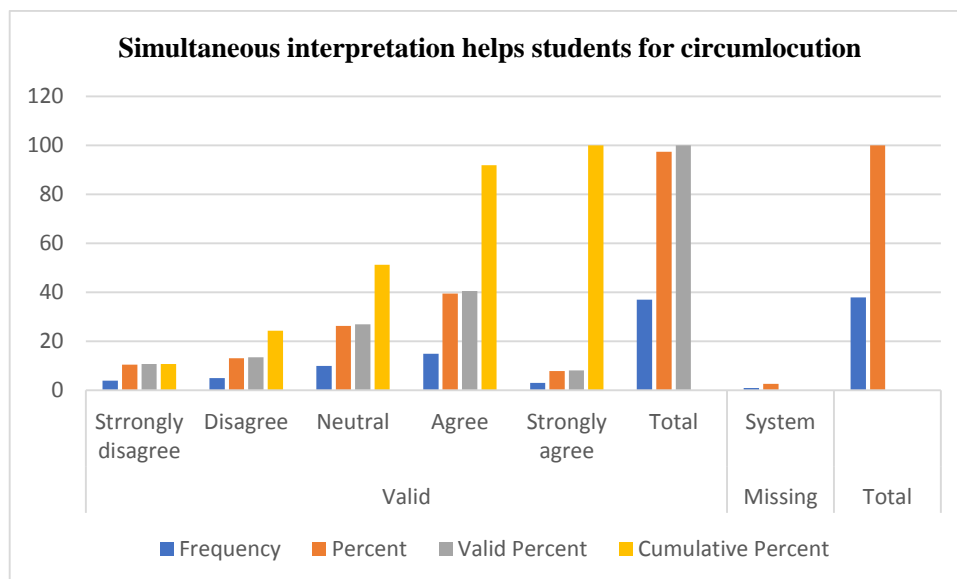


Table (4.4.5) explains the views about teachers' attitudes on whether using interpretation in EFL classes allow students to consider alternating turns to ensure speaking continuation. The above graph shows (%15.8) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%23.7) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand (%15.8) of the sample 'Strongly

disagree’ and (%15.8) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%26.3) of the teachers still ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%83.8) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart.

**Table (4.4.6) Simultaneous interpretation helps students for circumlocution:**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	5	13.2	13.5	24.3
	Neutral	10	26.3	27.0	51.4
	Agree	15	39.5	40.5	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



This Table demonstrates teachers’ opinions on whether simultaneous interpretation account for discourse analysis and help students to deliver

their messages indirectly. As shown in figure (4.4.6), the distribution of the sample expresses (%7.9) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%39.5) of them ‘Agree’. Contrariwise, (%10.5) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%13.2) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%26.3) of the teachers remain ‘Neutral’. The incremental percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%24.3) disagree, (%10.8) strongly disagree and (%51.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart.

**4.5 The sixth section: Analysis of Teachers’ views about the effect of interpretation on developing language prosodic features:**

This part reveals the analysis of teachers’ sights about the effect of interpretation in developing language super-segmental features, such as intonation, stressed. The data were analyzed by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item under this paradigm.

**Table (4.5.1) Students use intonation to convey meanings.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	10	26.3	27.0	43.2
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	67.6
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	89.2
	Strongly agree	4	10.5	10.8	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

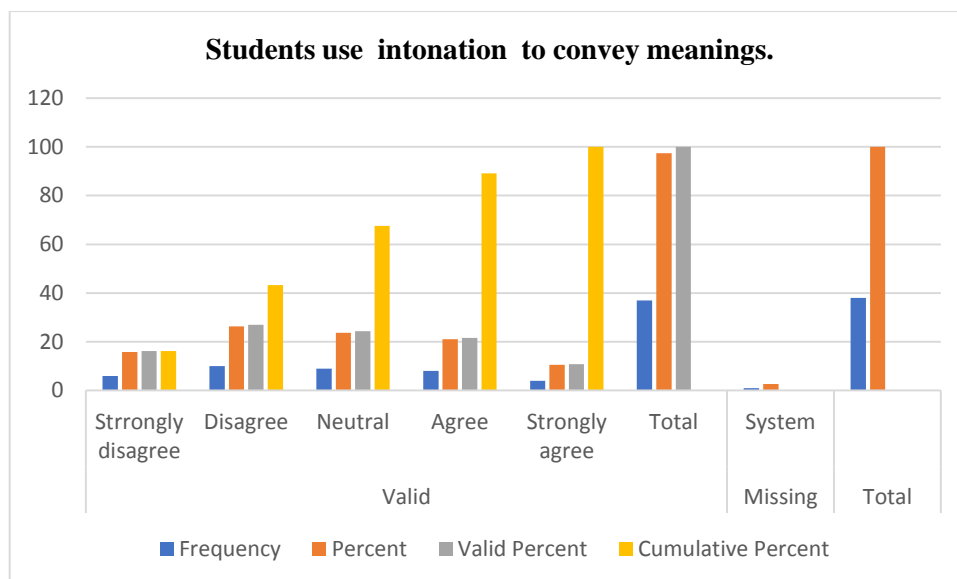
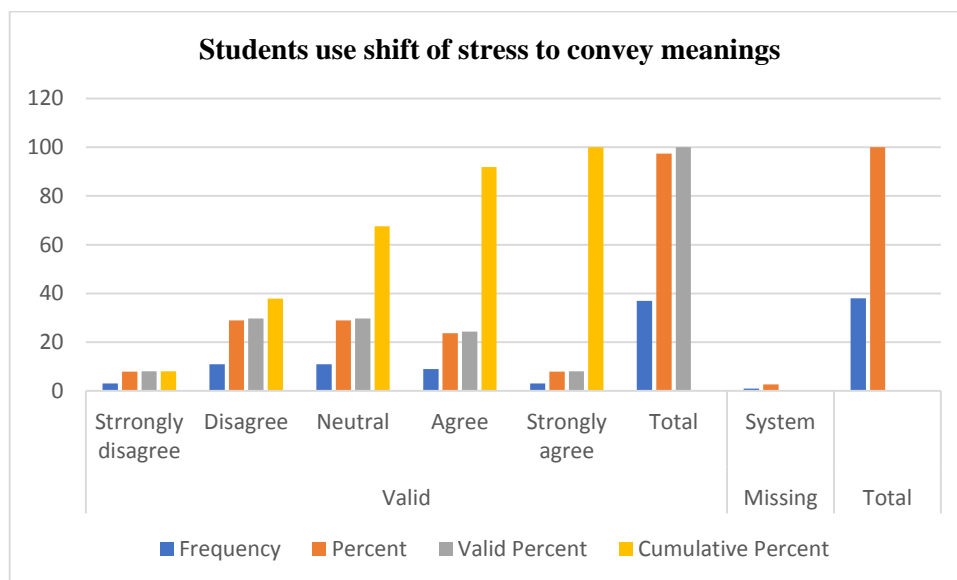


Table (4.5.1) gives details about the statement; simultaneous interpretation improves students' use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings. As can be seen from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%10.5) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%21.1) of them 'Agree'. Then again, (%15.8) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%26.3) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%89.2) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is valid to say that interpretation allow students to change their vocal pitch to deliver alternative messages.



**Table (4.5.2) Students use shift of stress to convey meanings.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	7.9	8.1	8.1
	Disagree	11	28.9	29.7	37.8
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	67.6
	Agree	9	23.7	24.3	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The above table (4.5.2) and chart portrays the results of the data about using interpretation to help students to send the correct meaning by placing stress on the right syllables with in a word or a sentence. At the first glance, the result shows that (%7.9) of the respondents strongly agree and (%23.7) agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%7.9), (%28.9) strongly disagree and disagree respectively. (%28.9) of the participants remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%8.1) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on

the above chart. The results disclose that simultaneous interpretation allow student to place the stress in the correct place to convey the desired meaning.

**Table (4.5.3) Student learn where to tune the volume of voice (pace).**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	7.9	8.1	8.1
	Disagree	9	23.7	24.3	32.4
	Neutral	14	36.8	37.8	70.3
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	97.3
	Strongly agree	1	2.6	2.7	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

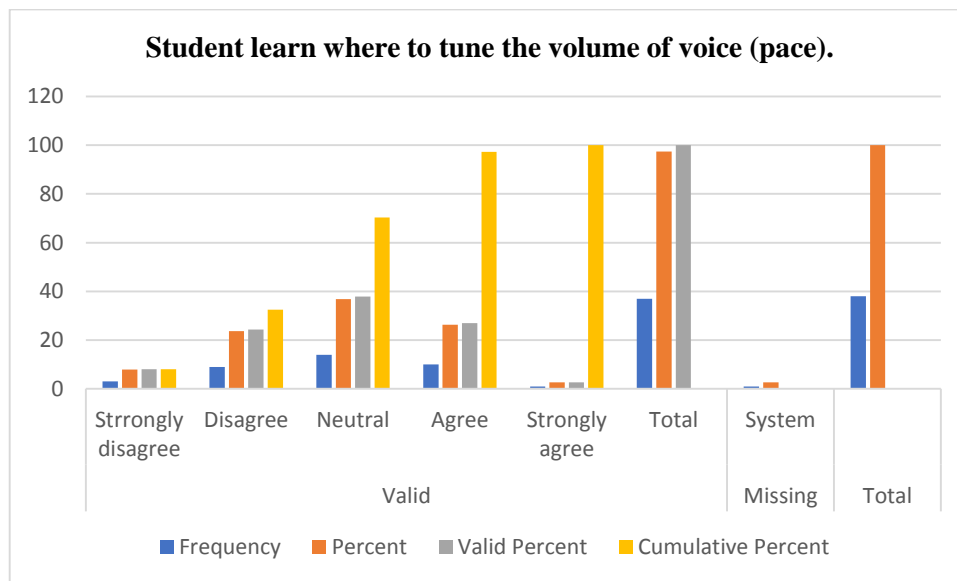
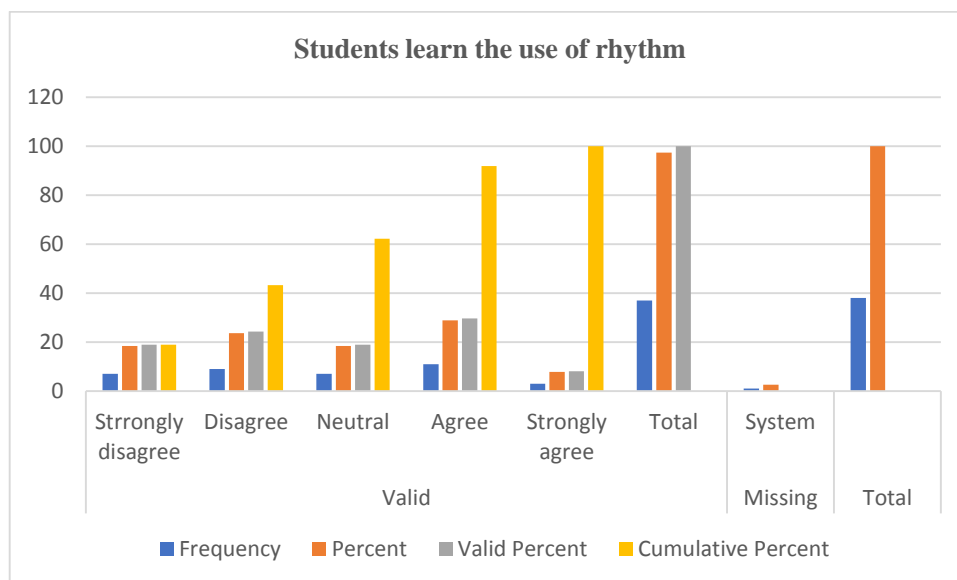


Table (4.5.3) elaborates the views about teachers' beliefs on using simultaneous interpretation to allow students to adjust their pace during speaking. As shown on the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%2.6) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%26.3) of them 'Agree'. Oppositely, (%7.9) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%23.7) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%36.8) of

the teachers stick at ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%97.3) agree, (%32.4) disagree, (%8.1) strongly disagree and (%70.3) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It would be true to say that simultaneous interpretation allow students to lower or raise their voice where necessary to grasp the listener’s attention.

