

THE CIRIN BULLETIN

Conference Interpreting Research Information Network

An independent network for the dissemination of information on
conference interpreting research (CIR) and related research

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This Bulletin aims at contributing to the dissemination of information on conference interpreting research (CIR) and at providing useful information on CIR and related research worldwide. It is published twice a year, in January and July. For further information and electronic copies of early issues no longer posted on the [CIRIN site](#), please contact [D. Gile](#).

Notes:

1. The mini-abstracts may be followed by the initials of the contributor who sent in the information. The wording may be written or adapted by DG, who takes responsibility for the comments and for any errors introduced by him.
2. The editor believes in the usefulness of the distinction between ‘tactics’ (decisions and actions aimed at achieving an immediate goal) and ‘strategies’ (decisions and actions with some planning) – see *CIRIN Bulletin* n°50, July 2015 – and therefore makes this distinction in his abstracts and comments. The same applies to the distinction between ‘cognitive load’ and ‘cognitive effort’, ‘cognitive effort’ being the effortful response to cognitive load, namely factors that make it necessary to exert effort to complete a task. The relation between the two is not necessarily linear, or even monotonic.
3. The sign >>> highlights items that the editor considers particularly noteworthy, for one reason or another.
4. TIS stands for ‘Translation and Interpreting Studies’

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EDITORIAL

A few personal impressions and thoughts:

A vibrant Chinese Interpreting Studies research community

The energy of the Chinese IS community is evidenced by its high productivity over the past two decades. Chinese research has also been evolving qualitatively in a spectacular manner, as can be seen when comparing recent publications, including those listed in this issue of the *Bulletin*, with Chinese

publications from the past. What are the main determinants of this evolution? Academic demographics, economic factors and government policy certainly come into play in such a large country and deserve to be studied systematically, with data. My personal impression is that cultural factors are also important contributors. Throughout the years, and especially during a short visit to Macau and Hong Kong for a conference and lectures and workshops in November 2024, when interacting with Chinese colleagues, I felt that:

- Overall, Chinese colleagues work harder than their Western counterparts.
- Chinese colleagues from different backgrounds such as language teaching or English literature did not shy away from moving into different disciplines and research paradigms, including highly technical ones such as neuro-cognitive investigations using brain-imaging techniques.
- Bonds between students and their supervisors seem to be genuine and long-lasting, and imply loyalty and affective involvement.
- During IS research conferences, socializing, especially during meals, seems to play an important role, with specific customs such as regular individual toasting around one's own table and other tables at the end of a meal, or even during a meal.
- There seems to be a 'renewable' pool of bright Chinese doctoral students genuinely interested in research. My personal highlights in last November's short stay in Macau and Hong Kong were interactions with doctoral students, when discussing their projects.

None of these features is specifically Chinese, but their combination at a high level of concentration could be. And could explain some of the vitality of Chinese IS research?

Technology

Technology stands out in this issue of the Bulletin, inter alia with a special issue of *Interpreting* (26:2, 2024). During my recent visit to Hong Kong and Macau, a recurring question from young Chinese interlocutors was whether I thought that technology, and in particular AI, would make human translators and interpreters redundant. The fact is that automatic speech recognition (ASR) is increasingly reliable and fast, and 'automatic interpreting' is probably a cost-effective-acceptable-for-purpose-quality solution in some contexts, just as machine translation is. In some cases, 'automatic interpreting' could even be superior to human interpreters in rendering say numbers and names. But human communication also depends on subtle and complex interpretations and expressions of attitudes, intentions and feelings and their interaction. Can they be addressed adequately through physical sensors and electronic data processing? It is difficult to predict how much inter-personal verbal communication will be delegated to machines in the future, but at this time, the focus of CIR researchers is on how technology can assist interpreting – and how it impacts interpreting cognition. Automatically produced subtitles, in particular, have become relevant and obviously useful. They may take away some attentional resources from other cognitive components of interpreting, but so do consulting glossaries in the booth or asking a boothmate for help. Automatic terminology extraction and glossary production can also help. Over-reliance on such tools is a behavioral issue, not a technical one, and education can help. The same can be said about automatic translation of speeches or scripts received at the last minute. What is more fundamentally problematic are technologies that *force* interpreters to work in certain ways, for instance remotely, with no control over the quality of the sound that reaches their ears or immediate, direct link to boothmates, to speakers, to technicians.

Time-variability of cognitive processes

Practicing interpreters will probably agree that interpreting a speech involves sequences of cognitive processes, each focusing on short speech segments of one to several lexical units but also taking on board a larger context. They will probably agree that cognitive requirements for each part of the sequence can vary markedly, depending inter alia on the presence of problem triggers in each, but also on how the previous segment was addressed. This can entail *imported load* when the processing of the previous segment was long, but also *induced load*, for instance when the processing of the previous

segment resulted in the formulation of a sentence segment in the target language which is grammatically constraining as regards its continuation, while the incumbent speech segment would best be translated using a continuation sentence structure which clashes with it. In addition, interpreters do not always translate similar or even identical speech segments in the same way, as evidenced in experiments where they are asked to interpret the same speeches twice in a row; hence, errors, omissions and infelicities that are not the same in the first and second pass. Ideally, the rendition of names and numbers and the use of ASR and glossaries should be studied not with statistics on whole speeches of several minutes or longer, but with detailed investigation of the processing of each speech segment. And when inter-individual variability is found to be high, not on populations (as represented by samples), but on individuals. Possibly with much use of retrospection, backed by brain imaging techniques or physiological measurements with high time-resolution. And with numerous replications, with different values of the relevant parameters.

How feasible is that in our research environment? Should we stop doing empirical research, or stop using inferential statistics on samples in experimental and naturalistic settings because they do not yield conclusive or consistent results? Certainly not, because some effects rise high above variability-induced smoothing of the signals. But we should be aware that in signals with high variability, inferential statistics lose much power, no matter how “advanced” they are, and they certainly do not tell us everything. In particular, when no significant effects are found on a sample, this does not mean that the targeted phenomena or relations do not exist. They may just lie there, below the radar. Perhaps we should keep that in mind when drawing conclusions from findings in empirical studies?

The credibility of CIR

Reading many research papers each year, I increasingly find systematic exploration of relevant literature, genuine engagement with theoretical issues, clear awareness of methodological issues and some sophistication in research methods used, including advanced measurement tools and statistics. And find myself impressed and wondering where and how the authors had the opportunity and time to learn them. Or perhaps, they relied on experts to advise them or even carry out some of the technical analyses – which is wise, when experts are available. What a spectacular progress from interpreting research in its beginning and until the beginning of this 21st century!

And then, I collide against blatant flaws in research design, in the use of tools and in inferences that should have been eradicated at the very beginning of research training. Such as neglecting the learning effect in a pre-treatment post-treatment design (when doing the same task twice, a learning effect is likely to help reaching better performance the second time), or claiming that the absence of a statistically significant difference between measured outcomes in a dependent variable under two conditions *proves* that the difference in conditions has no effect, or using a tool that measures cognitive effort to test predictions about what happens at high cognitive pressure levels whereas it has been known for decades that the tool does not work when disengagement occurs (in this case, pupillometry), or claiming that the absence of a significant difference between two conditions *is due to* the small sample size, to cite just a few examples found in publications by well-known authors in IS *who teach research methods* and supervise doctoral dissertations. How credible are we as a discipline in the eyes of qualified researchers from cognate disciplines who read publications with such blatant flaws?

This recurring topic in this *Bulletin*'s editorials reflects my disappointment: the issue is not being addressed efficiently in spite of considerable advances on other aspects of interpreting research. Clearly, lectures which *explain* principles, concepts and methods are not enough, and we cannot offer students or practisearchers a full hands-on research course over three years similar to that offered to psychology undergraduates. But could we at least offer short workshops or sets of exercises on flawed designs, methods and inferences? Participants would be asked to identify what is wrong with the design or inferences in each case study. Could this be an efficient awareness-raising tool?

Videos as research ‘literature’?

In this issue, three examples of videos I discovered recently are listed, but there are many more to be discovered, including some which actually report research, when scientific conferences are recorded and put online – the three listed in this issue do not. When the quality of the sound and image are good, their main drawback is that viewing them takes a lot of time, whereas they include parts which are not so informative/interesting. One colleague told me she views such videos at accelerated speed, which improves the situation timewise – without offering a full solution. It is much easier to scan visually written texts and access rapidly those parts in which one is really interested. Perhaps the use of captions will provide similar possibilities with videos as well in the near future.

Daniel Gile

CIR PUBLICATIONS

ARTICLES

Ahmed, Safa'a Ahmed (MSA Univ., Egypt). 2018. Omission in Simultaneous Interpreting: A Multidisciplinary Perspective to U.S. Presidential Debates. *Occasional Papers in the Development of English Education*, CDELT, 65:1. 469-511.

**An analysis of omissions in the live Arabic interpretation of a presidential debate between Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump on Al-Jazeera by two interpreters in 2016. The author takes Pym's ideas about the role of risk in translation behavior and Benoit's functional theory of political campaign discourse as conceptual guidelines for the analysis and speculates about the type and effect of omissions detected in the Arabic output against the functions of the omitted segments in the original utterances.*

Ahmed, Safa'a Ahmed (MSA Univ., Egypt). 2022. Technology and artificial intelligence in simultaneous interpreting: a multidisciplinary approach. *Occasional Papers in the Development of English Language Education*, CDELT, 78: 325-353. ISSN 1110-2721

**An overview, taking as a conceptual framework a combination of the Effort Models and Seleskovitch's idea of deverbalization (!), with explanations about human translation and machine translation.*

Behr, Martina (Univ. of Innsbruck). 2024. Interpreting Studies and the Need for a Systemic Turn. *Lublin Studies in Modern Languages and Literature* (Maria Curie-Sklodowska University Press) 48:3 DOI:10.17951/lsmll.2024.48.3.53-64

**The author argues for a systems-theoretical approach to research in IS because of the numerous and highly diversified determinants that act and interact to produce interpreting. She mentions the free software i-Modeler by Consideo (Consideo) as a tool to get the most out of a systems-theory approach: it models the whole complexity of interpreting as a system and can calculate effects of factors on other factors. Interested readers can refer to: Behr, M. (2020). *Dolmetschen: Komplexität, Methodik, Modellierung*. Frank & Timme.*

**DG: Looking at interpreting through a systems-theory lens makes sense conceptually, and an endeavor to model interpreting using modern software is an interesting follow-up to a long-standing tradition among German-speaking IS scholars: taking a bird's eye view of the field with classifications. As regards operational applications, I have two concerns:*

- If they are to produce practical output, models require much data input. The more the model is complex, the more data are required. Can we feed enough up-to-date data to systems-theory-based models to enable them to provide practical output?

