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DIDÁCTICA Y EVALUACIÓN DE LA TRADUCCIÓN E INTERPRETACIÓN ESPECIALIZADA

Ondřej Klabal y Beatriz de la Fuente Marina (eds.)

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Didáctica y evaluación de la traducción e interpretación especializada

Teaching and Evaluation of Specialized Translation and Interpreting

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Del mismo modo que no existen parques zoológicos en cuyas jaulas una placa indique «animal», ni jardines botánicos con etiquetas que digan «planta», no hay traducción sin especialización.

Anthony Pym

INTRODUCCIÓN

Aunque en los últimos años se han incrementado notablemente las publicaciones y los proyectos de investigación centrados en la traducción e interpretación especializada, sigue siendo un ámbito en el que se cuenta comparativamente con menos propuestas que aborden la didáctica y la evaluación. Y ello a pesar de que el perfil de traductor o intérprete especializado es atractivo para el alumnado y también cuenta con salidas en el mundo profesional.

Los desafíos para la traducción e interpretación en este campo son notables: constante evolución de las disciplinas, géneros híbridos, textos fuertemente formalizados, terminología especializada y neológica, etc. A ello se suman los condicionantes impuestos por las nuevas tecnologías (de manera determinante, las herramientas de traducción automática neuronal) y el predominio del inglés como lingua franca, que, entre otras cosas, favorecen el uso de la revisión y de la posedición y, en algunos casos, pueden afectar al volumen de encargos.

La nueva realidad impone una docencia que, en la medida de lo posible, se adapte a las competencias profesionales que demanda un mercado laboral siempre cambiante. Hay consenso en que, si bien es fundamental conocer las materias de trabajo, no se deben descuidar las competencias específicas que proporcionen al estudiante un conjunto de herramientas y estrategias polivalentes que le permitan afrontar con soltura futuras situaciones profesionales diversas, incluso en tareas que rebasan la esfera de la traducción y la interpretación.

Los artículos recogidos en este volumen proponen una serie de metodologías docentes y evaluadoras enfocadas a ese objetivo. En ese sentido, no son solo artículos de investigación, sino que contribuyen a salvar la brecha entre teoría y práctica, muchas veces apuntada en los estudios que nos ocupan. Asimismo, varias de las investigaciones apuestan por superar la excesiva categorización, que opone la traducción general a la especializada y, dentro de esta, distingue por ejemplo la traducción biosanitaria de la jurídica, la económica de la científica, la audiovisual de la literaria, etc.

El trabajo por proyectos que presentan en su artículo Maite Veiga Díaz y Marta García González parte de una experiencia docente real. Uno de sus objetivos era que el estudiante aprendiera a planificar su trabajo y a colaborar con los compañeros de manera similar a lo que exigen los entornos profesionales, superando precisamente los compartimentos estancos en los que se suele dividir el saber. Así, diseñaron un proyecto de traducción interdisciplinar en las áreas de la economía y la estadística y lo evaluaron con una rúbrica de cinco criterios, con resultados positivos que avalarían la inclusión de esta metodología en los planes de estudios de traducción e interpretación.

También en el ámbito de la economía, y concretamente en el sector vitivinícola, María Pascual Cabrerizo y Gloria Martínez Lanzán resaltan la multiplicidad de géneros y temas, así como los diferentes niveles de especialización que caracterizan a los textos de esta área. Las autoras examinan cuáles de estos géneros ofrecerían más posibilidades didácticas para su futura aplicación tanto en los grados de traducción e interpretación como en cursos y talleres, y seleccionan la monografía divulgativa, la ficha técnica y la nota de cata. Con estos textos se plantean distintas actividades para la formación del alumnado, como son la identificación comparada (inglés-español) de elementos macro- y microestructurales; la creación de *corpora* de textos paralelos; ejercicios con recursos terminológicos y lexicográficos, sin perder de vista la traducción y la revisión colaborativa de secciones de textos, con la correspondiente retroalimentación del profesor.