**Table (4.5.4) Students learn the use of rhythm**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	18.4	18.9	18.9
	Disagree	9	23.7	24.3	43.2
	Neutral	7	18.4	18.9	62.2
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The item (4.5.4) review teachers’ judgments on using interpretation in EFL classes to teach the language rhythm by producing different patterns of sound movement to sound like a native. The result shows

(%7.9) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%28.9) of them ‘Agree’. In contrast, (%18.4) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%23.7) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%18.4) of the teachers persist ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%18.9) strongly disagree and (%62.2) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the chart. The conclusion of the analysis indicates that simultaneous interpretation allow students to maintain the rhythm feet between the utterance items to sound like native.

**Table (4.5.5) Students express different feelings changing their tones**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	10	26.3	27.0	37.8
	Neutral	5	13.2	13.5	51.4
	Agree	12	31.6	32.4	83.8
	Strongly agree	6	15.8	16.2	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

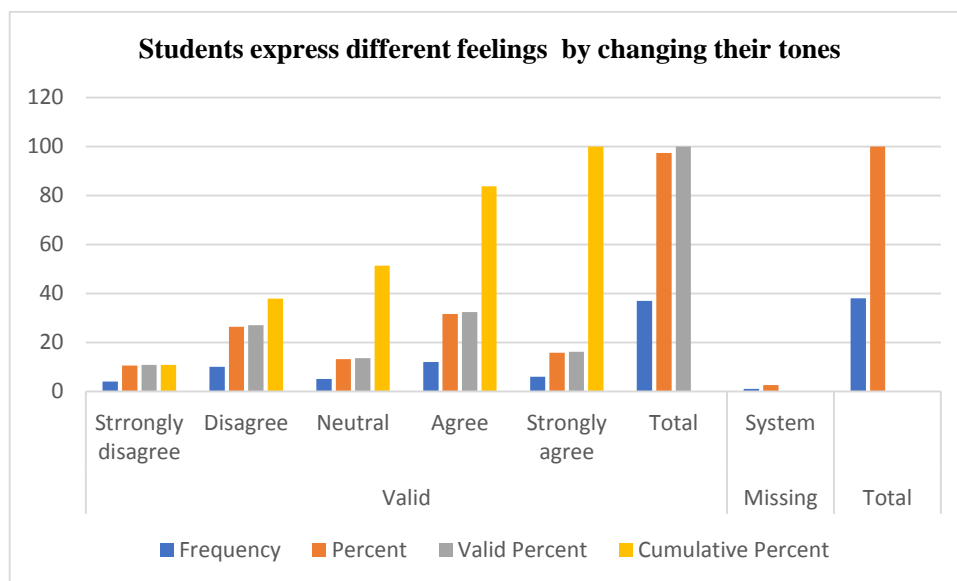


Table (4.5.5) summaries teachers' attitudes on using interpretation to help students to use the quality of voice to express different feelings or thoughts by changing their tones. It is obvious from the table and the graph (%15.8) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%31.6) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand, (%10.5) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%26.3) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%31.6) of the teachers stay 'Neutral'. The growing ratio signs (%100) strongly agree, (%83.8) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%10.8) strongly disagree and (%51.4) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It is usable to say that interpretation help students to have variation in their tone quality so that they can relay different feelings and thoughts to the audience.

**Table (4.5.6) Students can pronounce words correctly**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	11	28.9	29.7	43.2
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	67.6
	Agree	7	18.4	18.9	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

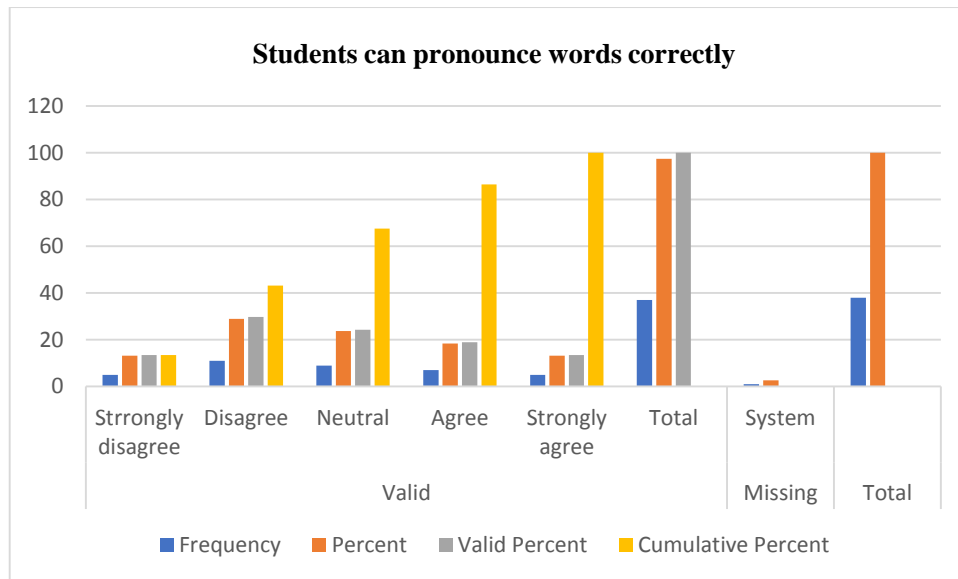
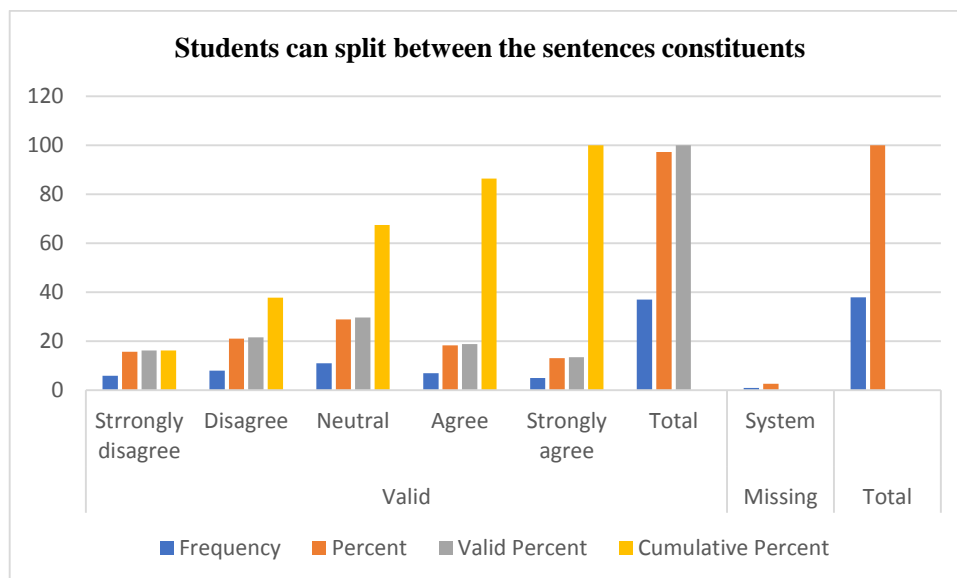


Table (4.5.6) elucidates teachers' viewpoint on using simultaneous interpretation to allow students to pronounce words correctly as they have listen from the native speakers. This graph indicates (%13.2) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%18.4) of them 'Agree'. However, (%13.2) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%28.9) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers stick at 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as revealed in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is correct to say that simultaneous interpretation helps students pronounce words correctly

**Table (4.5.7) Students can split between the sentence’s constituents**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	37.8
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	67.6
	Agree	7	18.4	18.9	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



This Table reveals teachers’ attitudes on using interpretation to allow students to split between the sentences constituents. As shown in figure (4.5.7), the distribution of the sample states (%13.2) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%18.4) of them ‘Agree’. Contrariwise, (%15.8) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%21.1) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%28.9) of the teachers remain ‘Neutral’. The incremental percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as

shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is frank to say that interpretation permits students to identify the sentences constituent autonomously.