- Assuming they can, isn't the stochastic element in them ('statistical' variability, whether random or not) involved in any single interpreting event large enough to make the model's output less powerful than 'atomistic' ('local') analysis which by necessity only takes on board a small fraction of the relevant factors and interactions?

CHEN, Sijia & Kruger, Jan-Louis (Guangdong Univ. of Foreign Studies & Macquarie Univ. resp.). 2024. Visual processing during computer-assisted consecutive interpreting. Evidence from eye movements. *Interpreting* 26:2. 231-252.

**A follow-up to earlier work by the two authors (see Bulletin n°68), again with undergraduate students. In computer-assisted consecutive interpreting (CACI), the interpreter listens to the source speech and respokes it into speech recognition software. S/he then produces the target speech using the transcript produced by speech recognition and its machine-translated output. In this study, the focus was on visual processing, and the link between visual processing allocation and the quality of respoking (apparently assessed on the basis of the number of errors made). The authors made several predictions, based on the assessment of cognitive resources required for the component tasks*

**DG: Again, an interesting, well-designed experiment, and the authors are aware of and mention some of its limitations – while hardly addressing the fact that their participants are undergraduate students, not professional interpreters. To this reviewer, the point of the whole exercise in terms of professional practice is not clear. Is the idea to replace consecutive with shadowing while wearing a mask to prevent sound interference, followed by sight-translation and/or reading aloud a machine-translated text? Are we making things more complicated just to accommodate the existence of new technological tools? Why not wait until ASR is reliable enough to provide directly source and/or voice-synthesized target texts or speeches and provide simultaneous interpreting or sight-translation service? Or, if ASR is not reliable enough yet, ask professional respokers to provide good recognizable text at another location?*

And another concern: once again, we are offered statistics over a whole task. Not an analysis of its variation, and the variation of cognitive pressure/load when particular difficulties arise, no analysis of the process of meaning-making from the source speech and of the process of meaning-reformulation from memory and from the output provided by the machine, or of tactical behavior to ensure good interference-free language quality, informational accuracy and good delivery. Somehow, I feel that by constructing complex technological setups and focusing on measuring their performance we are at risk of missing the more essential part of human interpreting.

>>>**CHEUNG, Andrew** (Hong Kong Polytechnic University). 2024. Cognitive load in remote simultaneous interpreting: place name translation in two Mandarin variants. *HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES COMMUNICATIONS* | (2024)11:1238 | <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-024-03767-y>

**Yet another original and clever study by Andrew Cheung, in which he checks the effects of fatigue on the performance of a task which enhances effort requirements, in this case, the use of the Taiwanese variant of Mandarin by interpreters who usually interpret into the Mainland variant of Chinese. All were asked to interpret remotely into Chinese an English speech which contained three series of 3 names of countries, the first series about 5 minutes from the beginning of the speech, the second series 14 minutes into the speech, and the third series 23 minutes into the speech. The experimental group was asked to interpret the speech into the Taiwanese variant. The control group did not receive any specific instruction. Glossaries with the names in the relevant variants were provided to the participants in advance. Cheung examined the rendition of the third name in each group. Correct*

rendition rates in the two groups decreased from series 1 to series 2 to series 3, which suggests an effect of fatigue or disengagement. The correct rendition rate of the third name in the first series, Cote d'Ivoire in English, was nearly the same for the first series. It differed markedly for the second series (Montenegro) and for the third series (Laos), always with a lower score for the Taiwan variant. The data suggest both an effect of fatigue and the effects of lower mental availability and/or anti-interference efforts as regards the translation of the three country names into the Taiwanese variant of Chinese by interpreters who generally do not use this variant.

*DG: In this single, simple experimental design, Cheung studies two distinct phenomena and produces data that suggest clear effects. The data would gain power if they were based on more than 3 country names (say more country names, numbers or other local problem triggers) and if it were possible to rule out that something other than their early or later position in the speech could explain differences in the respective proportions of correct renditions. This could be achieved by permutations of their respective positions.

One other interesting aspect of the experiment is the fact that it was conducted in remote interpreting mode. The new technologies open up possibilities for the recruitment of larger samples for experiments.

D'Amico-Wolff, Stefania (Institut für Übersetzen und Dolmetschen des Universität Heidelberg). 2024. Ein kognitiv-psychologisches Aufmerksamkeitsmodell für das Simultandolmetschen (A cognitive-psychological attention model for simultaneous interpreting). *Trans-kom* 17:2. 256-319.

*In neuropsychology, attention is a construct closely associated with the selection of information and the ability to selectively attend to relevant stimuli. In this long paper (64 pages), the author reviews attention-related concepts, including the construct of attention and its functions and dimensions, against the background of the dichotomy between controlled and automatic tasks that come into play during SI, including RSI and CAI (Computer-assisted interpreting). On p. 48, she offers a graphical model of attention during SI which includes attention requirement during RSI and with CAI.

*DG: Three observations have caught my attention:

p. 23. In interpreting, not all activities can be considered automatic or controlled. But even a controlled activity may encompass automatic sub-processes.

p. 25. According to Logan (1988), automation through practice occurs when people rely increasingly on memory and less on algorithms. An interesting explanatory angle.

p. 34 At certain points in the process, comprehension can require more processing capacity than production and vice-versa. This is clear to all practicing interpreters, and challenges the claim that is sometimes made in the literature that comprehension requires more processing capacity than production or vice-versa.

>>>**FAN, Chiaming (Damien)** (National Taiwan Univ.). 2024. Conference interpreters' technology readiness and perception of digital technologies. *Interpreting* 26:2. 178-200.

*A large-scale online questionnaire (496 correspondents, including 320 AIIC members) supplemented with 25 semi-structured interviews. The data are from 2023. The questionnaire was detailed, with 115 items organized into six sections. Getting so many responses from active conference interpreters is quite a feat. Overall, 'technology readiness' as measured by the TRI scale was moderate, with a pragmatic approach where the benefits are concerned but with cautiousness as regards adoption, says FAN. There were interesting accounts of the use of technology and interesting comments. Inter alia, about the benefit of using automatic translation of scripts received at the last minute and of ASR to transcribe pre-recorded videos, but concerns about some interpreters using the product of technology directly, bypassing comprehension, critical reflection and tactic reformulation, along with ethical judgment. There was considerable concern about ethics, and inter alia about confidentiality when documents were processed through available technology. Respondents reported that new technology

did not change their fundamental approach towards interpreting, except as regards Distance Interpreting platforms, described as “life savers” during the Covid pandemic, despite considerable technical challenges and health issues that had a major negative impact on the life of some of them. As regards AI, concern was expressed as regards possible replacement of humans by machine, something that is already occurring in some environments. Especially if clients favor lower cost and/or convenience over high quality. Interesting, and food for thought.

Ferdowsi, Sima & Razmi, Mohammad Hassan (Shahid Bahonar Univ. of Kerman, Iran). 2024. Anxiety-provoking factors in consecutive interpreting: a qualitative study of Iranian student interpreter trainees. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education* 9:38.

<https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-024-00260-6>

**Thirty undergraduate students of English translation and interpreting in their fourth year who had completed training in consecutive (with notes) were asked about anxiety-provoking factors in consecutive in focus groups. Their output was analyzed and used to identify six groups of such factors: individual, input (language-related factors, speaker-related factors), note-taking (inappropriate note-taking skill, lack of creativity in taking notes), environmental (noise and distraction, peer-related factors), output (meaning transfer, delivery), and teacher-related (testing, teachers' behavior) as formulated in the abstract.*

**DG: The initiative is welcome, but did not result in innovative findings.*

>>>**Gieshoff, Anne Catherine; Schuler, Martin; Jahany, Zaniyar** (Zurich University of Applied Science). 2024. The augmented interpreter. An exploratory study of the usability of augmented reality technology in interpreting. *Interpreting* 26:2. 282-315.

**Nine experienced conference interpreters were asked to interpret video recordings of two English speeches made by native speakers which included many technical terms and were played back on a computer. The interpreters wore augmented reality glasses (they weighed about half a kilogram) which allowed them to see the speaker as well as a semi-transparent “term box” which gave suggestions for target-language equivalents of source-language terms when the terms were uttered in the source speech. The terms remained in the “term box” for 5 seconds. The exercises included preparation, interpreting with augmented reality, and retrospective interviews.*

Five of the 9 participants mentioned they used terminology software to look up technical terms during previous assignments. Seven participants noted translation equivalents directly on the presentation slides that were given to them during the preparation phase. As regards technical terms, proper nouns and numerals, there was high variability in the participants' use of AR suggestions. Most of the participants placed the term box in the lower part of the screen. In their comments, participants noted the discomfort they felt wearing the glasses: weight, constriction, heat emitted by the device. Some discomfort with the term box per se was also mentioned: it limited their field of vision, and three participants were afraid to move their head or body for fear that the box would disappear, which might have interfered with their target speech production. Six participants said that integrating the input from the AR glasses required additional mental resources, which, according to one of them, affected concentration. Another comment made frequently was that the duration of the display of suggestions for terms was too short. Yet another was that the term box interfered with production because the term suggested by AR did not necessarily fit in well with the way the participants started their sentences. The very fact that the glossary used by AR was not one the participants themselves created seemed to bother them. The AR glasses were felt as intrusive, as they demanded attention at a time the interpreters were busy elsewhere. The authors' conclusion is that the participants did not fully benefit from the functionalities offered by the AR glasses as opposed to conventional CAI input. Not yet, and probably not before the technology achieves higher maturity and interpreters have more training and more experience with it.