Fernando Sánchez Rodas y Gloria Corpas Pastor se centran en un aspecto concreto que, sin duda, debe dominar el traductor especializado: la búsqueda documental y terminológica, asociada al manejo de medios técnicos. Aplican una conocida herramienta de *software*, *Interactive Terminology for Europe* (IATE), el sistema de gestión terminológica de la Unión Europea (en este caso en su versión de descarga), a un problema concreto, la traducción de la onomástica (específicamente, los nombres de organizaciones en inglés y español). Una vez más, se trata de un enfoque novedoso, puesto que explora la intersección entre la onomástica, la gramática de construcciones y la enseñanza de lenguas.

A medio camino entre la interpretación y la traducción, Kiara Giancola y Charlène Meyers reflexionan sobre la aplicación de la traducción a la vista, casi siempre considerada un ejercicio de interpretación, a la formación de traductores, dado que favorecería la fluidez y la adquisición de automatismos. En concreto, se evalúan los errores y las disfluencias de habla que se producen en este tipo de ejercicio basándose en un corpus de veinte traducciones a la vista (inglés-francés) de un texto divulgativo sobre astrofísica, con el fin de determinar su utilidad para los programas de formación de traductores.

Dos de los artículos dedicados a la interpretación tratan sobre ámbitos especializados, a saber, la interpretación empresarial y la interpretación diplomática; ambos toman como base el uso de *corpora.* Carmen Torrella Gutiérrez aborda el ámbito de la interpretación empresarial, un campo muy habitual en la práctica de la interpretación, pero que hasta ahora no ha recibido demasiada atención por parte de los investigadores. La autora aplica el concepto de «zonas de intervención» a la didáctica de la interpretación empresarial. Su artículo muestra cómo este enfoque puede ayudar a los estudiantes de grado a ganar confianza y a afrontar los retos de la interpretación especializada de manera efectiva y exitosa. A nivel general, el artículo también prueba la utilidad de los *corpora* de interpretación reales, un recurso bastante escaso en la formación de los intérpretes y en la investigación.

El artículo de Vladimir Balakhonov y Christopher D. Mellinger combina los estudios de corpus y la formación de intérpretes. En lo que podría considerarse un estudio de caso, explican cómo los *corpora* ad-hoc de discursos diplomáticos en alemán pueden emplearse para aumentar el conocimiento sobre los géneros, especialmente en un ámbito que quizás les resulte bastante distante a los alumnos. Presentan una serie de sugerencias prácticas susceptibles de ser adaptadas a otros contextos y lenguas.

Los otros dos artículos dedicados a la interpretación abordan cuestiones más generales que son relevantes para distintos contextos de interpretación especializada. Michaela Trlifajová subraya la importancia de la práctica reflexiva a la hora de enseñar la toma de notas, lo cual suele representar un reto para los discentes en interpretación, sobre todo si la instrucción no es sistemática. Partiendo de los resultados de su proyecto de investigación, sostiene que el hecho de incorporar la práctica reflexiva en los procesos de enseñanza no solo conduce a una mayor calidad de las notas, sino que también aumenta la motivación de los estudiantes. Su artículo anima a otros formadores a adoptar su enfoque en la docencia.

Por último, Olga Koreneva Antonova comparte su experiencia aplicando el aprendizaje corporeizado y situado junto con actividades de gamificación a la formación de intérpretes y traductores, pero también a la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en general. La autora subraya cómo el enfoque holístico que propone mejora las competencias sociales de los estudiantes de traducción e interpretación y hace que se vean confrontados con situaciones reales. Su artículo da buena cuenta de cómo tales actividades mejoraron el proceso de aprendizaje en modalidad *online* durante la pandemia de covid-19.

Agradecemos vivamente el trabajo de los autores y revisores que han hecho posible este número.

Just like there are no zoos with cage labels saying «animal» or botanic gardens with labels saying «plant», there is no translation without specialization.