**Table (4.5.8) Students learn where to pause**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	11	28.9	29.7	45.9
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	70.3
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

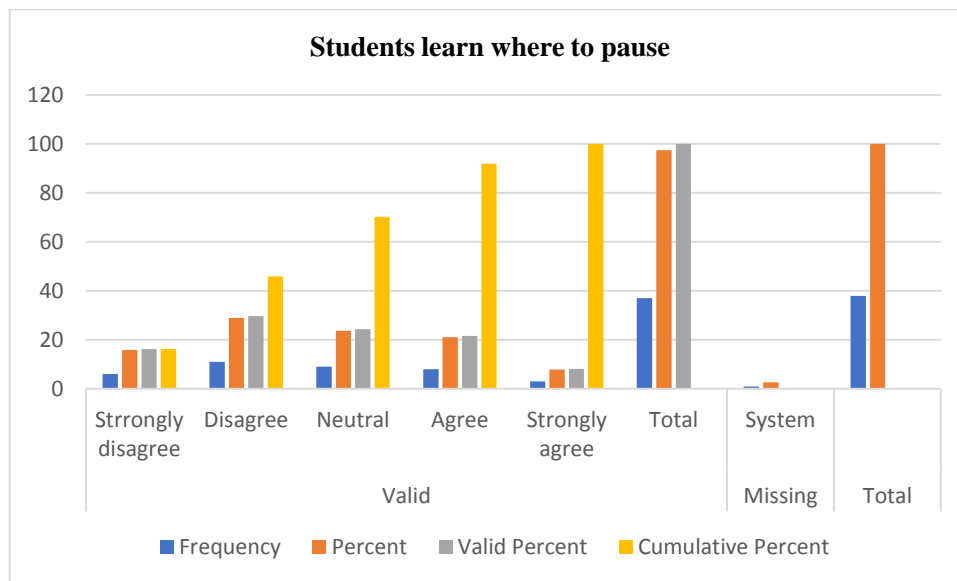


Table (4.5.8) describes the teachers' visualizations on the effect of interpretation on how students know where to pause while speaking. It is apparent from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample shows (%7.9) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%21.1) of them 'Agree'. Then again, (%15.8) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%28.9) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers



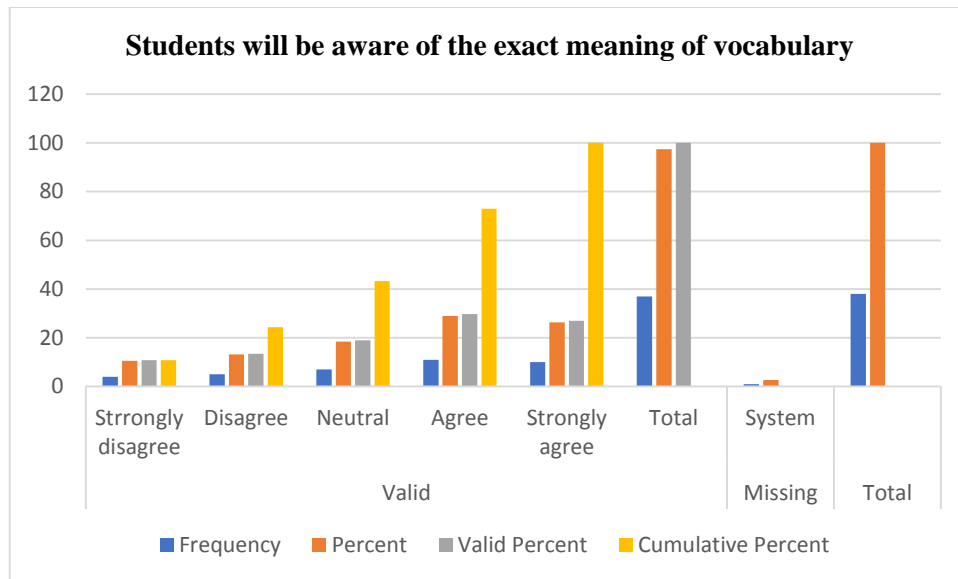
stay 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%45.9) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%70.3) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is useable to say that students can learn how to stop where necessary to send the intended message.

**4.6 The seventh section: Analysis of Teachers' perception about the effect of using interpretation to raise learners' awareness of foreign language items:**

This subdivision clarifies the analysis of teachers' visions about the effect of interpretation in raising learners' consciousness about foreign language items. The data were analyzed by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item under this paradigm.

**Table (4.6.1) Students will be aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items**

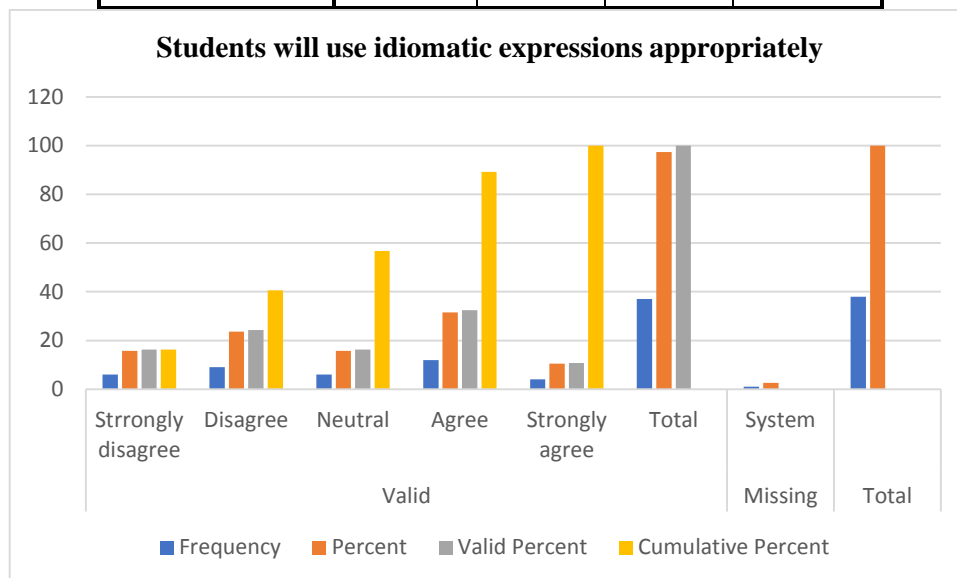
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	5	13.2	13.5	24.3
	Neutral	7	18.4	18.9	43.2
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	73.0
	Strongly agree	10	26.3	27.0	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The result of the statement, interpretation raise students' consciousness of English language word knowledge is presented on table (4.6.1). The spreading of the sample indicates (%26.3) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%28.9) of them 'Agree'. On the other hand (%10.5) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%13.2) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%18.4) of the teachers remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%73.0) agree, (%24.3) disagree, (%10.8) strongly disagree and (%43.2) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It would be true to say that when EFL students exposed to simultaneous interpretation, they will be able to use the exact word equivalent when they talk in English as well as they will develop the use of vocabulary depth and breadth.

**Table (4.6.2) Students will use idiomatic expressions appropriately and accurately**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	9	23.7	24.3	40.5
	Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	56.8
	Agree	12	31.6	32.4	89.2
	Strongly agree	4	10.5	10.8	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

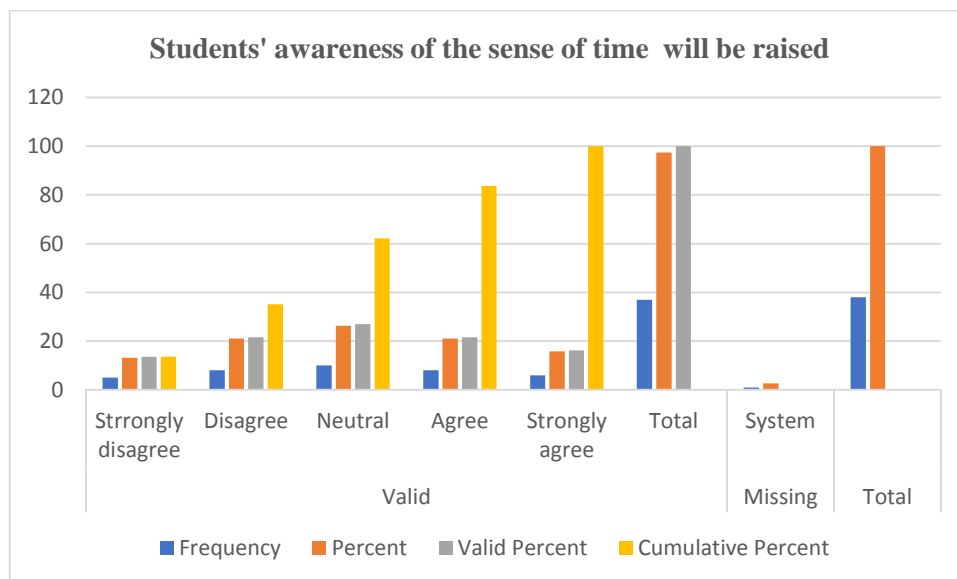


The above table (4.6.2) and chart depicts the results of the data about fostering students' use of idiomatic expressions fittingly. At the first glance, the result shows that (%10.5) of the respondents strongly agree and (%31.6) agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%15.8), (%23.7) strongly disagree and disagree respectively. (%15.8) of the participants remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%89.2) agree, (%40.5) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%56.8) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. In conclusion, the result indicates that interpretation

reinforce students to find the exact situation for each idiomatic expression.

**Table (4.6.3) Students' awareness of the sense of time will be raised**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	35.1
	Neutral	10	26.3	27.0	62.2
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	83.8
	Strongly agree	6	15.8	16.2	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



Item (4.6.3) inspects the role of simultaneous interpretations in raising students' awareness of the sense of time (present, past, perfect. Etc.). The result on Table (4.5.3) and the bar graph shows (%21.1) of the respondents 'Agree' and (%15.8) of them 'Strongly Agree'. On the other hand (%13.2) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%21.1) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%26.3) of the teachers remain

‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%83.8) agree, (%35.1) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%62.2) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above graph.

**Table (4.6.4) Students improve their consciousness about nouns determiners**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	10	26.3	27.0	37.8
	Neutral	8	21.1	21.6	59.5
	Agree	12	31.6	32.4	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

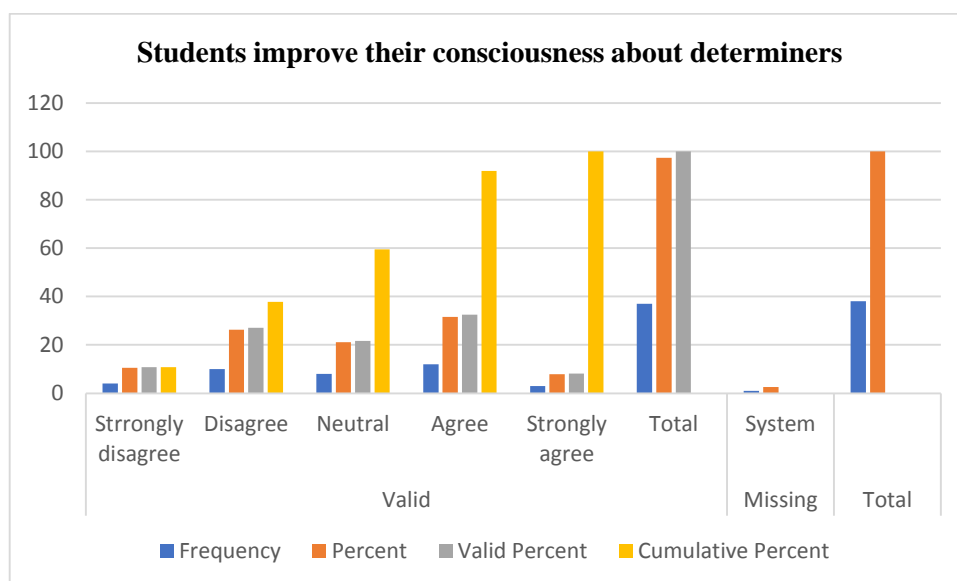


Table (4.6.4) outlines the views about teachers’ believes on whether interpretation raise students consciousness about using nouns determiners, such as articles, qualifiers and quantifiers. It is visible from

the table and the graph (%7.9) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%31.6) of them ‘Agree’. Alternatively (%10.5) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%26.3) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%21.1) of the teachers stay ‘Neutral’. The growing ratio signposts (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%10.8) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart.