**DG: The merits of this exploratory study should be obvious to readers, if only because it is informative and one of the first to actually test AR. The descriptive statistics offered are useful to get an idea of the quantitative features of the data and the authors did not fall into the trap of inferential statistics, which would have contributed little in this experimental environment. There is valuable qualitative input based on the participants' retrospective comments. The authors offer further comments and speculations with the required caution.*

HAN, Chao; ZHENG, Binghan; XIE, Mingqing, CHEN, Shirong. 2024. Raters' scoring process in assessment of interpreting: an empirical study based on eye tracking and retrospective verbalization. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 18:3. 400-422. DOI: 10.1080/1750399X.2024.2326400 (RBD)

**Three groups of raters (14 certified interpreters with post-graduate interpreting degrees who taught interpreting full-time, 6 postgraduate interpreting students who had used previously the analytic rating scale proposed in this experiment and 17 postgraduate interpreting students who had not) were asked to rate three batches of 4 consecutive interpretations of different source speeches using a detailed analytic scale. The scale as well as a transcript of source texts were displayed on a computer screen, while the interpretations were played back. They were eye-tracked during the process. A retrospective interview was conducted after the assessments of each batch with three questions: How did you use the source text? How did you use the rating scale? How did you evaluate the last recording? The raters were asked to write down final scores using the keyboard for each rubric criterion, presumably at the end of each recording, as no data are provided regarding the raters' gaze towards the keyboard or the Word document which was used for that purpose.*

The raters fixated more frequently on the source text than on the rating scale, and more frequently on the rating scale than on the audio player, which was also displayed as a rectangle with a line which showed the progression of the sound being played back from the beginning of the recording to its end.

**DG: There is much information in this paper, but it is difficult for this reviewer to make sense out of it without further background information. What kind of interpreting are we talking about? What kind of rating is addressed? Summative, in-training, for certification? Why are the authors interested in eye gaze behavior? Why are they interested in comparing professionals and students? Why put a rating scale on screen as opposed to putting it on paper?*

HUANG, Dan Feng; LI, Fuang; GUO, Hang. 2023. Chunking in simultaneous interpreting: the impact of task complexity and translation directionality on lexical bundles. *Front. Psychol.* 14:1252238.

**This study compares the use of formulaic language (more specifically 4-word p-frames) in simultaneous interpreting of UN Security Council conferences using spontaneous English speeches by native (?) English speakers, English speeches produced by Chinese interpreters simultaneously interpreting Chinese speeches (into their B language), and English speeches produced by native English interpreters simultaneously interpreting Russian speeches. The authors assume that producing native English was cognitively least challenging, that interpreting into one's native language (Russian-into-English) was more challenging, and that interpreting into one's B language (Chinese-into-English by interpreters working into their B language was most challenging). They also assume that formulaic language (apparently this is what they referred to as "chunking" in the title of the paper) is a cognitive resource-saving strategy. They look at formulaic unit frequency, and at other features such as fixedness (type/token ratio) and grammatical and functional categories. The authors found that the smallest proportion of p-frames were found in the spontaneous English corpus, followed by the Russian-into-English corpus, followed by the Chinese-into-English corpus. They also found some differences in the lexico-grammatical features of the p-frames in the three corpora. They conclude that the higher cognitive load, the more formulaic sequences are used.*

**DG: Hard work and much processing were involved in this study, and the authors should be commended for that. But the rationale underlying its design is problematic. For instance:*

1. Formulaic language probably does save processing capacity, in both comprehension and production because of its high predictability and the cognitive relief it gives to comprehenders and speech producers. But how plausible is it that under heavy cognitive pressure, interpreters have the time and cognitive resources to actually seek a formulaic reformulation of information conveyed by the source speech? Isn't it just as plausible that they seek the most available way to reformulate the ideas, and if what comes first to their mind is a formulaic expression, they use it? In other words, the presence of formulaic language in the output may depend on other factors, such as the mental availability of such formulaic language in the interpreters' lexicon, rather than on cognitive pressure.

2. One of the possible reasons for differences in the frequency of formulaic speech segments in the interpreters' output is differences in the presence of formulaic segments in the source speeches, which could 'activate' corresponding formulaic segments in the target speeches. The authors apparently did not investigate this possibility, which seems quite plausible in government speeches made for the Security Council in the UN, perhaps with different degrees of formulaicity for Chinese speeches, Russian speeches and speeches by representative of English-speaking governments.

3. The authors seem to consider as a given that working into one's B language is more effortful than working into one's A language and take directionality as a criterion for 'complexity'. On this question, the jury is still out, and it is perhaps not a very good idea to take this idea as a given, on which to base a further hypothesis.

With so many uncertainties, it is difficult to consider that the findings support either one of the hypotheses formulated by the authors.

In addition, some ideas taken from the literature and cited in the text are misrepresented: In particular, Gile's "law of least effort" as formulated in Gile 2009, p.213, refers not to a tactic or strategy aimed at improving interpreting efficiency, but to an unwelcome unwillingness to devote as much effort as necessary to perform at the required quality standard. Its citation in the context of this study is unfortunate. Overall, the five laws formulated in the same chapter were not designed to understand the interpreters' tactical ways to deal with cognitive pressure, but to account for the choice of operational tactics among several possibilities at a higher level, that of norms and ethics. As to chunking, which generally refers to what has been called 'saucissonnage' in the past and is correctly described in the left-hand column of page 3 of the paper, it is quite distinct from formulaic language.

Jerkovic, Tiana (Univ. of Graz). 2024. Space, body and presence. An analytical framework for remote interpreting. *Interpreting* 26:2. 201-230.

**Conceptual categorization, which includes signed language interpreting and virtual reality.*

>>>LI, Tianyun & Chmiel, Agnieszka (Shandong Univ. & Adam Mickiewicz Univ. resp.). 2024. Automatic subtitles increase accuracy and decrease cognitive load in simultaneous interpreting. *Interpreting* 26:2. 253-281.

**In an experiment simulating interpreting with ASR, twenty-three professional interpreters interpreted a difficult speech made by a speaker with an unusual accent with no subtitles or with subtitles at varying levels of precision (100%, 95%, 90% and 80%). Accuracy was measured as a percentage of 30 critical lexical units (10 names, 10 content words and 10 numbers) rendered in the interpreters' output. Subtitles were found to improve interpreting accuracy, which was low on average (only 47%), but had a negative impact on fluency. Numbers and names were interpreted more accurately than content words, perhaps, say the authors, because they were visually more salient. Output accuracy was similar when subtitles were 100%, 95% and 90% accurate, but dropped below 90% of subtitle-accuracy. Over-reliance was present, as in 25% of the cases, the interpreters accepted the imprecise cues of the subtitles. Self-perceived mental load, including cognitive load, performance and frustration (NASA*

TLX) was reported as similar by participants – in spite of objectively measured differences in accuracy. Eye-tracking showed that interpreters looked more at the subtitles than at the speaker. EEG measurement of theta-waves, an indicator of cognitive load, showed inconsistent results. The participants interpreted with their forehead placed on a forehead rest.

**DG: A carefully designed experiment which cleverly simulated the effects of ASR and made measurements from several angles, combining behavioral and physiological data. And yet, in view of the findings, I would have preferred the title to be less categorical. Yes, when interpreting a difficult, accented speech, wearing electrodes on a scalp and resting one's forehead on a device that restricts one's movements, no distinct increase in cognitive load was measured, and the accuracy of rendition of single lexical units was increased thanks to the subtitles. Would that have been the same if the speech has been markedly easier? What about the accuracy of the output in general? How good is the selection of 10 content words as an indicator for the accuracy of rendition of ideas? The idea is clever, and measurement is convenient, but I would like to see the indicator tested against propositional accuracy assessment, because single content words do not fully express ideas. These comments should not be taken as criticism of the experiments per se, but as reflections on the huge amount of work that is yet to be done before we can – perhaps – reach solid conclusions about all positive and negative aspects of subtitles during simultaneous interpreting.*

PAN, Jun (Janice) (Hong Kong Baptist University). 2024. Corpora and interpreter training. In D. LI & J. Corbett (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Translation Studies* (pp. 417-447). London and New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003184454>

**An overview of developments in the use of (large) corpora for training, that is, for skills acquisition (especially through interpreting exercises on authentic speeches), and for topic/glossary preparation. PAN lists corpora and tools and some of their features. She discusses the potential uses of recently developed tools – actually beyond training, going into professional practice – including terminology extraction, glossary preparation, and even automatic self-assessment, and stresses the importance of students acquiring technological literacy if they are to take advantage of them.*

**DG: A historical note: for a long time, up to at least the 1980s, conference interpreter training philosophy as developed and preached in AIIC-approved interpreter training programs rejected the use of recorded material for training and only allowed live speeches in the classroom, the idea being that interpreting exercises should be done in environments as authentic as possible, with a live speaker and a live audience. There were a few instructors who did use recordings, but this was not approved practice. The live speaker principle was self-limiting, and clearly inadequate for certain language combinations for which few or no live speakers were available. In the 1980s, when teaching Japanese-into-French interpreting in France, I had to make recordings with Japanese speakers for the classroom. In Newcastle, Fred WU built an impressive set of audio recordings of Chinese speeches for his English-Chinese interpreting students, and in Prague, Ivana Čeňková used audio-cassettes as well. Despite the limitations of the live-speaker only principle, it took a long time before the idea of using recorded corpora for training was accepted.*

Another historical point: PAN quotes Setton's 2011 mention of Seleskovitch's 1973 doctoral dissertation (published as a book in 1975) being 'corpus-based'. This is misleading. In French, the word 'corpus' refers to the data on which inferences are made, regardless of their volume and nature. Seleskovitch's 'corpus' consists of two English speeches made and audio-recorded and their consecutive interpretations, including the notes taken by the 12 professional interpreters who participated in the experiment. These data were analyzed 'manually'. Corpus-based research in the sense that is discussed by PAN only started more than two decades later.