Anthony Pym

INTRODUCTION

Despite the recent increase in the number of publications and research projects dealing with specialized translation and interpreting, it continues to be a field with comparatively fewer papers focusing on its teaching and evaluation, even if becoming a specialized translator or interpreter is an attractive career option for translation and interpreting students.

There are numerous challenges that specialized translators and interpreters face: constant development of the specialized fields, hybrid genres, high formulaicity of texts, specialized terminology and terminological neologisms, to name a few. In addition, the field is conditioned by the development of new technologies (most notably, the neural machine translation) and the role of English as *lingua franca*; these factors contribute to the use of post-editing and may, possibly, impact the number of translation assignments on the market.

Therefore, these changes require teaching methods that will, as far as practicable, reflect the professional skills required by the changing labour market. While it is undisputed that it is necessary to have knowledge of the respective fields, attention must also be paid to specific competences that provide students with transferable tools and strategies that will enable them to deal with diverse professional situations they may encounter in the field of translation and interpreting.

The papers included in this special issue offer a variety of teaching and evaluation methods that aim to meet this objective. In addition to being research papers, they also help to fill the gap between theory and practice, which may be sometimes quite wide. Many of the papers leave aside the strict categorization between general and specialized translation, and between different subareas within the specialized field, such as biomedical and legal translation, or audiovisual and literary translation.

The project-based approach presented by Maite Veiga Díaz and Marta García González is based on the authors' teaching experience. One of the objectives was for students to learn to plan their work and engage in cooperation with their peers in a way that is required in professional contexts, thus overcoming the silo approach that often creates barriers between different fields. The authors prepared an interdisciplinary translation project focusing on economy and statistics, and used a rubric including 5 criteria to evaluate it; the promising results support the use of this approach in translation and interpreting curricula.

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The paper by María Pascual Cabrerizo and Gloria Martínez Lanzán focuses on the field of economy, and more specifically wine industry, to highlight the multiple genres and subfields as well as different levels of specialization that are typical of the texts in this area. The authors review which of the genres are best usable as teaching materials in translation and interpreting degree programmes as well as lifelong learning courses and workshops, suggesting a popularization book, data sheet and a wine tasting list. The authors propose a number of activities based on these texts that may be used in a translation classroom such as a comparative analysis of microstructure and macrostructure, creating corpora of parallel texts, exercises based on terminological and lexicographical resources, and, last but not least, collaborative translation and revision with follow-up teacher feedback.

Fernando Sánchez Rodas and Gloria Corpas Pastor focus on an integral part of the work of specialized translation, namely research and terminology mining using IT tools. They apply the downloadable version of the *Interactive Terminology for Europe* (IATE) system to the translation of names of organizations in English and Spanish. It is an innovative approach combining onomastics, construction grammar and language teaching.

Bringing together translation and interpreting, the paper by Kiara Giancola and Charlène Meyers addresses sight translation, which is essentially considered an interpreting task, and its potential use in translator training; they argue that its use may enhance fluency as well as acquisition of automatisms. The authors evaluate errors and speech disfluencies identified in a corpus of 20 sight-translated astrophysics texts from English to French to see its use in translation training programmes.

Two of the interpreting papers deal with specialized domains, namely business interpreting and diplomatic interpreting, both relying on the use of corpora. Carmen Torrella Gutiérrez addressed the domain of business interpreting, which is a frequent field of interpreting practice, which has not received much scholarly attention yet. The author applies the concept of zones of proximal development to teaching of business interpreting. Her paper shows how this approach can help undergraduate interpreting students become more confident and deal with the challenge in business interpreting effectively and successfully. On a general level, the paper also shows the usefulness of real-life interpreting corpora, which are rather a scarce resource, in interpreter training and interpreter research.

The paper by Vladimir Balakhonov and Christopher D. Mellinger combines corpus studies and interpreter training. In what could be seen as a case study, they show how ad-hoc corpora of diplomatic speeches in German can be used to raise genre awareness of interpreter trainees, especially in field which may seem rather distant to them. They present a number of practical suggestions that may be adapted to other contexts and languages.