**Table (4.6.5) Students will be aware of collocations and their exact meanings:**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	10	26.3	27.0	37.8
	Neutral	6	15.8	16.2	54.1
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	75.7
	Strongly agree	9	23.7	24.3	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

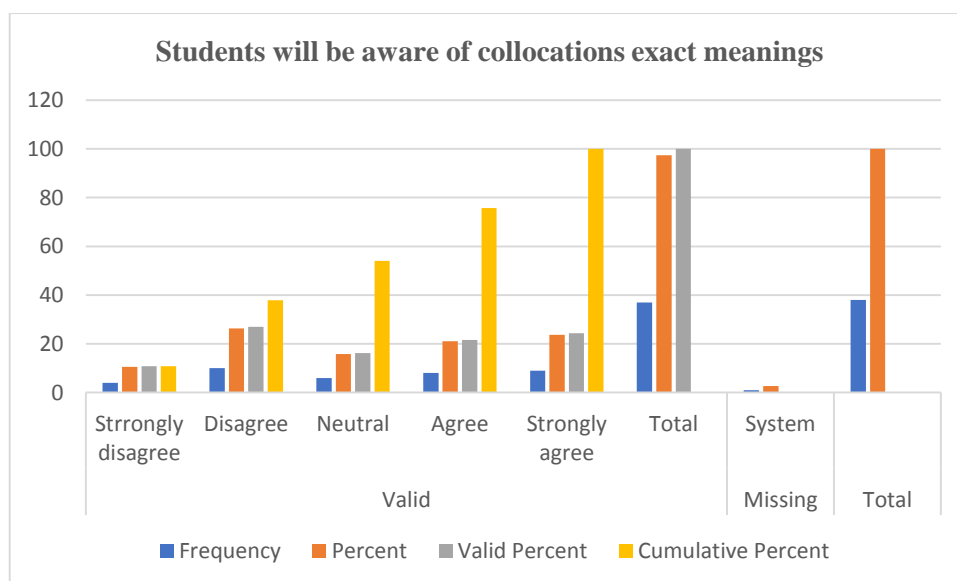
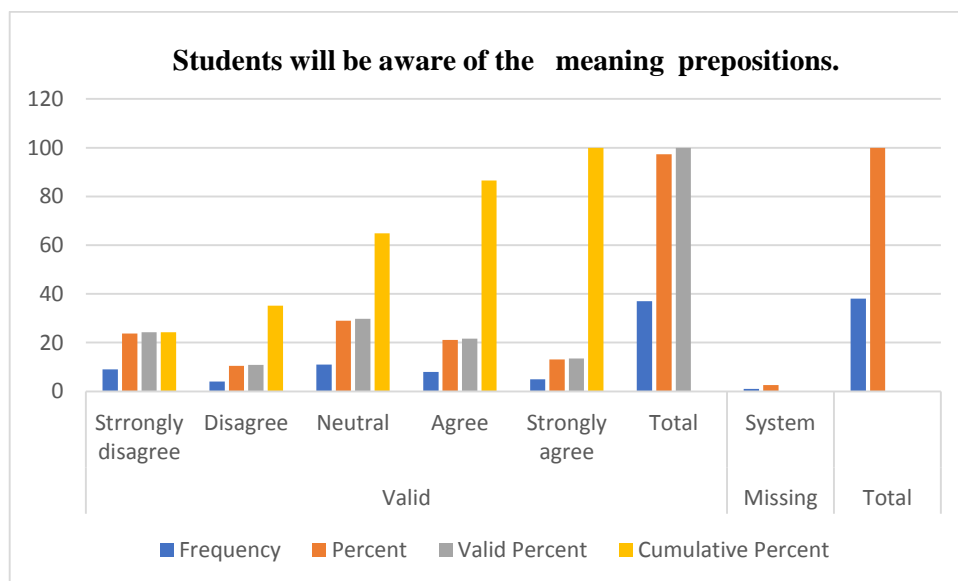


Table (4.6.5) explains teachers’ attitudes on whether using interpretation in EFL classes allow students to be aware of the

syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning. The above graph shows (%23.7) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%21.1) of them ‘Agree’. On the other hand (%10.5) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%26.3) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%15.8) of the teachers still ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%75.7) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%10.8) strongly disagree and (%54.1) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above graph.

**Table (4.6.6) Students will be aware of the semantic meaning of prepositions.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	23.7	24.3	24.3
	Disagree	4	10.5	10.8	35.1
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	64.9
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



The above table (4.6.6) and chart portrays the results of the data about using interpretation to help students to be aware of the semantic meaning of English prepositions. At the first glance, the result shows that (%13.2) of the respondents strongly agree and (%21.1) agree with the above statement. Conversely, (%23.7), (%10.5) strongly disagree and disagree correspondingly. (%28.9) of the participants remain 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage represents (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%35.1) disagree, (%24.3) strongly disagree and (%64.9) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. The results disclose that simultaneous interpretation allow student to find the exact preposition to send the real message.

#### **4.7 The eighth section: Analysis of Teachers' perception about the effect of interpretation on learning language syntactic structures.**

This section illustrates the analysis of teachers' views about the influence of interpretation on learning words syntagmatic relationship with in a sentences and how students structure different types of sentence. The statistics were carried out by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables and graphs to show the frequencies, percentages and other statistics values for each item in this domain.



**Table (4.7.1) Students can use word order within a sentence.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	5.3	5.4	5.4
	Disagree	4	10.5	10.8	16.2
	Neutral	15	39.5	40.5	56.8
	Agree	11	28.9	29.7	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

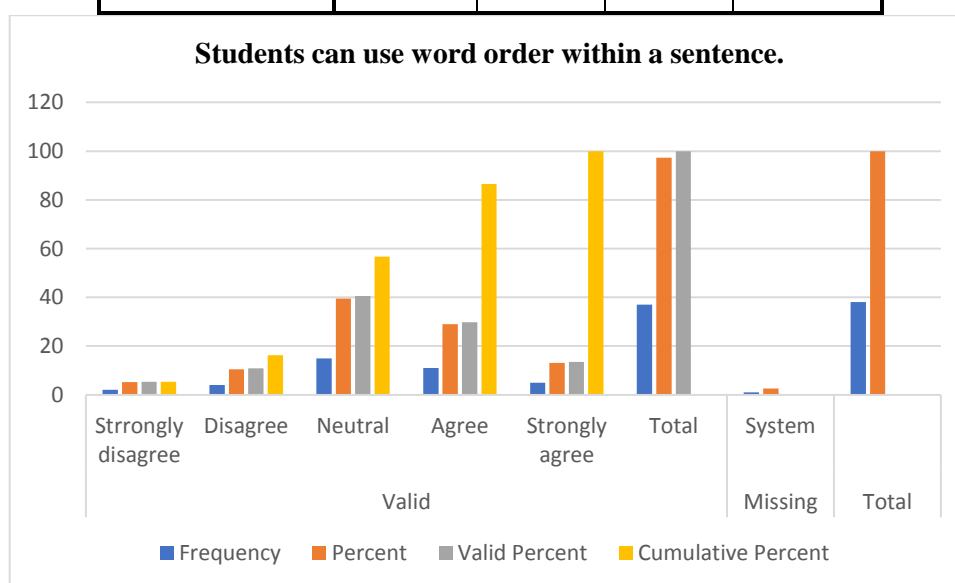


Table (4.7.1) elaborates the views about teachers' beliefs on using simultaneous interpretation to allow students to be aware of English language word order within a sentence compared with their mother tongue language. As shown on the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample indicates (%13.3) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%28.9) of them 'Agree'. Oppositely, (%5.3) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%10.5) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%39.5) of the teachers stick at 'Neutral'. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%16.2) disagree, (%5.4) strongly disagree and (%56.8) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart. It would be true to say that simultaneous

interpretation allows to pattern English language sentence to deliver their message.

**Table (4.7.2) Student can structure simple sentence easily.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	10	26.3	27.0	40.5
	Neutral	7	18.4	18.9	59.5
	Agree	10	26.3	27.0	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
Total		37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

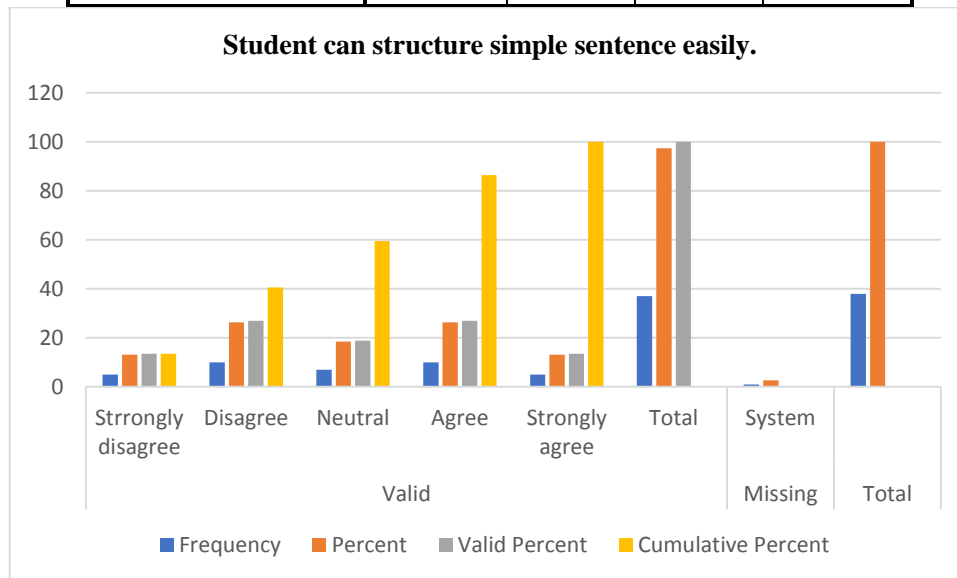
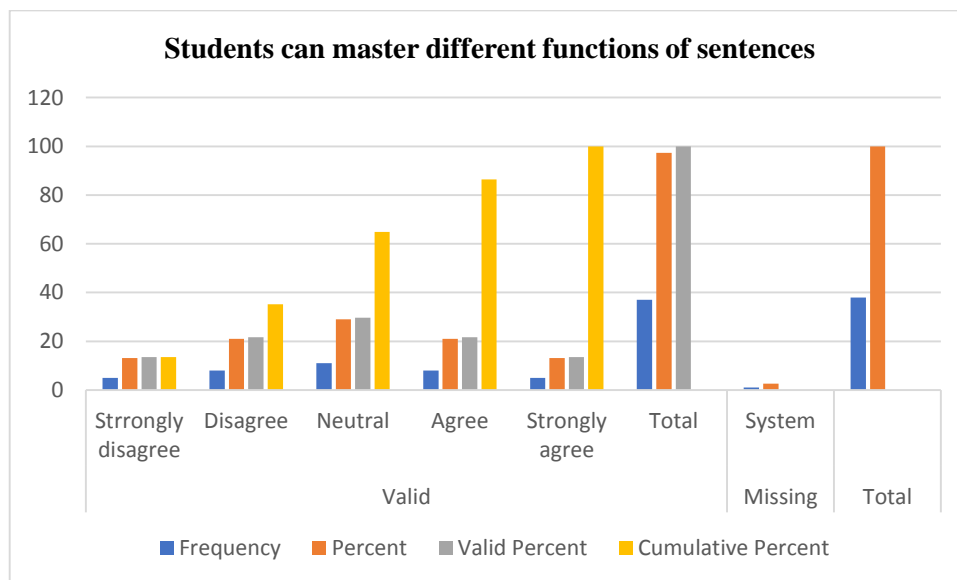


Table (4.7.2) summaries teachers’ attitudes on suing interpretation to help students to construct simple sentence easily. It is obvious from the table and the graph (%13.2) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%26.3) of them ‘Agree’. On the other hand, (%13.2) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%26.3) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%18.4) of the teachers stay ‘Neutral’. The growing ratio signs (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%40.5) disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%59.5) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart.