PAN, Jun (Janice) (Hong Kong Baptist University). 2024. From corpus-based interpreting studies to interpreting data 'mining': Trials and perspectives. In D. LI & J. Corbett (Eds.), *The Routledge*

Handbook of Corpus Translation Studies (pp. 77-102). London and New York: Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003184454>

**In this chapter of the book, the author, who has been personally involved in considerable work on corpora in the Chinese-English combination, takes the reader from the concept of data in interpreting studies to data mining in corpora. She talks about the various steps involved in processing corpora so as to allow analysis of the huge amount of data they contain for the purpose of detecting regularities and answering research questions. She talks in some detail about the Chinese/English Political Interpreting Corpus (CEPIC) with which she is particularly familiar, and about The Chinese/English Translation and Interpreting Learner Corpus (CETILC) which encompasses translations and interpretations produced by university students at different stages of their curriculum. She illustrates the use of corpora by referring to a study of the historical role of interpreting and its evolution over time using keywords as indicators. The chapter shows the highly technical work involved in the process. A heavy investment in time, skills acquisition and labor for the technology-minded – and one that opens many avenues for exploration.*

Pöchhacker, Franz & LIU, Minhua (Univ. of Vienna and Hong Kong Baptist Univ. resp.). 2024. Interpreting technologized. Distance and assistance. *Interpreting* 26:2. 157-177.

**In this paper, the two chief editors of Interpreting introduce its special issue 26:2, which is devoted to technology in interpreting. They start with a historical overview of the types and place of technology in interpreting over the decades discussing its evolution. They note in particular that it is mostly over the past decades that various technologies have become more directly intertwined with the practice of interpreting. They also mention a number of collective volumes devoted to technology in interpreting, and explain that the origin of this special issue of Interpreting was an International Conference on Interpreting convened by Hong Kong Baptist University in 2022. The last part of the paper is an introduction to other papers in this issue.*

**DG: A clearly conceptualized, informative introduction. The one aspect of technology that might also have been covered more extensively is the evolution of the use of technology in research into interpreting.*

SHANG, Xiaoqi & XIE, Guixia. 2024. Investigating the impact of visual access on trainee interpreters' simultaneous interpreting performance, *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 18:4, 645-663, DOI: 10.1080/1750399X.2024.2381404 (RBD)

**Forty-eight Chinese student interpreters from a prestigious university with one year of training in SI behind them were asked to interpret in simultaneous into Chinese (their A language) two English speeches on similar topics by the same speaker, first from an audio recording (first speech), and then from a video recording (second speech), and their performance as regards overall fidelity, language quality and fluency of delivery were assessed by two experienced raters. Results show superior performance in the video condition, except for language quality.*

**DG: The authors mention methodological weaknesses in previous research on the impact of visual access on interpreting performance and devote laudable efforts to ensuring comparability of the two speeches, to training and retraining their two raters, to measuring their severity/leniency levels, to measuring inter-rater reliability. But they forgot the learning effect. All students interpreted in the audio condition first, and thus had a chance to become familiar with the speaker's voice, accent, prosody and general ideas and to increase language availability of relevant terms and phraseological units... which is likely to have been an advantage when interpreting the second speech. In other words, the improvements noted in the video condition may well have been due not to the video condition per se, but to a learning and priming effect. This confound could have been addressed by randomly assigning half of the students to audio-first-video-second and half of them to video-first-audio-second.*

>>>**SHAO, Zhangminzi & Defrancq, Bart** (Zhejiang Gongshang Univ., Ghent Univ. resp.). 2024. Fundamental frequency as an acoustic mirror of interpreters' cognitive states. *Interpreting* <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.00107.sha> | Published online: 8 August 2024

**The fundamental frequency or F_0 of the voice of speakers is the lowest frequency at which their vocal folds vibrate while they are speaking. It has been identified as one of the indicators most sensitive to changes in cognitive load. Increases in mean F_0 values and peak F_0 values as well as decreases in F_0 range values (the differences between the highest and the lowest value) are reported to correlate with rising cognitive load. In this study, cognitive load was operationalized as the amount of information held in working memory and yet to be translated at a given time. The authors use data from SHAO's doctoral dissertation and reported in SHAO & CHAI 2020 (Bulletin N°60) with 9 professional interpreters who interpreted a 10-minute speech assessed as "quite easy", in which 'information chunks' were identified. Cognitive load, that is, the number of chunks remaining to be interpreted, was counted at various times, and F_0 during interpreting was measured from the recordings. Some interesting results: Mean F_0 tended to increase over the 10-minute period. This was interpreted as reflecting fatigue. F_0 peaks were found to correlate with the peak number of chunks stored in WM in 8 out of the 9 interpreters. F_0 range correlated with the peak number of chunks in 6 out of the 9 interpreters.*

**DG: While the findings do not point at strong statistical correlations, this study is noteworthy on several grounds:*

- The novel use of F_0 , a non-invasive measurement method, as a proxy of fatigue and cognitive load. As the authors suggest, perhaps replications with large samples might lead to stronger results.*
- The re-use of existing data for purposes different from those of the initial study, a wise use of data*
- The inter-continental cooperation. Congratulations to whoever took the initiative*

One interesting comment made by the authors caught my attention:

"The results obtained do not all fall in line with the results put forward in the psychological literature... This discrepancy could stem from the particular nature of interpreting with regard to tasks that are more commonplace in the psychological literature relating to F_0 , such as number counting, Stroop tasks and oral response (Van Puyvelde et al. 2018). It is accordingly necessary to theorise the role of F_0 and intonation in interpreting more thoroughly so as to reach hypotheses that better take into account the specifics of the task." Hear hear.

>>>**SU, Wenchao; LI, Defeng & NING, Jing**. 2024. Syntactic asymmetry and spillover effects in simultaneous interpreting with slides: an eye-tracking study on beginner interpreters, *Perspectives*, DOI: 10.1080/0907676X.2024.2427680

** Twenty Chinese senior undergraduate interpreting students were asked to interpret in simultaneous mode a Chinese speech into English and an English speech into Chinese while they were shown slides with titles and bullet points congruent with the content of speech. In each speech, there were sentences that required reordering the order of information in terms of left-branching and right-branching structures (different sentence structure in the source and target speech), and sentences which could be translated with the same order of information (similar sentence structure). Eye-tracking (total fixation duration as an indicator of cognitive effort) and informational accuracy assessment were also conducted. Easy continuation sentences made it possible to check whether there was a spill-over effect from the cognitive load arising from the processing of the previous sentences (in reference to Gile's imported load hypothesis). The data suggest that interpreting sentences with a requirement for different structures ("asymmetrical" in the authors' words) was more challenging than interpreting sentences without having to change the order of information, that interpreting from English into Chinese was more challenging than interpreting from Chinese into English, that there was an effect of imported load on the accuracy of the interpretation of continuation sentences in the case of different*

sentence structures (“asymmetrical”), and that this effect was stronger in the English-into-Chinese direction.

**DG: This is a well-designed, clever study in many of its aspects, including an intelligent use of eye-tracking with slides, titles and bullet points to serve as ‘text’ for simultaneous with text. The literature review is relevant and well-structured, and the inferences are careful, with cautious considerations. It is a pleasure to highlight this example of good scholarship for reference.*

As regards the findings per se, they indicate clear effects of directionality, of the challenges of reordering sentence structures, and of imported load... in undergraduate students. It is not clear that the same effects would be found in professionals, but this study paves the way to replications with professionals.

Ünal, Esmernay. 2023. Dilbilimsel Tipolojik Yakınlığın Sözlü Çeviri Faaliyetlerinde Aşırı Bilişsel Yükü Azaltmaya Etkisi (The effect of linguistic typological proximity on reducing cognitive overload in interpreting activities) (in Turkish). *International Journal of Languages’ Education and Teaching* 11:4. 49-66.

**An essay. According to the author, among the situations that fall within the scope of excessive cognitive load, the ‘functional foreignness’ of the language pair ranks first. The author discusses the effects of such typological dissimilarity between the source and target languages and mentions tactics as a way to face them.*

WEN, Jiachen & LI, Xiandong (Xi’an International Studies University). 2024. Practice Report as Graduation Thesis for Interpreting Students: A Descriptive Survey. *TRANS Revista de Traductología* 28. 179-195.

** ‘Practice reports’ are students’ self-assessments on translation/interpreting tasks, whether authentic or simulated. They are frequently submitted by MTI students (Master of Translation and Interpreting) as ‘graduation theses. In 2022, the number of Chinese universities offering a Master of Interpreting reached 89, with an average of 20 students enrolling each year. In this study, the authors scrutinized 685 interpreting practice reports from 8 well-known universities and noted some of their features.*

Inter alia: 59% are based on authentic interpreting situations, and 41% on simulated interpreting practice, 86.9% are based on consecutive and 8.9% on simultaneous, 62% are written in English and 38% in Chinese, a literature review is included in 20% of them, 71% include a section presenting a theoretical framework. 44.3% of the problems mentioned are linguistic comprehension problems and 22.4% extralinguistic comprehension problems, 9.3% are reformulation problems (a surprisingly low percentage. The top five ‘theories’ mentioned are the Effort Models, Interpretive Theory, Skopos theory, the interpreter’s role and interpreter’s subjectivity – to this reviewer, what justifies the inclusion of the last two items in the ‘theory’ classification is unclear.