The two other interpreting papers address more general topics relevant for different contexts of specialized interpreting. Michaela Trlifajová discusses the importance of reflective practice in teaching note-taking, which is often a challenge for interpreter trainees, especially when the instruction is not systematic. On the basis of the results of her research project, she argues that incorporating reflective practice into the teaching processes not only leads to higher quality of notes, but also increases students' motivation. Her paper is an invitation to other trainers to adopt her approach in their classes.

Lastly, Olga Koreneva Antonova shares her experience with using embodied and situated learning together with gamification activities in interpreter and translator training, but also in teaching foreign languages in general. The author argues that the holistic approach she proposes improves the social competences of interpreter and translation trainees and presents them with real-life situations. Her paper shows how such activities improved the learning process in online teaching during the Covid-19 pandemic.

We sincerely appreciate the contribution of all authors and reviewers who made this special issue possible.

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Cross-curricular Training of Specialized Translators: an Interdisciplinary Didactic Experience in Economic and Technical Translation

Formación transversal de traductores especializados: una experiencia didáctica interdisciplinar de traducción económica y técnica

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Resumen: Los cambios registrados en el mercado de la traducción en los últimos años exigen una revisión de los métodos de enseñanza y aprendizaje empleados para formar a nuevos profesionales. La división tradicional de la traducción especializada en campos del saber estancos no se corresponde con las necesidades del mercado, en el que resulta frecuente trabajar con textos que combinan contenido de distintas disciplinas. En este artículo, presentamos una experiencia didáctica interdisciplinar llevada a cabo durante dos cursos consecutivos en la que estudiantes y docentes de dos asignaturas de traducción especializada cooperaron en la realización de un proyecto de traducción de temática económica y técnica. En concreto, se eligió como texto de partida un artículo de investigación sobre crecimiento económico y capital humano que combinaba contenidos de economía con métodos de análisis estadístico. El diseño del proyecto exigió tener en cuenta las competencias y los resultados de aprendizaje previstos en cada asignatura para favorecer el establecimiento de conexiones entre las especialidades. Asimismo, fue necesario contemplar los aspectos relativos a la planificación y al desarrollo de las diferentes etapas del trabajo, considerando que no todo el alumnado estaba matriculado en ambas asignaturas. Para evaluar el aprendizaje se construyó una rúbrica con cinco criterios que se ajustaban a las exigencias de la traducción especializada y del género traducido. Para cada criterio se definieron cinco niveles de consecución, cuatro asociados con los niveles de evaluación de los artículos de investigación, y un quinto dirigido a premiar la excelencia del trabajo realizado. Tanto los resultados académicos del alumnado como la valoración que este realizó de la experiencia de aprendizaje indican que el método empleado podría constituir una buena opción para responder a sus necesidades de formación interdisciplinar y favorecer su motivación e implicación en el aprendizaje. Por todo ello, cabría valorar la pertinencia de introducir en los próximos planes de estudios de traducción e interpretación asignaturas basadas en el desarrollo de proyectos de traducción interdisciplinares.

Palabras clave: interdisciplinariedad; traducción especializada; transferibilidad; polimatía; proyecto multiasignatura.

Abstract: The recent changes in the translation market call for a review of the teaching and learning methods used to train new professionals. The rigid traditional division of specialized translation into fields of knowledge does not correspond to market needs, which often involve working with texts that combine content from different disciplines. In this paper, we present an interdisciplinary didactic experience carried out during two consecutive academic years in which students and teachers of two specialized translation modules cooperated in an economic and technical translation project. Specifically, a research article on economic growth and human capital that combined economic content with statistical analysis methods was chosen as the source text. The design of the project required considering the competencies and learning outcomes planned for each module in order to enhance the establishment of connections between specialties. In addition, it was necessary to consider a variety of aspects related to the planning and development of the different project phases, because not all students were enrolled in both modules. For evaluation, a rubric was constructed with five criteria that were adjusted to the requirements of specialized translation and the translated genre. For each criterion, five levels of achievement were defined, four associated with the levels of evaluation of research articles, and a fifth one aimed at rewarding excellence. Both the academic results of students and their evaluation of the learning experience suggest that the method used could be a good option for meeting their interdisciplinary training needs and enhancing their motivation and involvement in learning. For the above reasons, the relevance of including modules based on the development of cross-curricular translation projects in future translation and interpreting curricula should be assessed.