**Table (4.7.3) Students can master different functions of sentences**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	13.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	35.1
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	64.9
	Agree	8	21.1	21.6	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		



This Table reveals teachers' attitudes on using interpretation to allow students to master different types of the sentence based on the function; such as declarative and imperative...etc. As shown in figure (4.7.3), the distribution of the sample states (%13.2) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%21.1) of them 'Agree'. Contrariwise, (%13.2) of the sample 'Strongly disagree' and (%21.1) 'Disagree' with the above statement. (%28.9) of the teachers remain 'Neutral'. The incremental percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%35.1)

disagree, (%13.5) strongly disagree and (%64.9) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart. It is frank to say that interpretation allow students to produce different types of sentences base on their purpose; i.e. exclamatory, interrogative...etc.

**Table (4.7.4) Students can build up compound sentence(s).**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	15.8	16.2	16.2
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	37.8
	Neutral	11	28.9	29.7	67.6
	Agree	7	18.4	18.9	86.5
	Strongly agree	5	13.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

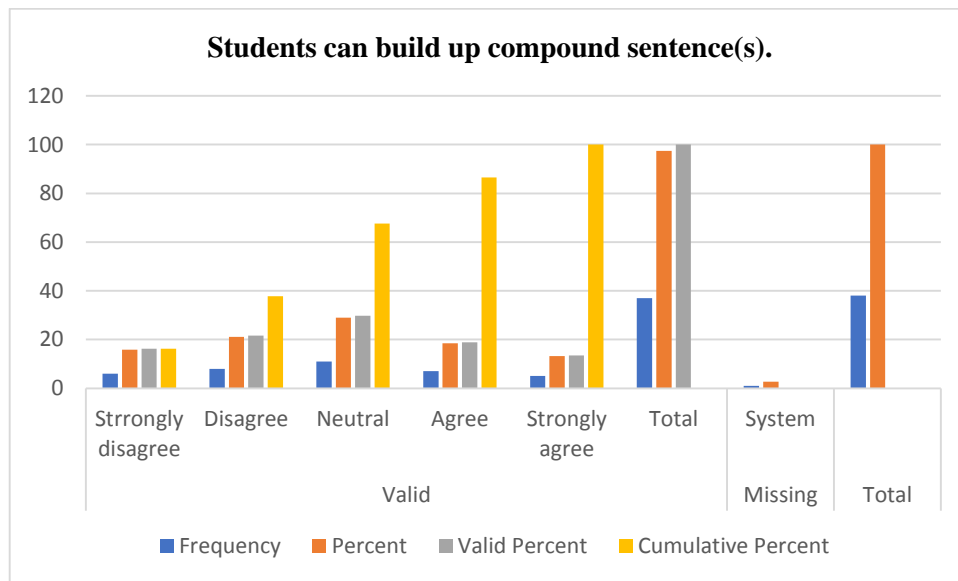


Table (4.7.4) describes the teachers' attitudes on using interpretation to let students build compound sentences compared with L1 language. It is apparent from the table and the chart, the distribution of the sample shows (%13.2) of the respondents 'Strongly Agree' and (%18.4) of

them ‘Agree’. Then again, (%15.8) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%21.1) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%28.9) of the teachers stay ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%86.5) agree, (%37.8) disagree, (%16.2) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as shown in the yellow bar on the above chart.

**Table (4.7.5) Students can generate complex sentence(s).**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	21.1	21.6	21.6
	Disagree	8	21.1	21.6	43.2
	Neutral	9	23.7	24.3	67.6
	Agree	9	23.7	24.3	91.9
	Strongly agree	3	7.9	8.1	100.0
	Total	37	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.6		
Total		38	100.0		

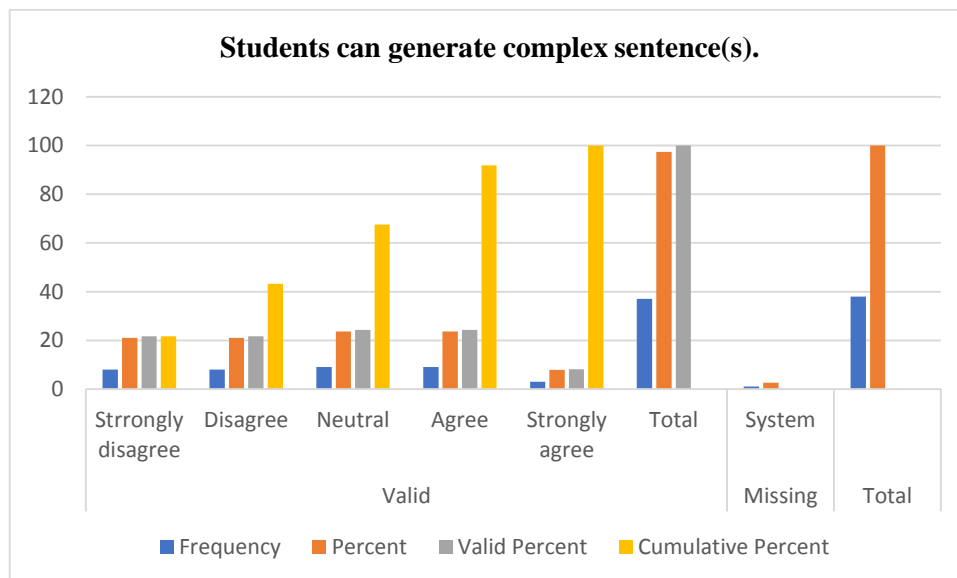


Table (4.7.5) elaborates the views about teachers’ beliefs on using interpretation to let students build complex sentences compared with mother tongue language. As shown on the table and the chart, the

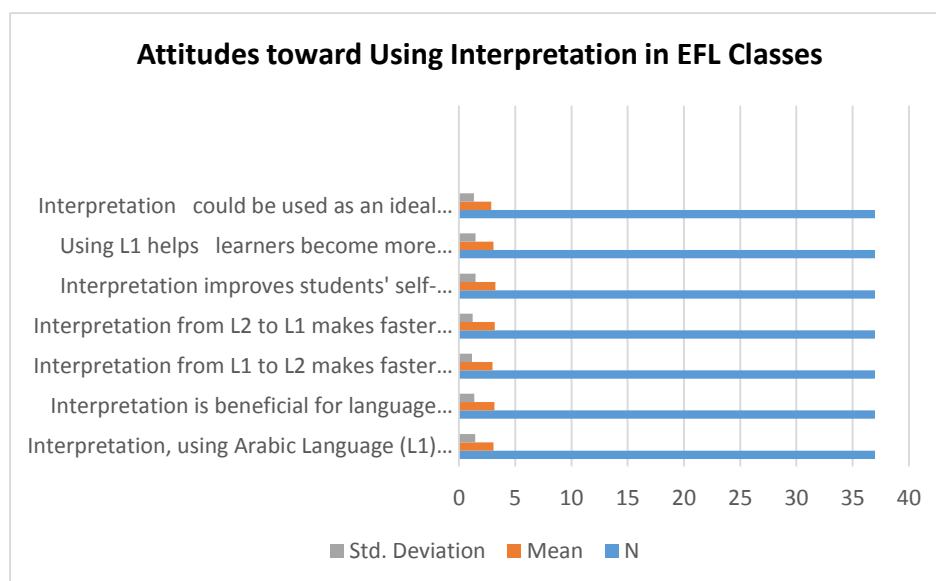
distribution of the sample indicates (%7.9) of the respondents ‘Strongly Agree’ and (%23.7) of them ‘Agree’. Oppositely, (%21.1) of the sample ‘Strongly disagree’ and (%21.1) ‘Disagree’ with the above statement. (%23.7) of the teachers stick at ‘Neutral’. The accumulative percentage indicates (%100) strongly agree, (%91.9) agree, (%43.2) disagree, (%21.6) strongly disagree and (%67.6) neutral as shown in the yellow bars on the above chart.

#### **4.8 The ninth section: Overall Analysis of the data using ‘Mean’ and ‘Stander Deviation’**

This unit illustrates the overall analysis of teachers' views about using simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes to promote students listening and speaking with focus on the six research hypotheses. The statistics were carried out by the use of SPSS. The results are presented on the following tables and graphs to show the Frequencies, ‘Means’ and ‘standard ‘Deviations’ for each item.

**Table (4.8.1) Attitudes toward Using Interpretation in EFL Classes**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Interpretation, using Arabic Language (L1) to learn English Language (L2) is interesting	37	3.08	1.441
Interpretation is beneficial for language learning	37	3.14	1.357
Interpretation from L1 to L2 makes faster development in L2 speaking	37	2.97	1.166
Interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening	37	3.19	1.221
Interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking.	37	3.24	1.461
Using L1 helps learners become more familiar with (L2) the target language culture.	37	3.08	1.479
Interpretation could be used as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes.	37	2.86	1.337



The value of 'mean' and 'standard deviation' were calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study. It is apparent from the above table and graph, the statement 'interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking' was account for the higher 'mean' which is equal to (3.24) with standard

deviation (1.461). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

For the statement 'Interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening', the mean is ranked number two with the value (3.19) and the standard deviation is (1.221). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

Regarding the value of mean calculated to signify the variances between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement 'interpretation is beneficial for language learning was (3.14) with standard deviation (1.357) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%) These refer to the presence of differences statistically.