**DG: I am aware of the existence of this type of graduation papers in Western translator training programs, but was not aware of its existence as regards interpreting. Why not, if the curriculum requires a ‘thesis’ for graduation and it is not theoretically oriented? It could be a good summative exercise showing the students’ awareness and ability to analyze their performance in terms of issues and responses, preferably with methodological and perhaps theoretical input from their instructors during training. Not ‘academic’, but useful.*

WU, Yinyin (National Taiwan University). 2024. Multiword constructions in European Parliament conference English: a corpus-driven pedagogical list, *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 18:3, 423-441, DOI: 10.1080/1750399X.2024.2334582 (RBD)

**When students start their training, even if they master their working languages in the general everyday register and in some specialized registers and sociolects, they most probably lack lexical and phraseological availability if not knowledge of those sociolects they will be encountering in their future*

life as interpreters. Back in 1990 (in Gile, “Research proposals for interpreters”, in Gran and Taylor (eds). *Aspects of applied and experimental research on conference interpreting*, Campanotto Editore), I suggested that MA students of interpreting who needed to do research for their graduation thesis could study terms used in conferences and beyond that, conduct lexicometric studies on the basis of recordings and the study of transcripts, the idea being that this would also contribute to enhance their language skills. WU’s paper, which focuses on the enhancement of English language skills for Chinese students who will have to work into English, goes far beyond that, using corpora and electronic tools to identify multiword constructions in European Parliament English for use in the classroom by drawing on a European Parliament corpus, the ‘TC-STAR English Training Corpora for ASR: Transcriptions of EPPS Speech’. WU identifies not single lexical units, but 4-word lexical bundles which also offer a phraseological contribution to students, and an illustration of the possible uses of the data in the classroom.

XU, Cui & LI, Dechao (Beijing Institute of Technology, Hong Kong Polytechnic University). 2024. More spoken or more translated? Exploring the known unknowns of simultaneous interpreting from a multidimensional analysis perspective. *Target* 36:3. 445 – 480.

**With reference to ‘Translation Universals’ and to studies that started with a 1989 MA thesis by Miriam Shlesinger who identified a tendency of interpretations to shift towards the center in the oral-literate linguistic-features-of-text continuum, the authors look at 79 linguistic features of simultaneous interpretations into English of Cantonese speeches, written translations of the same speeches, and an authentic corpus of English statements by native speakers at the UK Parliament in order to study more closely than in previous studies in the literature ‘translationese’ and ‘interpretese’ versus authentic speech in the same language. The patterns that emerge are rather complex, but irrespective of the findings, a major methodological question arises: how informative is a comparison on the effects of translation and interpreting on the linguistic features of texts if translators and interpreters interpret a Chinese text or translate it into an acquired language, while the authentic English text is produced by native speakers of English in their native environment? Two major confounds, namely the ‘British style of discourse’ if there is one vs. the ‘Hong Kong style of discourse’ if there is one, and the nativeness vs. non-nativeness of the producers of the speeches, do not seem to have been addressed.*

>>>YAN, Hao; ZHANG, Yi; FENG, Yanqin; LIA, Yang; ZHANG, Yueting; LEE, Yujun; CHEN, Maoqing; SHI, Zijuan; LIANG, Yuan; HEI, Yuqin; XU Duan. 2024. Assessing mental demand in consecutive interpreting: Insights from an fNIRS study. *Acta Psychologica* 243 (2024) 104132.

** An interdisciplinary team from Xi’an International Studies University, Xidian University, North Sichuan Medical University, China School of English Studies, Xi’an International Studies University designed an experiment with 2nd year graduate students of interpreting from Xi’an International Studies University. In a simulated conversation between a Chinese speaker and a (Chinese) English speaker on two pre-determined topics, they interpreted both ways utterances of 20 seconds. After completing the CI task (which lasted a total of about 15 minutes), they completed a Mental Workload Questionnaire. During the task, real-time fNIRS measurements were performed: on their heads, they wore nylon caps, through which variations in the concentration of hemoglobin (total, oxygenated and deoxygenated) and various points on the surface of their cerebral cortex were measured. The questionnaire was a modified version of the one developed by NASA. Five professors from the School of Translation Studies with over 15 years of teaching experience assessed the quality of the students’ output on the basis of audio recordings made during the task. The interpreters’ performance was assessed as good.*

In the overall MWL, mental demand, performance and effort (three out of the six sub-scales included) were rated as comparatively high (high performance MWL means that the students were not

too happy with the quality of their output), while temporal demand was rated as medium (meaning that they felt some time pressure, but not an excessively high pressure – it would be interesting to see how they would feel when doing simultaneous), and physical demand and frustration were low.

Interpreting quality was significantly correlated with brain activations in three areas, the left middle temporal gyrus, the left inferior temporal gyrus, and the left inferior frontal gyrus.

The score for mental demand in the questionnaire was negatively correlated with quality score (i.e., the higher the demand, the lower the quality).

The frustration score was significantly related to the quality score, which suggests negative bias in the students' self-assessment of their performance.

A statistical analysis (Bayes factor analysis) showed that the most powerful model linking WML with quality scores variables was one with a single WML component: mental demand or workload, that is, the cognitive resources and effort required to perform the task.

The data suggests that advancing mental demand was associated with increasing brain activation and with decreasing performance. The authors recall that reduced cognitive effort (through automation of processes) is associated with decreased brain activation. They "cautiously infer that the data provide empirical evidence in support of Gile's Effort Model".

ZHONG, Qiaoji; YAO, Guangyuan; LIU, Belen Bilin. 2024. Norms in English-to-Chinese Live Broadcast Simultaneous Interpreting: A Case Study on the 2020 United States Vice-presidential Debate. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies* 30:3. 18-37. September 2024 <http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2024-3003-02>

**The title of the paper is slightly misleading. What the authors do is discuss flaws, both minor and major, in the output of a live simultaneously interpreted debate between Mike Pence and Kamala Harris on October 7, 2020, and speculate about the reasons for which the output contained omissions, errors and clumsy language. They do so with examples.*

M.A. AND GRADUATION THESES

Dubocage, Kristýna. 2024. *Glosáře: důležitá součást tlumočnické přípravy (Glossaries: an important part of interpreter preparation)*, MA thesis - in Czech. September 2024, Charles University, dir.prof. Ivana Čeňková.

**Abstract:*

This theoretical-empirical master's thesis deals with the preparation of interpreters for interpreting assignments, and glossaries as the outputs of the interpreter preparation. The objective was to discover what techniques interpreters use to prepare themselves and create glossaries, and also to compare these techniques with those of students preparing for interpreting seminars.

The theoretical part focuses on the classification of preparation, the description of interpreter glossaries, and student glossaries created as part of the examination requirements at the Institute of Translation Studies in Prague. It also includes an illustrative description of the basic functions of selected software applications for creating glossaries, otherwise known as computer-assisted interpreting tools (CAI tools). The theoretical part concludes with findings and results of empirical studies on interpreter preparation and glossaries.

The empirical part presents the results of mixed research conducted through two questionnaires administered to Czech and foreign interpreters and students from the Institute of Translation Studies in Prague, and universities abroad. Findings relate to the form and content of interpreter and student glossaries, what types of documents interpreters receive from clients before the assignment, and what other information sources they exploit.

The results show that students use printed sources, such as dictionaries and encyclopaedias, less for preparation, and rely more on electronic tools, such as online dictionaries and ChatGPT, compared to

professional interpreters. It was also found that students from the Institute of Translation Studies, where no specific course is dedicated expressly to CAI tools, have less knowledge of CAI tools for preparation and glossary creation compared to students from universities abroad. (IC)

Ekici, Enes. 2022. *Perception of remote interpreting technologies by conference interpreters in Turkey.* MA thesis, Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey.

**In an introductory part, the author retraces the history of remote conference interpreting. Seven experienced professional interpreters were interviewed by the author (6 of them online) about their experience of Remote Interpreting. Their testimony mostly confirms what is published elsewhere in the literature, but also highlights some interesting points:*

- Remote interpreting (RI) is perceived as tiring and stressful. But more than half of the respondents considered it did not put their health at risk (DG: According to recent studies reported by AIIC, health issues do arise)*
 - Technical conditions are often sub-optimal, including internet connections and microphones used by delegates, with suboptimal sound quality. Referring to the Effort Models, the author says that such conditions impose a higher effort in the Listening Effort. Respondents felt they were expected to take responsibility for technical aspects of their assignment, something which they leave to technicians when working onsite.*
 - Interpreters miss the on-site feeling of 'being there', of socializing with colleagues, but some see an advantage in being able to work from home without having to travel and spend much time away from home. This is a plus for mothers of young children. However, they are concerned about not having an opportunity to meet with speakers and other stakeholders before the event.*
 - Interpreters reported that they need to use several devices so as to be able to communicate with their remote 'boothmates' and thus need to manage multiple devices (Human Machine Interaction Effort in a recent version of the Effort Models – see for example a PowerPoint on the CIRIN site).*
 - Interestingly, the respondents reported that in Remote Interpreting, organizers tended to fill time slots with as many speakers as possible, thus depriving the organizers of breaks which are customary in onsite events.*
 - Respondents also felt pressure on the part of clients to remunerate them on an hourly or half-day basis, as opposed to full days in onsite conferences.*
 - They also reported the need to equip themselves with high-quality devices and internet to ensure appropriate working conditions as extra costs they have to bear.*
 - Interestingly, some respondents felt that Remote Interpreting made them more visible to participants than on-site simultaneous interpreting, as evidenced by the more frequent expressions of acknowledgment received from participants (about half of them), as opposed to rare acknowledgment when working from a booth onsite.*
- *DG: This text is 'only' an MA thesis and the number of interviews is small, but it illustrates the fact that even such humble research projects can contribute interesting data and enrich our perception of phenomena of interest.*

Glazarová, Jana Anna. 2024. *Testování tvrdých a měkkých tlumočnických dovedností Případová studie: Přijímací řízení na EMCI univerzitách (Testing Hard and Soft Interpreting Skills. A Case Study: Admission Testing on EMCI Universities),* MA thesis - in Czech. September 2024, Charles University, dir. prof. Ivana Čeňková.