Keywords: interdisciplinarity; specialized translation; transferability; polymathy; cross-module project.

1. INTRODUCTION

A polymath, or *homo universalis*, is defined as an individual who is able to draw on complex bodies of knowledge to solve specific problems. German philosopher Johann von Wowern was the first to use the term *polymathia* in Western Europe in 1603 to refer to «knowledge of various matters, drawn from all kinds of studies… ranging freely through all the fields of disciplines» (Murphy 2014, 279). At that time, universities were not specialization centers but places where students were trained in science, philosophy and theology. Leonardo da Vinci, Hildegard of Bingen, Benjamin Franklin or Rabindranath Tagore, among others, are well-known polymaths who practiced several arts and sciences. Among less celebrated polymaths who played a role as translators through history, we might include Hunayn ibn Ishâq, Adelard of Bath, Mark of Toledo, Abul Faizi ibn-Mubarak or John Fryer (Wordsworth and Delisle, 2012). Most of them were reputed scholars, philosophers, astronomists, mathematicians, and the like who contributed to the dissemination of knowledge, the development of languages, the invention of alphabets or the transmission of cultural values.

In the 21st century, Root-Bernstein has rekindled the interest in the term *polymath* as opposed to *specialist*. The author defines a polymath as a person able to «put a significant amount of time and effort into their avocations and find ways to use their multiple interests to inform their vocations» (Root-Bernstein 2009, 857) and argues that while researchers consider «specialization as a requirement for adult success and that skills and knowledge do not transfer across domains» (*ibid.*: 853), polymathy and creativity should be encouraged by having students follow a y-shaped path by majoring in two subjects and exploring ways to link them. This will help them recognize connections in the world and question what they don't know (Root-Bernstein and Root-Bernstein 2019). Several other authors in the past decade have referred to polymathy and connected it to other terms as interdisciplinarity, multidisciplinarity, multiskilling or cross-training (Araki 2018, 66). Without dismissing the relevance of encouraging interdisciplinarity understood as a collaboration between research groups or individuals from different disciplines, Mandal (2019) argues that interdisciplinarity should be also fostered within individuals themselves, as this is the way in which compartmentalization of skills and knowledge within the individual could be fully overcome.

Some polymathic educational initiatives are slowly sprouting at different educational levels. The College of Natural Sciences of the University of Texas at Austin offers a certificate program, *Polymathic Scholars*, where students have the opportunity to create a field of study on their own. The University of South California founded in 2011 the *Sidney Harman Academy for Polymathic Study* that organizes courses, seminars and workshops for individual and group interdisciplinary work.

The creation of double degree and flexible degree programs is consistent with theories on polymathy and interdisciplinarity, in that they permit students to combine different disciplines that are interesting or meaningful to them. Likewise, project-based degree programs combine theory and practice from different fields of study to prepare students for their future careers. Most degree programs offered by universities, however, at least in Spain, are still traditional course-based programs which divide knowledge into rigid modules and do not permit teachers to confront students with real labor market situations. This is the case, among others, of many translation and interpreting degree programs, where translation courses are still divided into rigid modules with labels such as legal, scientific, economic, audiovisual or literary translation, a division that does not reflect the real character of the translations currently commissioned in the professional market.