Concerning the mean value calculated to show the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement 'interpretation, using Arabic Language (L1) to learn English Language (L2) is interesting' was (3.08) with std deviation value (1.441) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The value of mean calculated to indicate the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement 'Using L1 helps learners become more familiar with (L2) the target language culture' was (3.08) with std deviation value (1.479) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

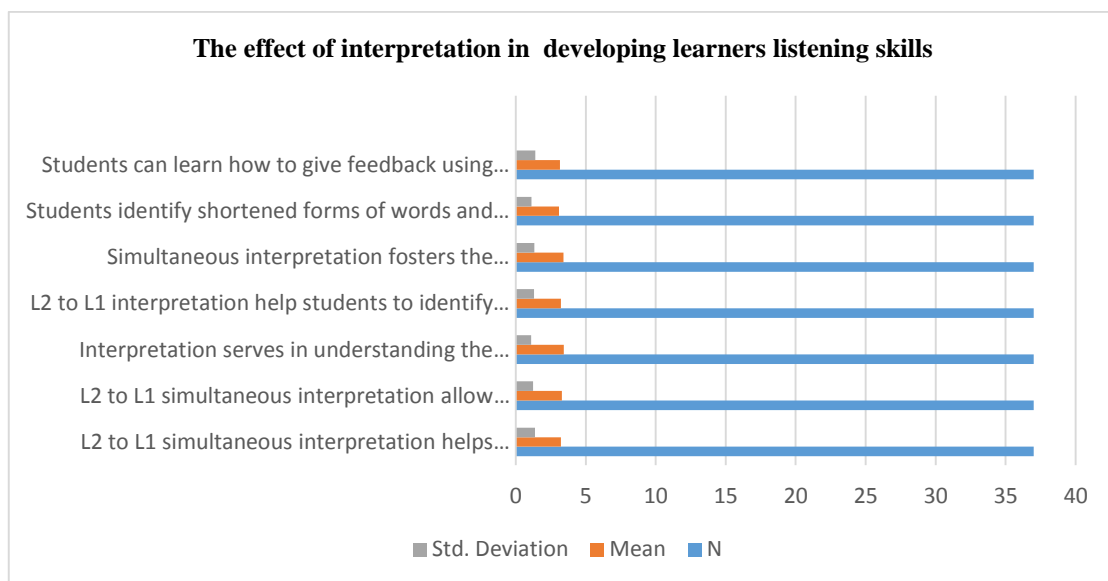
The statement 'Interpretation from L1 to L2 makes faster development in L2 speaking' is ranked number six with the mean value of (2.97 ) and std deviation (1.166), followed by the least statement in rank 'Interpretation could be used as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes with mean value (2.86) and std deviation value



(1.337) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

**Table (4.8.2) The effect of interpretation in developing learners listening skills**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation helps students to predict what the speakers' main theme (idea).	37	3.22	1.377
L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation allow students to guess the speakers' next word.	37	3.30	1.244
Interpretation serves in understanding the collocation of words	37	3.43	1.094
L2 to L1 interpretation help students to identify the meaning implied by stress, intonation, and rhythm.	37	3.22	1.315
Simultaneous interpretation fosters the interpreters guess the meaning from the context.	37	3.41	1.322
Students identify shortened forms of words and phrases.	37	3.08	1.115
Students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent.	37	3.16	1.385



As can be seen from the above table, the value mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study

for the statement ‘Interpretation serves in understanding the collocation of words’ was (3.43) with std deviation (1.094) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

Similarly, the value of mean calculated for the statement ‘Simultaneous interpretation fosters the interpreters guess the meaning from the context.’ was (3.41) with std deviation (1.322) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

Again, the value of mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement ‘L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation allow students to guess the speakers’ next word.’ is the third in rank and the mean was (3.30) with std deviation value (1.244) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

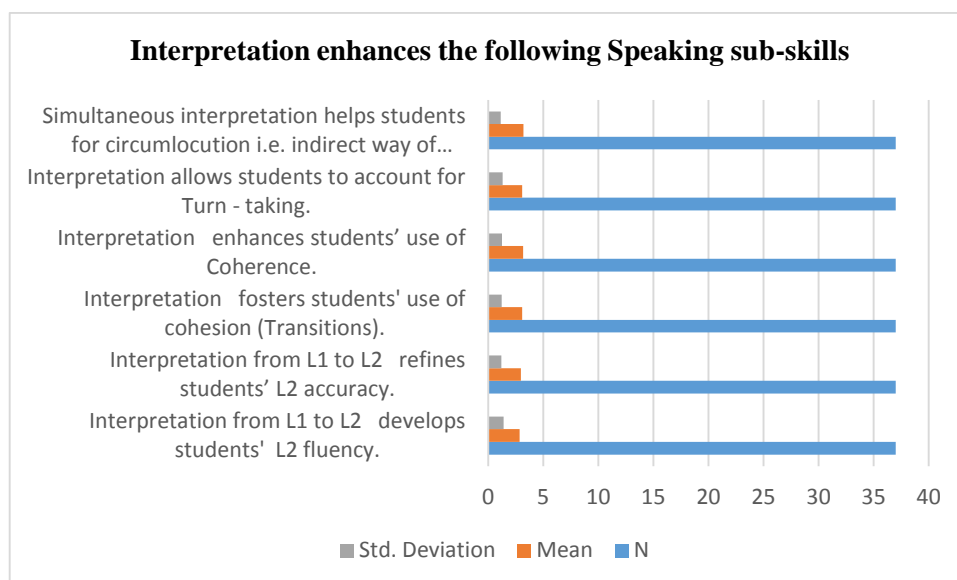
The mean values of statements ‘L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation helps students to predict what the speakers’ main theme (idea)’ and ‘L2 to L1 interpretation help students to identify the meaning implied by stress, intonation, and rhythm.’ were (3.22) with std deviation values (1.377) , (1.315) correspondingly, which are lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

It is obvious from the above table, the mean values for the statements ‘Students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent.’ and ‘Students identify shortened forms of words and phrases.’ were account as the least items with the mean values (3.16) and (3.08) and std deviation values (1.385) and (1.115) respectively which are lower than the level of

significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

**Table (4.8.3) Interpretation enhances the following Speaking sub-skills:**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students' L2 fluency.	37	2.86	1.417
Interpretation from L1 to L2 refines students' L2 accuracy.	37	2.97	1.213
Interpretation fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions).	37	3.08	1.233
Interpretation enhances students' use of Coherence.	37	3.19	1.266
Interpretation allows students to account for Turn - taking.	37	3.08	1.320
Simultaneous interpretation helps students for circumlocution i.e. indirect way of saying something.	37	3.22	1.134



The statistical analysis shows mean value calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study. The statement 'Simultaneous interpretation helps students for

circumlocution i.e. indirect way of saying something' is the first in mean rank. The mean value was (3.22) with std deviation value (1.134) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The mean value of the statement 'Interpretation enhances students' use of Coherence.' is counted as the second rank item among the six items under the domain interpretation enhance speaking sub-skills. The value of the mean was (3.19) with std deviation value (1.266) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

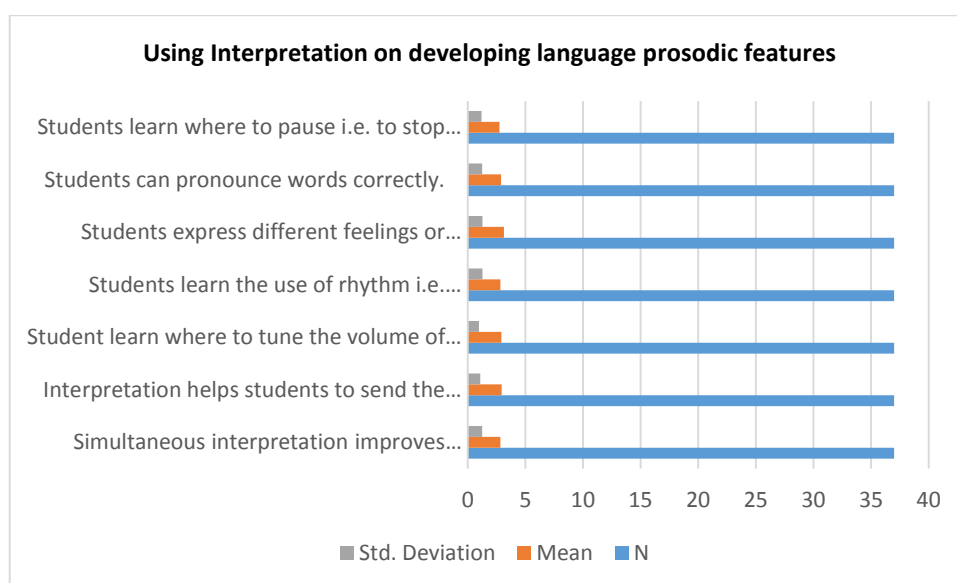
As indicated in the above table, the values of mean calculated for the statements 'Interpretation allows students to account for Turn - taking.' and 'Interpretation fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions).' were (3.08) with std deviations value (1.320) and (1.233) one-to-one which are lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The value of mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement 'Interpretation from L1 to L2 refines students' L2 accuracy.' was (2.97) with std deviation value (1.213) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The least mean value in this set was calculated for the statement 'Interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students' L2 fluency' was (2.86) with std deviation value (1.417) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%) These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

**Table (4.8.4) Using Interpretation on developing language prosodic features**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Simultaneous interpretation improves students’ use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings.	37	2.84	1.259
Interpretation helps students to send the correct meaning by placing stress on the right syllables with in a word or a sentence.	37	2.95	1.104
Student learn where to tune the volume of voice (pace).	37	2.92	.983
Students learn the use of rhythm i.e. patterns of sound movement to sound like a native.	37	2.84	1.280
Students express different feelings or thoughts by changing their tones (The quality of voice).	37	3.16	1.302
Students can pronounce words correctly.	37	2.89	1.265
Students learn where to pause i.e. to stop sound before starting again.	37	2.76	1.211



The mean value was calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study. It obvious from the above table and graph, the statement ‘Students express different feelings or thoughts by changing their tones (The quality of voice).’ was account for the highest in rank in the domain ‘interpretation develop language prosodic

features'. The value of 'mean' is equal to (3.16) with standard deviation value (1.302). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The result shows the mean value (2.95) of the statement 'Interpretation helps students to send the correct meaning by placing stress on the right syllables with in a word or a sentence', in the second rank with std standard deviation value (1.104).

This part describes the mean value calculated to signify the variances between the numbers of individuals of the study of the item 'Student learn where to tune the volume of voice (pace).' This item is in third in the ordinance. The mean value for this item was (2.92) with standard deviation (.983) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%) These refer to the presence of differences statistically.