** This theoretical-empirical master thesis focuses on hard and soft skills and aptitudes in interpreting and their testing during university entrance exams to master programmes in interpreting. The theoretical part of this thesis describes and explains the difference between hard and soft skills in interpreting, and also maps out their existing research and testing methods. The empirical part focuses on soft interpreting skills. The research is conducted in the form of a case study and focuses on*

universities that are part of the EMCI Consortium's training programme in the academic year 2023/2024. Using an open-ended questionnaire, it reached out to coordinators of interpreting master programmes at EMCI universities to map the design of the entrance exams process and their assessment criteria. The analysis also focuses on possible changes caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, on the way soft interpreting skills are tested, and the percentage of students in their programmes who pass them. The findings showed that universities take soft interpreting skills into account in their entrance exams, but do not have fixed criteria by which to assess them. (IC)

Ribeiro, Nadia Maria Fonseca Campos. 2024. *3,2,1 ao vivo! Disfluências e refazimentos em interpretação de conferência remota de libras para português.* (Disfluencies and repairs in remote conference interpreting from Brazilian Sign Language into Portuguese). MA thesis, Universidade Federal do Ceará, Fortaleza, Brazil.

**See the Signed Language Interpreting Section. The reason why this thesis is also listed in the (spoken) Conference Interpreting Section is that it addresses SLI in a conference interpreting-like setting, something which is frequent in Brazilian SLI literature, apparently much more so than in any other country.*

Žačiková, Veronica. 2024. *Přesnost automatických titulků generovaných platformou Zoom – je na ně spoleh?* (The accuracy of automated captions generated by Zoom – are they reliable?) MA thesis - in Czech. September 2024, Charles University, dir. Mgr. Kateřina Ešnerová

**This master's thesis deals with automated captions on the videoconference platform ZOOM. It aims to examine how automated captions can help interpreters and whether they are accurate enough for the remote interpreters to rely on. The theoretical part delves into topics such as automated captions, ASR technology, simultaneous interpreting, remote interpreting, and simultaneous interpreting with text. Special attention is given to the cognitive load that interpreters experience while interpreting. The theoretical part concludes by summarizing existing research to date in the field of interpreting with automated captions – how automated captions impact interpreters' cognitive load, but also in which ways they can be helpful. The empirical part aims to determine the accuracy of Zoom's automated captions in three different languages (Czech, English, and Spanish) using the NER metrics. The research focuses on overall accuracy as well as the accuracy in pre-established categories (names, abbreviations, acronyms, numbers, terms, enumerations and negations), in which the author deems automated captions might be helpful to interpreters. The results show that the overall accuracy in all examined languages is high (averaging 95%) and the automated captions also steadily achieve high accuracy in certain categories (such as local names, lower numbers and terms). However, the automated captions show different negative tendencies in different languages (for example, Spanish captions do not contain punctuation, signs and capital letters; Czech captions use words to transcribe numbers instead of digits). (IC)*

DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS

DU, Zhiqiang. 2024. *Bridging the gap exploring the cognitive impact of Interpretbank on Chinese interpreting trainees.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Bologna, Italy.

**The author explored experimentally the benefits of using Interpretbank in 22 graduate interpreting students from 3 Chinese universities. The source materials were transcripts of popular science podcasts, which informants used to compile glossaries. There were three 'cycles', in pretest-posttest design, with remote data collection through screen recording, keylogging and surveys. The independent variable was the use of either Excel or Interpretbank, and a rich array of indicators about the production and use of the glossaries were studied. Various indicators suggest an overall positive*

impact of Interpretbank over the use of Excel for glossary preparation and use, as well as an overall positive impact as regards accurate rendition of specific terms that were selected for study, but the differences were not spectacular. The advantages of Interpretbank for the interpreting skills acquisition process were not investigated. Neither were the advantages and drawbacks of the software for interpreting by professionals with mature skills and more experience in the use of Interpretbank. But for the author, who is well aware of the limitations of the setup, the study was exploratory, and it was successful in demonstrating the feasibility of the methods used, and in particular in remote interpreting settings.

**DG: The literature review is clear and pleasant to read, especially the parts on working memory, on cognitive effort, on neural activations in the brain, on situated cognition, on chunking. The presentation of Interpretbank for readers who are not familiar with it is also well-written. The results part is difficult to read in one flow because of the high density of information. However, for researchers looking for information about specific aspects of the use of Interpretbank by the students, it can serve as a source of references, which will become more useful when further studies are done with experienced users of this and other CAI pieces of software.*

BOOKS

Anokhina, Tetiana. O. & Kobyakiva, Irina. 2024. ТЕОРІЯ І ПРАКТИКА УСНОГО ПЕРЕКЛАДУ (АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА). *Interpreting. Theory and practice*. Суми Сумський державний університет. Sumy State University, Ukraine.

**A short textbook (just over 150 pages) on interpreting, which includes inter alia statements about interpreting, interpreting techniques and in particular consecutive and note-taking, classifications of speeches, exercises, links to recorded interviews. I found some of its content puzzling, in spite of many references to the Western Interpreting Studies literature (with references not necessarily matching the ideas and statements they were supposed to back). Are the authors interpreters? Readers should make up their own mind – the full text, in English except for short passages, is available on ResearchGate.*

>>>Mellinger, Christopher D. (ed) 2025. *The Routledge Handbook of Interpreting and Cognition*. London and New York: Routledge.

**Though not entirely dedicated to conference interpreting, many of its chapters either address it directly or are relevant to conference interpreting. This was an ambitious project for a single editor, and it is successful, with many interesting, informative chapters. One unfortunate chapter spoils the picture somewhat. The following is a list of the chapters with mostly just a few words on each, sometimes as a comment, and sometimes as a pointer to what can be found in each or to ideas that I found particularly useful.*

Muñoz Martín, Ricardo and Tiselius, Elisabet. 2025. Written words speak as loud. On the cognitive differences between translation and interpreting. In Mellinger (ed). 36-45.

**The authors revisit the traditional distinction between (written) translation and interpreting on a cognitive basis. They look at task granularity, at philosophical and neurolinguistic foundations, and talk about emerging trends.*

Alves, Fabio & da Silva, Igor Antônio Lourenço. 2025. Expertise in interpreting as an interlingual reformulation skill. Bridging concepts and revisiting paradigms. In Mellinger (ed). 46-71.

**The starting point of this papers is the notion of interlingual reformulation as a neurocognitive activity. They discuss it mainly in terms of expertise, and in particular working memory skills.*

Defrancq, Bart. 2025. The dark load of simultaneous interpreting. Interpreters doing it to themselves? In Mellinger (ed). 96-114.

** Defrancq's main claim in this chapter seems to be that in research into simultaneous interpreting, the role of production as a contributor to cognitive load has been overlooked.*

Has it? The whole point in calling for a norm of work in simultaneous into A rather than into B from the 1960s on, while accepting consecutive into B, is based on the idea that while in consecutive, acceptable output in one's B language is possible, under the conditions of simultaneous, one's B language output breaks down. Production tactics (generally referred to as "strategies" in the literature) are widely discussed in the literature with reference to cognitive load (inter alia in Basic Concepts and Models 1995/2009) and to its effects (especially so in Pournin-Pointurier's 2014 analysis of signed language interpreters' responses to cognitive load). In particular, authors speak about the cognitive load-reducing role of some of them. Other authors refer to the effects of cognitive load in production on sentence structure, including atypical sentence structures, reduction of dependency distance etc. And about production choices as a function of cognitive load, as illustrated in Chmiel's, Gumul's and Kuang and Zheng's chapters in this collection (!).

Does this tally with Defrancq's statement that "the features of interpretation are used as a dependent variable determined by the load conditions of the input, not as a cause of cognitive load in itself" (p. 106)? How can he conclude that "different strategies contribute differently to production load, and these differences should be charted and taken into account" (p. 109) as if this idea was new, without acknowledging what has been done over the years on this topic?

Another point: Defrancq mainly relies for his assessments on research on dual linguistic tasks. But simultaneous interpreting involves much more than a dual linguistic tasks, and much cognitive load depends on non-linguistic situational and communicational factors. How much do highly controlled dual-linguistic task experiments account for? This in itself would be a genuine research question. In another (good) paper published with SHAO and listed earlier in this issue of the Bulletin, he suggests that since results obtained in their study diverge from those found in the psychological literature, it might be necessary to rethink theories so as to better take into account the specifics of interpreting. Could he perhaps heed his own advice as regards interpreting "as a dual-linguistic task"?

And statistics again: Defrancq claims that "advanced statistical methods can determine the contribution of output strategies to the overall load" (p.109). Statistics are not endowed with divine powers. They can help when good experimental designs provide a solid foundation for comparisons provided variability is not too high and enough data are available to control and/or assess the effects of the numerous factors that determine significantly performance and cognitive load. Even the most sophisticated cars will not take you anywhere when no roads are available. Walking can be more efficient.

Finally, Defrancq's misrepresentation and criticism of existing models are creative, but not quite in line with what they are and say.

Where were the peer reviewers when this text was submitted?

Babcock, Laura. 2025. Interpreting, Bilingualism, and Language Control. In Mellinger (ed.). 116-133.

**A clear, interesting and informative chapter about the input from Bilingualism studies into Interpreting Studies. Babcock explains the important concepts of inhibitory control, of the so-called bilingual advantage, an alleged cognitive advantage that bilinguals acquire because of the need to control which language they use. A particularly important point that Babcock makes (p.127) is that interpreting is qualitatively different from bilingual activities in general. Perhaps Defrancq should read this chapter?*

Jourdenais, Renée. 2025. Interpreting and second-language acquisition. In Mellinger (ed.). 135-145.

**The author discusses a few of the shared areas of research interests in Interpreting Studies and Second Language Acquisition. An interesting point she makes, which is not often referred to in the literature, is the relevance of traits such as motivation and anxiety. Another, even more interesting point, is that in strict linguistic proficiency terms, many interpreters are not very good, though they may have been operating successfully in the marketplace over many years. This is probably not true for conference interpreters, but still provides food for thought.*

>>>**Hervais-Adelman, Alexis.** 2025. Interpreting and neuroscience. In Mellinger (ed.). 147-170.