To overcome this problem, a few authors, among whom Way (2002) or Cagnolatti (2021) have designed and successfully implemented translation training projects where interdisciplinarity plays a key role. However, still more research is needed to evaluate the potential benefits of encouraging interdisciplinary learning experiences as a replacement or a supplement to traditional translation courses. As a contribution to this task, this paper presents and discusses the design and main results of an interdisciplinary didactic experience in which students and teachers of two specialized translation modules cooperate in an economic and technical translation project. In discussing the project, we will try to weigh the main difficulties faced during implementation against the outcomes measured in terms of students' performances and motivation. As a final objective, the possibility of including cross-curricular translation projects as part of future translation and interpreting curricula will be addressed.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The second section briefly presents the theoretical background and the rationale for the project, and reviews a few works on interdisciplinarity in higher education and in particular in translation and interpreting degree programs. The third section describes the project in question with a special focus on its design, while the fourth discusses its implementation and main outcomes. The fifth and final section addresses the results and limitations of the experience, drawing some conclusions and suggesting possible extensions.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. *Some definitions*

Although the terms multidisciplinarity, interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity are often used with similar meanings, there are relevant differences among them. Menken and Keestra (2016, 32) define multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research based on the degree of integration of the knowledge drawn from the disciplines in question (see Figure 1). While multidisciplinarity involves no integration at all, interdisciplinarity involves the integration of «relevant concepts, theories and/or methodologies from different academic disciplines», as well as generated results. Finally, transdisciplinarity occurs when «researchers collaborate with agents from outside the academic world».

The above terms are also used interchangeably to describe learning settings combining different disciplines. However, as Jensen, Stentoft & Ravn (2019, 11) point out, there are differences in the way students deal with the boundaries of disciplines. As in multidisciplinary professional and research projects, in multidisciplinary learning settings students address issues or phenomena from a multitude of disciplinary perspectives, but do nothing to navigate and explore the intersections of these disciplines. In contrast, an interdisciplinary perspective requires the intertwining of two or several disciplines, thus enabling students to extend their knowledge beyond what any single discipline could offer. As the authors argue, such an interdisciplinary perspective encourages students to «transgress boundaries» and may result in the development of yet undefined professions. Finally, a transdisciplinary learning setting involves the participation of outside stakeholders, as is the case with practicums, where students participate in a business's task under the supervision of professors and professionals.

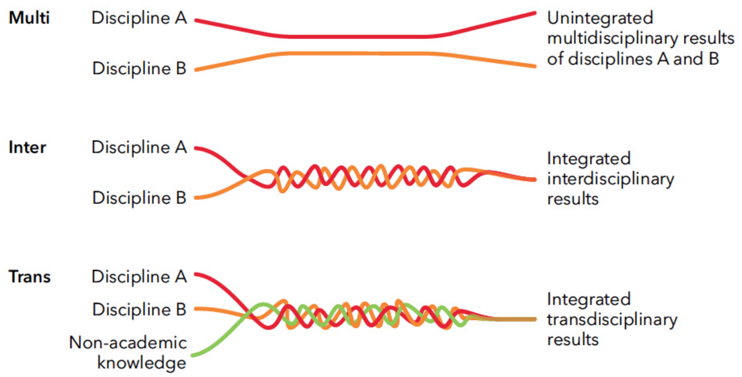

Figure 1: Levels of integration of knowledge (Menken and Keestra, 2016: 32).

2.2. *The need for interdisciplinary learning*

As Petrie (1992, in Stentoft 2019, 50) argues, real-life problems rarely confine themselves to one disciplinary box because interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity are integral parts of the professional world, which is not rigid, but dynamic and flexible, and based on unknown parameters. Accordingly, «Universities can no longer exclusively be considered arenas where disciplines are handled down from professors to students (Stentoft 2019, 49) expecting a predetermined outcome using predetermined methods that emanate from the disciplinary boundedness» (Klaassen 2018, 843).