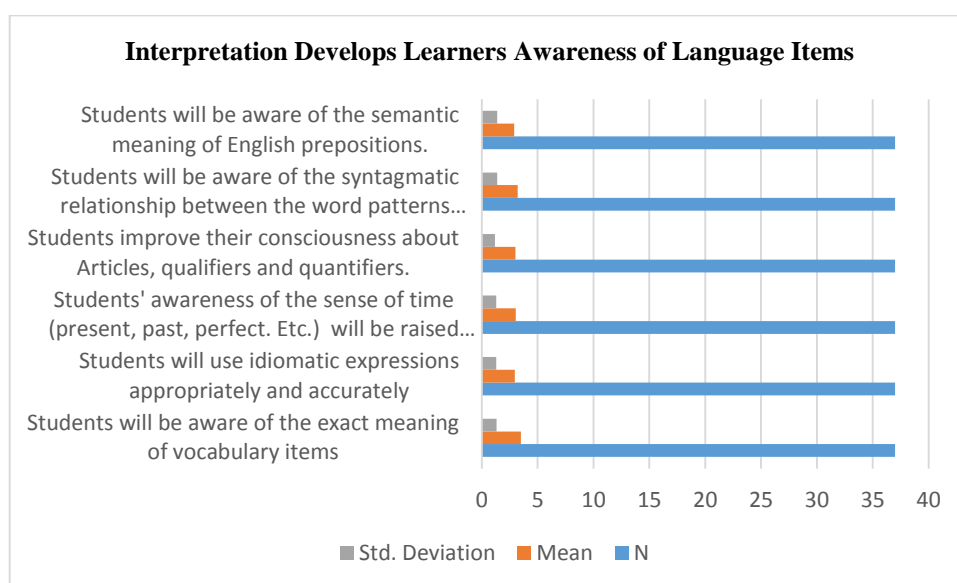
Concerning the mean value calculated to show the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement 'Students can pronounce words correctly.' was (2.89) with std deviation value (1.265) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%).

As shown in the above table, the values of mean calculated for the statements 'Simultaneous interpretation improves students' use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings.' and 'Students learn the use of rhythm i.e. patterns of sound movement to sound like a native.' were (2.84) with std deviations value (1.259) and (1.280) correspondingly which are lower than the level of significant value (5%).

The least statement in rank is 'Students learn where to pause i.e. to stop sound before starting again.' with mean value (2.76) and std deviation value (1.211) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%).

**Table (4.8.5) Interpretation Develops Learners Awareness of Language Items**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Students will be aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items	37	3.49	1.325
Students will use idiomatic expressions appropriately and accurately	37	2.97	1.301
Students' awareness of the sense of time (present, past, perfect. Etc.) will be raised into (Tenses)	37	3.05	1.290
Students improve their consciousness about Articles, qualifiers and quantifiers.	37	3.00	1.179
Students will be aware of the syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning.	37	3.22	1.377
Students will be aware of the semantic meaning of English prepositions.	37	2.89	1.370



The above table (4.8.5) shows the mean values calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study under the branch 'Interpretation Develops Learners Awareness of Language Items'. The statement 'Students will be aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items' got the first rank among the other items in this table. The mean value was (3.49) with std deviation (1.325) which is lower

than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

Likewise, the mean value calculated for the statement ‘Students will be aware of the syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning.’ got the second rank. The mean value was (3.22) with std deviation (1.377) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

Again, the value of mean calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement ‘Students' awareness of the sense of time will be raised’ is the third in rank and the mean was (3.05) with std deviation value (1.290) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The mean values of statements ‘Students improve their consciousness about Articles, qualifiers and quantifiers’ is ranked number four under the branch language item awareness. The mean value was (3.00) with std deviation values (1.179) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The mean value calculated to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study for the statement ‘Students will use idiomatic expressions appropriately and accurately’ was (2.97) with std deviation value (1.301) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

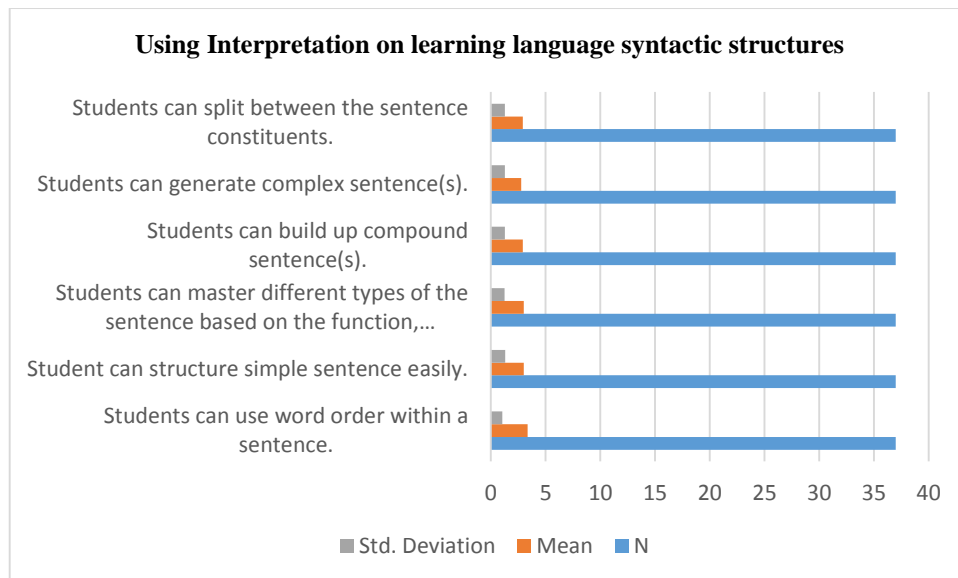
It is obvious from the above table, the mean values for the statements ‘Students will be aware of the semantic meaning of English prepositions.’ was account as the least items with the mean values



(2.89) and std deviation values (1.370) which are lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

**Table (4.8.6) Using Interpretation on learning language syntactic structures**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Students can use word order within a sentence.	37	3.35	1.033
Student can structure simple sentence easily.	37	3.00	1.291
Students can master different types of the sentence based on the function, declarative and imperative.	37	3.00	1.247
Students can build up compound sentence(s).	37	2.92	1.278
Students can generate complex sentence(s).	37	2.76	1.278
Students can split between the sentences constituents.	37	2.92	1.278



This table displays the statistical analysis to signify the differences between the numbers of individuals of the study under the sub section learning language syntactic structure through interpretation. The statement ‘Students can use word order within a sentence.’ is the

first in the rank. The mean value was (3.35) with std deviation value (1.033) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The mean value of the statements ‘Student can structure simple sentence easily.’ and ‘Students can master different types of the sentence based on the function, declarative and imperative.’ are counted as the second and third rank items consecutively. The value of the means were (3.00) with std deviation values (1.291) and (1.247) correspondingly which are lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

As indicated in the above table, the values of mean and std deviation calculated for the statements ‘Students can build up compound sentence(s).’ and ‘Students can split between the sentences constituents.’ were in the same rank. The mean values were (2.92) with std deviations values (1.278) which are lower than the level of significant value (5%). These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

The least mean value in this set was calculated for the statement ‘Students can generate complex sentence(s).’ was (2.76) with std deviation value (1.278) which is lower than the level of significant value (5%) These refer to the existence of differences statistically.

#### **4.9 verification of the Study Hypotheses**

After analyzing and interpreting the data, it is vital to discuss the hypotheses in light of the findings to recognize the accepted and rejected hypotheses:

**1. In the first hypothesis,** ‘Interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners speaking skills’; this first hypothesis is accepted as it is shown in (4.1.1) the significant difference between the students in the experimental group and control group, and in point (4.4) simultaneous interpretation helps students to develop L2 fluency, accuracy and fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions) and coherence where students can organize speech smoothly and logically.

**2. Regarding the second hypothesis,** ‘Interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners listening skills’; this second hypothesis is accepted as shown in (4.1.2) the significant difference between the students in the experimental group and control group, and in point (4.3) simultaneous interpretation helps students to predict what the speakers’ main theme (idea)’; and identify the meaning implied by stress, intonation, and rhythm.’ Furthermore, students can understand the collocation of words and guess the meaning from the context.

**3. For the third hypotheses,** ‘There are different types of speaking sub-skills which can be developed using interpretation.; this results demonstrated that the third hypothesis is accepted as exposed in (4.1.1 ) the significant difference between the students in the experimental group and control group, and in point (4.4) simultaneous interpretation helps students to develop L2 fluency, accuracy and fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions) and coherence where students can organize speech smoothly and logically.

**4. Concerning the fourth hypothesis,** ‘There are different types of the prosodic features (patterns) which can be developed using interpretation’; this fourth hypothesis is accepted as revealed in point (4.5) simultaneous interpretation improves students’ use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings and students learn the use of rhythm i.e. patterns of sound movement to sound like a native.

**5. As for the fifth hypothesis,** ‘Interpretation can develop learners awareness (consciousness) of ( L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions.’; this hypothesis is accepted as indicated in (4.6 ) students are aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items and syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning if exposed to interpretation. Again, students’ are aware of the sense of time. Furthermore, students improve their consciousness about articles, qualifiers and quantifiers. The use of idiomatic expression and semantics meaning of English preposition are among the language items which are accounted for the effect of simultaneous interpretation on language items.

**6. Finally, the sixth hypothesis,** ‘There are different types of syntactic structures which can be developed using interpretation.’ this hypothesis is accepted as depicted in (4.7) students can use word order within a sentence. They are able to structure simple sentence easily.’ and master different types of sentences based on the function, declarative and imperative. It is important to mention that students can build up compound sentence(s); split between the sentences constituents and generate complex sentence(s).

#### **4.10 Summary of the Chapter**

The research has subjected the collected data to an analysis using SPSS program to examine the research hypothesis. For the first hypothesis the result shows that interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners speaking skills, the result shows a significant difference between the experimental group (A) and the control group (B). Similarly, for the second hypothesis, interpretation of L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 can develop learners listening skills, the result reveals that there is remarkable growth on the students listening comprehension due the experiencing of simultaneous interpretation. For the descriptive phase of the research, the result shows positive attitudes from the EFL teachers towards using simultaneous interpretation in developing speaking sub skills; language prosodic features; promoting language lexicology and syntactic structures

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**CHAPTER FIVE**

**MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS**

**AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES**

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## **Chapter Five**

### **Summary, Main Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter involves literary contents under the aforementioned subtitles.

#### **5.1 The Summary of the Study**

1. The findings show significant differences between the experimental group (A) and control group (B). It was found that when the students are exposed to a simultaneous interpretation in teaching the experiment group their speaking and listening skills has been apparently improved. They scored higher marks than students who were in the control group.

2. The findings show teachers strong positive attitudes towards using simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes. They believe that 'interpretation is beneficial for language learning. It improves students' self-confidence in speaking; besides interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening' and also using L1 helps learners become more familiar with (L2) the target language culture. Therefore, interpretation could be used as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes.