**Clear explanations and interesting observations, and descriptions of methodological tools used. The cognitive neuroscientific approach to investigating SI can be described as efforts to identify cerebral systems involved in executing SI and to set those areas in the context about what is already known about their implications in other cognitive functions (p.147). Executive functions broadly include shifting between tasks or mental sets, updating and monitoring memory representations, and inhibitions of some responses (p. 149). A brain area critical for speech production is Broca's area, and a brain area critical for speech comprehension is Wernicke's area (p. 150). Language control demands of SI are handled by brain structures whose functions are not usually considered linguistic in nature (p.158). There is considerable diversity in findings on the neurobiology of SI (p. 158). The study of the neuroscience of interpreting has a long way to go.*

>>>**Colina, Sonia.** 2025. Interpreting, phonetics and phonology. In Mellinger (ed.). 172-192.

**An interesting idea: Regarding processing limitations, the more native the command of the phonology, ...the more automated processing will be, freeing up cognitive space for other aspects of the interpreting task. Colina offers relevant observations regarding directionality and the status of A vs. B languages: A case can be made for focusing on phonological acquisition/training in order to improve performance beyond pronunciation (p.181). Understanding fast speech in a non-native language or unfamiliar dialect can at times be more challenging than pronouncing a second language. Some dialectal and non-native varieties can be difficult even for native speakers (Liu et al. 2013) (p.182). Attrition can affect first language competence (especially when the bilingual is in an immersive second language environment that limits the use of the first language; thus, the recommendation to interpret into one's first/native language is problematic, as the native language may no longer be the dominant language at the time of interpreting (p.182). Someone may 'sound' native but not possess the syntactic or semantic competence that some monolinguals would consider native, often due to reduced input/exposure (Valdès, 2005). For instance, interpreting into the second language may be preferable in the case of an interpreter who has an accent (that is comprehensible), but who also has the ability to understand an unusual dialect (p.183). Some interpreter training has not placed sufficient emphasis on pronunciation instruction (p. 183). Attrition deserves attention. It has not been studied sufficiently.*

This reviewer agrees with many of these observations, but wonders whether it is phonological processing rather than availability in general that is most vulnerable.

Hanson, Thomas. 2025. Interpreting and psychometrics. In Mellinger (ed.). 192-217.

**The chapter summarizes key theories and principles and properties of psychometrics and discusses their applications in IS, in particular as regards aptitude testing, certification exams and psychological traits.*

Kogan, Boris & García, Adolfo. 2025. The linguistic phenotype of multilinguals with interpreting experience. In Mellinger (ed.). 220-240.

**This paper uses input from neurolinguistic research. It points out in particular that heightened sentence comprehension skills might be visible from the early stages of SI practice (p, 224), that multilinguals with interpreting experience (MIEs) seem advantaged in general comprehension, error detection, word anticipation and lexico-semantic integration (p. 225), that SI expertise may be related to greater lexical knowledge, fluency and language recognition skills, which may be driven by the continual need to retrieve specific words under pressing time constraints (p.225). that MIEs seem to have a distinct linguistic phenotype for some linguistic dimensions, excluding other tasks such as picture naming or word reading (p.230).*

LIU, Minhua & LIOU, Nannan. 2025. Cognition and interpreting aptitude. In Mellinger (ed.). 241-261.

**A systematic overview, which also mentions the potential input of neural science to the issues at hand.*

Albl-Mikasa, Michaela & Gieshoff, Catherine. 2025. Non-standard input in interpreting (research). In Mellinger (ed.). 262-285.

**What is (linguistically) “standard” input? Linguistic variability is a fact, and every comprehender’s perception of what is standard and what is not is relative. The two authors discuss these points, focusing on the use of ELF, English as a Foreign Language, and its implications.*

Ferreira, Aline & Schwieter, John W. 2025. Interpreting and language comprehension. In Mellinger (ed.). 287-303.

**The authors start with a reminder of some basics. Language comprehension is an extremely complex and demanding procedure that requires “the direction of attentional resources to the message of interest, concomitant with the suppression of any interferences arising from distracting sources (Hertrich et al., 2016)” (p.287). In their chapter, they address fundamental issues from the perspective of bilingualism and discuss empirical studies. They warn that no sweeping assumptions can be made due to the low number of participants in the studies. They also note that such studies frequently analyze data from participants who may not have the required bilingual competence to perform interpreting.*

Tiselius, Elisabet. 2025. Interpreting and language proficiency. In Mellinger (ed.). 305-322.

**Tiselius endeavors to clarify the many conceptualizations of language proficiency to improve teaching and testing of future interpreters. She also mentions methodological challenges.*

Herring, Rachel E. 2025. Interpreting, metacognition, and self-regulation. In Mellinger (ed.). 323-342.

**A concise primer.*

WANG, Jihong. 2025. Interpreting and memory. In Mellinger (ed.). 344-367.

**Mostly about Working Memory, and the very central question of the relationship between working memory operation level and interpreting skills. Noteworthy: Macnamara and Conwat (2014, 2016) found that 2 years of sign-language interpreting training enhanced some cognitive skills, but not the storage and processing type of WM, which suggests that SLI training only enhances specific cognitive abilities that are actively engaged and heavily taxed during SI (p.355). This resonates with similar ideas found in research on spoken language interpreting and its effects on cognitive skills.*

Chmiel, Agnieszka. 2025. Interpreting and language production. In Mellinger (ed.) 369-389.

**A clearly very important topic, just as interpreting and language comprehension, especially against the background of strong cognitive constraints during SI. Inter alia, Chmiel mentions the possibility of interpreters resorting to the most literal translanguistic equivalent or to structural priming in syntactic production (p.376), as illustrated by an experimental study with trainees (p. 377).*

Rojo López, Ana María and Foulquié Rubio, Ana Isabel. 2025. Interpreting, affect and emotion. In Mellinger (ed.) 391-412.

**After an interesting introduction to the conceptualization and research of/on emotions, the authors recall the main topics related to affect and emotion which have been addressed in the literature. They focus on stress and anxiety. They also mention the effect of trauma in public service interpreting.*

Milošević, Jelena & Risku, Hanna. 2025. Interpreting and embodied cognition. In Mellinger (ed.). 413-434.

**For a number of years, some scholars have been calling for an extended view of cognition, beyond rule-based manipulation of mental representations in the brain and including physiological, social and even physical-environment factors. They acknowledge (p. 418) that “we are not able to show either theoretically or empirically if and how cognition is actually embodied”, but the assumed theoretical foundation shapes the research agenda in fundamental ways. Definitely thought-provoking, especially if research findings about the effect of working conditions and working environments are striking enough and convincing enough to change something in the interpreting market, where it sometimes seems that the most influential driving force by far is economic/financial rather than the desire to optimize interpreting quality.*

Gumul, Ewa. 2025. Explicitation and cognition. In Mellinger (ed.) 435-454.

**Gumul starts with an overview which relies heavily on written translation, for which, historically speaking, explicitation was first singled out as a translation-specific phenomenon. She points out that consecutive notes are a good source of information, as they make it possible to identify the stage at which shifts originate. She believes that the Effort Models are particularly useful when investigating explicitation during interpreting. She adds that explicitation can be a response to cognitive load, but also that it may increase cognitive load (p. 444). She notes that Wehrmeyer also found that additions increased cognitive load that led to errors, omissions and reduced text coherence (p. 444). She also notes the usefulness of retrospection in identifying deliberate choices in interpreting in spite of its limitations, and can help avoid false judgements when assessing the causes of explicitation (p. 448).*

Korpál, Pawel & Mellinger, Christopher D. 2025. Interpreting and individual differences. In Mellinger (ed.). 456-475.

**The authors discuss personality traits, and note that empirical research does not provide a clearly defined set of personality traits that are predominant in interpreters, or a set of traits that is strongly correlated with success in interpreting. They also note that the investigation of individual differences requires methods other than a multiplication of statistical investigations. Perhaps, as they summarize it, a shift from ANOVA (analysis of variance) to regression analysis.*

Marin García, Álvaro. 2025. Interpreting and moral cognition. In Mellinger (ed.). 477-495.

**'Moral cognition' is also referred to as "moral psychology". It is concerned with the role of motivation in moral judgment, and includes a focus on underlying neural and psychological processes.*

KUANG, Huolingxiao & ZHENG, Bingham. 2025. Interpreting and note-taking. In Mellinger (ed.). 497-515.

**In their introduction, the authors state that note-taking requires interpreters to expend significant cognitive resources on information storage and information processing and physical resources to complete the note-taking. They also note that a micro-propositional approach in note-taking is found both among students and professional interpreters, to save effort. This effort-saving approach also characterizes target speech production (e.g., Liang et al, 2019). The authors recommend, on the basis of existing findings, that researchers should move away from assuming note-taking principles towards testing what is efficient in note-taking (p. 502). Another point, related to the analysis of note-taking, is a citation of Reif (2008), for whom "cognitive load" refers to what is demanded by a task, and "cognitive effort" what is actually invested by the task performer (p. 505). This reviewer has been making this point for several years now and is happy to see that support is beginning to rally around it.*

CHEN, Sijia & Doherty, Stephen. 2025. Interpreting and technologies. In Mellinger (ed.). 516-534.

**The authors divide technologies relevant to interpreting into those that support interpreting practice and those that are used in interpreter training and provide overviews for both.*

Díaz-Galaz, Stephanie & Winston, Elizabeth A. 2025. Interpreting, training, and education. In Mellinger (ed.). 535-561.