3. The result indicates some significant finding related to teachers perception about the effect of interpretation in developing students listening skills. It is found that 'L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation helps students to predict what the speakers' main theme (idea)' and help students to identify the meaning implied by stress, intonation, and rhythm.' Moreover, the finding tells that interpretation help students to understand the collocation of words and guess the meaning from the

context. Furthermore, students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent and identify shortened forms of words and phrases.

4. Regarding the impact of using simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes to enhance speaking sub-skills, the findings shows that interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students' L2 fluency and accuracy. In addition to that interpretation fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions) and coherence where students can organize speech smoothly and logically. Another point is that, interpretation helps students for circumlocution i.e. indirect way of saying something.

5. Concerning the roles using interpretation on developing language prosodic features, the findings shows that simultaneous interpretation improves students' use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings and students learn the use of rhythm i.e. patterns of sound movement to sound like a native. Moreover, interpretation helps students to send the correct meaning by placing stress on the right syllables with in a word or a sentence. Also, students can pronounce words correctly; learn where to pause and adjust their volume of voice (pace).

6. For the paradigm interpretation develops learners awareness of language items it is found that students will be aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items and students will be aware of the syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning. Again, students' awareness of the sense of time will be raised. Furthermore, students improve their consciousness about articles, qualifiers and quantifiers. The use of idiomatic expression and semantics meaning of English preposition are among the language items



which are accounted for the effect of simultaneous interpretation on language learning.

6. The finding also shows some significant finding related to the influence of interpretation on learning language syntactic structures. It is found that students can use word order within a sentence. They are able to structure simple sentence easily.’ and ‘Students can master different types of sentences based on the function, declarative and imperative. It is important to mention that students can build up compound sentence(s); split between the sentences constituents and generate complex sentence(s).

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Some recommendations are suggested based on the findings of this study.

1. Simultaneous interpretation should be incorporated in EFL class rooms.
2. Teachers should use simultaneous interpretation in their courses.
3. Simultaneous interpretation should be introduced in the curriculum as a teaching aid to develop learners different speaking and listening skills.
4. The curriculum designers should incorporate interpretation in the future syllables’ as well as, the authorities should use for teaching EFL students and for interprets training program.

### **5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies**

Several suggestions for further research emerge from the main findings:

1. First of all, teachers training program should be carried out to familiarize them with the use of simultaneous interpretation in EFL classes.
2. Another suggestion is related to novice translators training program, having more experimental studies in which translators can implement simultaneous interpretation to enhance different language skills.
3. Future study to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include a number of universities in order to come out with novel insights.

### **5.4 Summary**

The study investigated the impact of interpretation for developing students' linguistic conscious and develop their performance in L2 speaking and listening skills. Two groups experimental method was adopted, group (A) is the experimental group which was exposed to intensive simultaneous translation sessions based on the research hypothesis, and group (B) is control group . Then both groups took speaking and listening speaking test which was measured using rubric scale graded from 'excellent ' to 'poor' and the final score calculated by dividing students' scores by the possible total scores of the rubric. The result of the tests were subjected to analysis using SPSS independent T-Test to compare the results of the two groups.

The researcher used a questionnaire to examine teachers' perception about the impact of simultaneous interpretation in developing students'

language standard, specifically speaking and listening skills. Basically, exploring the effect of interpretation in the developing of learners speaking skills; exploring the effect of interpretation in the developing of learners listening skills; determining speaking sub-skills which can be developed through interpretation; identifying prosodic features (patterns) which can be developed through interpretation; examining the impact of interpretation in rising learners awareness(consciousness) of ( L2) lexical items as in the predominant L2 conventions; Identifying the impact of interpretation in the developing of learners use of syntactic structures and exploring the way that interpretation develop students listening comprehension.After compiling the primary data which was subjected to analysis using SPSS program.

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## **The Appendices**

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## Appendices

### Appendix (A): Teachers Questionnaire

Dear colleague,

This questionnaire investigates the role of Simultaneous Interpretation in Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language, Speaking and Listening are in Focus. The information will be used for the purpose of this study only. Please fill in the questionnaire below.

Thank you in advance!

#### Personal Information

Name: \_\_\_\_\_(Optional)

Qualifications: PhD ( ) M.A ( ) B.A/B.ED ( ) Years of  
Experience: 1-5 ( ) 6-10 ( ) 11 –above ( )

Gender: Male ( ) Female ( ) Age: \_\_\_\_\_

#### General Direction:

Please put a tick ( ) the appropriate number to indicate your agreement on each item below.

**Key:** (1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral

(4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Attitudes Toward Using Interpretation In Foreign Language Learning</i>						
1	Interpretation, using Arabic Language (L1) to learn English Language (L2) is interesting					

2	Interpretation is beneficial for language learning					
3	Interpretation from L1 to L2 makes faster development in L2 speaking					
4	Interpretation from L2 to L1 makes faster development in L2 listening					
5	Interpretation improves students' self-confidence in speaking.					
6	Using L1 helps learners become more familiar with (L2) the target language culture.					
7	Interpretation could be used as an ideal learning strategy in foreign language classes.					
<b><i>The effect of interpretation in developing learners listening skills</i></b>						
8	L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation helps students to predict what the speakers' main theme (idea).					
9	L2 to L1 simultaneous interpretation allow students to guess the speakers' next word.					
10	Interpretation serves in understanding the collocation of words					
11	L2 to L1 interpretation help students to identify the meaning implied by stress, intonation, and rhythm .					
12	Simultaneous interpretation fosters the interpreters guess the meaning from the context.					
13	Students identify shortened forms of words and phrases.					
14	Students can learn how to give feedback using facial expressions, smile, laugh, frown or silent.					
<b><i>Interpretation enhances the following Speaking sub-skills:</i></b>						
15	Interpretation from L1 to L2 develops students' L2 fluency.					

16	Interpretation from L1 to L2 refines students' L2 accuracy.						
17	Interpretation fosters students' use of cohesion (Transitions).						
18	Interpretation enhances students' use of Coherence.						
19	Interpretation allows students to account for Turn - taking.						
20	Simultaneous interpretation helps students for circumlocution i.e. indirect way of saying something.						
<b><i>The effect of Interpretation on developing language prosodic features (patterns)</i></b>							
21	Simultaneous interpretation improves students' use of intonation, the rise and fall of the voice to convey meanings.						
22	Interpretation helps students to send the correct meaning by placing stress on the right syllables with in a word or a sentence.						
23	Student learn where to tune the volume of voice (pace).						
24	Students learn the use of rhythm i.e. patterns of sound movement to sound like a native.						
25	Students express different feelings or thoughts by changing their tones (The quality of voice).						
26	Students can pronounce words correctly.						
27	Students learn where to pause i.e. to stop sound before starting a gain .						
<b><i>Interpretation Develops Learners Awareness of ( L2) Language Items</i></b>							
28	Students will be aware of the exact meaning of vocabulary items						
29	Students will use idiomatic expressions appropriately and						

	accurately					
30	Students' awareness of the sense of time (present, past, perfect..etc.) will be raised into (Tenses)					
31	Students improve their consciousness about Articles, qualifiers and quantifiers.					
32	Students will be aware of the syntagmatic relationship between the word patterns (Collocations) and their exact meaning.					
33	Students will be aware of the semantic meaning of English prepositions.					
<b><i>The effect of Interpretation on learning language syntactic structures</i></b>						
34	Students can use word order within a sentence.					
35	Student can structure simple sentence easily.					
36	Students can master different types of the sentence based on the function, declarative and imperative.					
37	Students can build up compound sentence(s).					
38	Students can generate complex sentence(s).					
39	Students can split between the sentences constituents.					

## Appendix (B: Speaking Skills Evaluation Rubric

This rubric is designed to examine the effect of simultaneous interpretation on the developing of 3<sup>rd</sup> year university students speaking skills based on the research hypothesis.

No	Speaking Sub skills	Very good (5)	Good (4)	Average (3)	poor (2)	Very Poor (1)
1	Fluency					
2	Accuracy					
3	Cohesion					
4	Coherence					
5	Turn-Taking					
6	Circumlocution					
7	Grammar					
8	Vocabulary					
9	Pronunciation and Accent					
10	Intonation					
11	Rhythm					
12	Pause					
13	Pace					
14	Tones					
15	Word order (sentence structures)					

### **Appendix (C): Listening Skills Evaluation Rubric**

This rubric is designed to examine the effect of simultaneous interpretation on the developing of 3<sup>rd</sup> year university students listening skills based on the research hypothesis.

<b>No</b>	<b>Speaking Sub skills</b>	<b>Very good (5)</b>	<b>Good (4)</b>	<b>Average (3)</b>	<b>poor (2)</b>	<b>Very Poor (1)</b>
1	Predicting the main theme					
2	Comprehension					
3	Pick out a word					
4	Guessing the next word					
5	Recognizing the tense					
6	Questing the meaning from the context					
7	identify the meaning implied by stress					
8	identify the meaning implied by intonation					
9	On-task behavior					
10	Giving feedback using facial expressions					
11	Identifying shortened words					
12	Identifying shortened phrases					
13	Identifying collocations					
14	Summarizing					
15	Interaction					



### Appendix (D): Students' Overall Result of Speaking Rubrics

<b>Experimental Group</b>		<b>Control Group</b>	
<b>Students</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Students</b>	<b>Result</b>
S1	72	S1	53
S2	70	S2	40
S3	80	S3	50
S4	66	S4	44
S5	53	S5	56
S6	60	S6	51
S7	52	S7	37
S8	84	S8	42
S9	68	S9	45
S10	56	S10	54
S11	57	S11	57
S12	73	S12	60
S13	50	S13	33
S14	58	S14	41
S15	60	S15	57
S16	61	S16	38
S17	69	S17	50
S18	81	S18	52
S19	76	S19	58
S20	52	S20	38

**Appendix (E): Students' Overall Result of Listening Rubric**

<b>Experimental Gro up</b>		<b>Control Gro up</b>	
<b>Students</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Students</b>	<b>Result</b>
S1	68	S1	58
S2	66	S2	52
S3	64	S3	51
S4	53	S4	62
S5	73	S5	53
S6	55	S6	56
S7	78	S7	57
S8	76	S8	55
S9	69	S9	61
S10	65	S10	60

**Appendix (F): The Research Tools Jury Members**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Academic Position</b>	<b>Place of work</b>
<b>1</b>	Dr Al Tahir Qamar	<i>Assistant Professor</i>	Jazan University, KSA
<b>2</b>	Abdalla M S Ali	<i>Assistant Professor</i>	Jazan University, KSA
<b>3</b>	Sabri Omer Kojok	Assistant Professor	Bahri University, Sudan
<b>4</b>	Al awad Yagoub	Assistant Professor	Jazan University, KSA