**In their overview, the authors cover both spoken language interpreting and signed language interpreting. Without referring explicitly to Seleskovitch's claim that interpreter training should come in downstream of language acquisition, which is reasonable for conference interpreter training but not for spoken public service interpreting or signed language interpreting, they state realistically that "One way to avoid turning interpreter training courses into language learning courses is to adapt the complexity of interpreting exercises to the linguistic proficiency of students, which makes it possible to gradually aim for increased complexity of the exercises as the students keep progressing in their language skills. (p. 547-548).*

VIDEOS

Just three examples of videos on interpreting

Gillies, Andy on AI in interpreting on Youtube <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=o7VkMC0IGWA>
On the UniHeidelberg Channel

Gile, Daniel on cognitive challenges in interpreting, in English with simultaneous interpreting into Cantonese Sign Language, on the Youtube Channel of Centre for Translation, Hong Kong BaptistU https://youtu.be/dKm_t0WfyFM?si=-7G7Vo_mhZ25yg1H

Setton, Robin on Artificial Communication: AI and Interpreting on the Youtube Channel of Centre for Translation, Hong Kong BaptistU <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pzs15Ykou9k&t=1277s>

... AND BEYOND CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

SIGNED LANGUAGE INTERPRETING

ARTICLES

Jerkovic, Tiana (Univ. of Graz). 2024. Space, body and presence. An analytical framework for remote interpreting. *Interpreting* 26:2. 201-230.

**Conceptual categorization, which includes signed language interpreting and virtual reality*

McDermid, Campbell; Humphrey, Carrie; Harding, Anita (Gallaudet University). 2024. Evidence for Explication: Working from ASL into English. *Journal of Interpretation (RID)* 32:1. Article 5.

** Twenty-two certified hearing signed language interpreters were asked to interpret in the simultaneous mode into English 4 short stories (from a bit over 30 seconds to slightly less than a minute) signed in ASL. The output was compared to the input with regard to shifts indicating explication (and some implicitation as well). There were many cases, which the authors divided into categories on the basis of classifications offered in the literature, by Klaudy in particular.*

Explication included adding coordinating conjunction (“so”), discourse markers (“finally”, politeness markers, possessive adjectives, subordinating conjunctions, substitute words, shifting from the second person in the signed speech to the third person in the English rendition, adding verbs (“I go college” in ASL to “I was able to go visit some colleges. Compression was also done on agent, object and speaker stance, and there were substitutions. Explication through expansion seems to be an integral part of the participants’ rendition, especially as regards the addition of connectives. Clearly, renditions were not literal. It is reasonable to assume that explication was often used to make the target speech easier to understand or culturally/socially more appropriate (as regards the addition of politeness markers, but it would have been nice to check this through immediate cued retrospection. A related question is whether some or all of the explication and implicitation shifts were deliberate, as opposed to subconscious.

**DG: Once again, it may be worthwhile recalling, for those authors who treat interpreting as a “dual language task”, that it involves much more than what laboratory experiments on bilingualism can tell us, and in particular communication stakes-based decision-making which involves many extra-linguistic factors. Findings solely based on laboratory experiments on bilingualism can be misleading if used to explain shifts in the output of interpreters.*

THESES

Ribeiro, Nadia Maria Fonseca Campos. 2024. *3,2,1 ao vivo! Disfluências e refazimentos em interpretação de conferência remota de libras para português*. (Disfluencies and repairs in remote conference interpreting from Brazilian Sign Language into Portuguese). MA thesis, Universidade Federal do Ceará, Fortaleza, Brazil.

**Basically, in spite of the title, this thesis is not about remote interpreting and disfluencies. It is a discussion of interpreting competence. It also offers a literature review and overview of signed language interpreter training and research in Brazil in the tradition of the PACTE model and its Brazilian versions.*

Disfluencies come in as a phenomenon observed during an academic event hosted on YouTube with interpreting with three sign languages and one spoken language. No data are actually presented.

OTHER INTERPRETING-RELATED PUBLICATIONS

Amato, A.; Spinolo, N.; González Rodríguez, M. J. (eds). 2018. *Handbook of remote interpreting*. SHIFT. Shaping the interpreters of the Future and of today. www.shiftinorality.eu

**This handbook, produced with the support of the European Commission, is essentially about public service interpreting. It presents short, practical papers in 5 sections: General Background (5 papers), Telephone interpreting (3 papers), Video-mediated interpreting (3 papers), Basic requirements and prerequisite for successful communication with remote interpreting (1 paper), Teaching materials 2 papers), in a total of 169 pages, which includes many illustrations and examples. Many of the authors are well-known in the field. Note 7 contributions of authors from the University of Bologna, Forlì campus and 5 from the University of Surrey (by Braun and Davitti). The handbook was published more than 6 years ago and the technology used for remote interpreting has progressed spectacularly since then, but the principles explained remain relevant.*

HAN, Lili; WEN, Zhisheng (Edward); Runcieman, Alan James. 2023. *Interpreting as Translanguaging. Theory, Research and Practice*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge Elements, Translation and Interpreting.

** In about 50 pages, the authors analyze interpreting as translanguaging and vice-versa and show how translanguaging theory and research can be applied to public service interpreting*

In ScienceDirect, translanguaging is defined as the practice of bilinguals accessing different linguistic features or modes of various languages to enhance communication, focusing on speakers' practices and identities rather than on language structures.

The link with interpreting appears clearly on p. 17, where the authors conceptualize the interpreting process as a social-cognitive activity. Another interesting concept is that of 'moments', points in time or time segments that have particular significance, which is used by the authors in the analysis of note-taking, with examples. They also refer to translanguaging in public service interpreting, and to its introduction in interpreter training.

**DG: After reading this short, but very interesting booklet, this reviewer perceives translanguaging as a general approach that endeavors to push linguistic boundaries back and be as inclusive and possible, rather than offer a 'consolidated' theory. In practical terms, it may be better suited to research and training in spoken language public service interpreting and in signed language interpreting than in spoken language conference interpreting, but future developments will tell us more.*

Kostková, Kristýna. 2024. *Tluočení pro ukrajinské uprchlíky – případová studie (Interpreting for Ukrainian Refugees - case study)*, MA thesis - in Czech. September 2024, Charles University, dir. prof. Ivana Čeňková.

**The master thesis "Interpreting for Ukrainian Refugees: a case study" focuses on mapping the current situation in community interpreting, specifically in interpreting for war refugees. The theoretical part describes the nature of community interpreting, current trends, ethical issues of interpreting, the differences between interpreting in a conflict zone and in a host country, training of community interpreters with a focus on interpreting in conflict situations, the current situation of interpreting for refugees in several European countries including the Czech Republic, and the psycho-hygiene of interpreters.*

The empirical part, which is based on the information contained in the theoretical part, focuses on the organization and quality of interpreting, language and interpreting skills of professional and volunteer interpreters, interpreter training and psychological support in the Regional Assistance Centres for Ukraine (KACPU). The methodology used is a combination of qualitative research in the form of semi-structured interviews and quantitative research in the form of a questionnaire survey. The results

obtained should serve as a basis for concrete recommendations for practice when interpreters cooperate with assistance cent for refugees.

The empirical part based on the answers of the interviewees brought interesting findings; it showed for example, that many interpreters in the respective aid centres had university degrees, but not education in interpreting, and faced psychological stress and lack of interpreting experience and knowledge about working with war refugees. Many respondents rated the organization of interpreting in the assistance centres as generally positive, but there were a few points where they would like to see change - among suggestions for improving the future operation of the centres, respondents mentioned, among other things, more careful selection of interpreters and their training. (IC)

>>>Longo, Luca; Wickens, Christopher D.; Hancock, Gabriella; Hancock, P. A. 2023. Human Mental Workload: A Survey and a Novel Inclusive Definition. *Frontiers in Psychology* 13:883321. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.883321

* This review article of the state of the art in the study of mental workload, in which something like 1,500 publications were reviewed addresses many points very relevant to reflection and studies on what has been referred to as “cognitive load” in interpreting studies, points which deserve to be stressed.

Human Mental Workload (MWL) is a complex construct which, in very rough terms, refers to how taxing a human task is. It is intimately connected to both attention and effort. The term ‘mental workload’ is often used to broadly encompassing the demands imposed on users, the effort experienced by operators to meet those demands, as well as the consequences of attempting to meet those demands. Mental workload can be intuitively defined as the total cognitive work needed to accomplish a specific task in a finite time period, but despite many years of research, offering a universally/generalisable and acceptable definition of the construct remains challenging. What is clear is that it is a multidimensional construct that originates from the interaction between a task and a “subject”, and that it represents the load that a particular task imposes on a particular operator/performer when the operator seeks to achieve a specific level of performance. In their definitions. Haga et al. (2002) and Saleem et al. (2009) argue that mental/cognitive effort, memory, cognitive and information processing capacity can be grouped under one unified aspect, referred to as “human attentional resources”. The criticality of time is expressed clearly in Carswell’s definition which describes mental workload as the ratio of the mental resources required to the total resources available, on a moment-to-moment basis. This is a key point because it clearly establishes that mental workload varies over time, when task demand fluctuates on a moment-to-moment basis, which is the case during interpreting, especially in the simultaneous mode and in the listening phrase of the consecutive mode. Mental workload is a person-specific construct, and it is influenced, for instance, by the skill set, past knowledge, mental capacity and alertness of each individual.

According to the authors, the key objective of measuring mental workload is to quantify the mental cost of performing tasks in order to predict operator (the human performing the task) and system responses. It is widely understood that there are three main classes of measures of mental workload: self-report measures, physiological (and neurophysiological) measures, and primary task performance measures.

Multidimensional ratings (the most popular being the NASA-TLX) are generally considered to have high sensitivity and diagnosticity (the ability to identify causes of variation), low levels of intrusiveness and convergent validity, as well as moderate concurrent validity. The key limitation of performance measures (e.g., interpreting quality) is their inability to distinguish the sources of variation in mental workload, when multiple tasks are executed simultaneously, as is the case in interpreting. As regards physiological measurements, a key drawback of pupillometry is that it is unresponsive after overload occurs. A novel neuro-physiological method that is gaining attention in the field of mental workload modeling is functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS). This is a non-

invasive, brain imaging technology that employs low levels of non-ionizing light to record variations in cerebral activity. Through the application of optical sensors placed on the scalp, similarly to electroencephalography, it records changes in blood flow that can be used to investigate the evolution of brain activation during various tasks.

**DG: Much information, much food for thought.*

* * *

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