Also Akkerman and Bakker (2011, 133) address interdisciplinary learning from the concept of boundary, defined «as a socio-cultural difference leading to discontinuity» between disciplines. Yet, they claim that the concept of boundary also suggests a «sameness and continuity in the sense that within discontinuity two or more sites are relevant to one another». Consequently, it is at boundaries that the opportunity for learning becomes more motivating because the confluence of different perspectives promotes the creation of «a third space» for common construction of learning, which stimulates critical thinking, helps student develop new knowledge, and teaches them to be open to different perspectives (Klaassen 2018, 843).

An important issue to be addressed is the way in which interdisciplinary learning is understood as regards the involved learners and disciplines. Jensen, Stentoft & Ravn (2019, 11) emphasize that interdisciplinary learning can be conceptualized through the characteristics of the people involved but also as the way knowledge is produced and handled in the learning process, based on whether interactions take place within or across disciplines. These conceptualizations, however, are not to be seen as mutually exclusive. On the contrary, a learning setting that combines the participation of students from different backgrounds with the acquisition of competences from different disciplines can be considered as an ideal learning setting where students can share their previous experiences and skills and cooperate in the acquisition of new, more significant knowledge. It should not be forgotten, however, that while research seeks results that benefit the whole of the society, learning processes are normally focused on the individual. Although in interdisciplinary learning the learning setting may be a shared one and collaboration between students has a positive impact on final results, individual performances are also relevant. We need, therefore, to make a distinction between interdisciplinary learning as a tool (i.e. the combination of either students or contents from different disciplines) and interdisciplinary learning as a result (i.e. the achievement of personal interdisciplinarity within the student).

Another element to be considered when planning interdisciplinary learning is the degree of «boundedness» of the involved disciplines (Bernstein 2000), and their relation to each other. As Weingart (2010, 8) claims, disciplines may share «a common set of problems and theories, concepts and specific methods to study it». The extent to which this common set of problems is also shared with those of other disciplines will affect the degree of integration that can be achieved.

2.3. *Methodology in interdisciplinary learning*

Although researchers seem to be clear about the need to overcome disciplinary boundedness, the shift towards interdisciplinarity that has emerged in scientific research is moving really slowly to education, maybe because of a lack of information on how to apply the principles of interdisciplinary work to educational design (Klaassen 2018, 842). Currently, curricular design is mostly based on traditional disciplines, which are often static, rigid, invented and resistant to change and innovation (Aguayo Arrabal 2017, 6).

It must be noted that interdisciplinary learning is a wide label under which various methods can be included based on the specific needs of the learning setting. DeZure (2010) presents a large catalog of methods that enable discipline integration, such as theme-based team teaching, experiential-learning, gaming, discovery-based learning, role-playing, inquiry-based learning, problem-based learning and field experiences such as internships, service learning and study abroad. Some of them, such as inquiry-based learning and problem-based learning have already been discussed in the field of translation training (García and Veiga 2015). As Gantogtokh and Quinlan (2017, 14) suggest, it is of paramount importance to select the most suitable teaching and learning process for each module, so as to ensure coherence in learning. Other equally important issues, they argue, are (i) establishing logical connections across modules through structuring and sequencing, (ii) defining coherent assessment and evaluation mechanisms, both for students' performances and for the implementation of the curricula and (iii) creating collaborative communities and environments to support students along their whole learning experience.

To assess the interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary approaches that better fit the contextual situation of a higher education institution and that are most beneficial to students, Klaassen (2018, 857) suggests the following set of key questions, which need to be answered as a starting point.

- What is the type of problem that is addressed?
- What type of educational questions belong to that problem?
- What type of research approach is used? Inductive vs. design abduction?
- What type of solutions are generated?
- What type of outcomes are driving the learning process? (and at what level?)
- What integrative features are used in the programme design?
- What types of activities are used to realize the integrative features and at what levels?
- What types of activities allow skills/knowledge development in the best possible way?
- What type of staffing is needed for this particular context?

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While some of these questions are only relevant for the planning of curricula as a whole, some others are easily transferable to the planning of modules and even of particular projects within them. For this reason, and because in deciding which method to use we need first to define the specificities of our learning setting and the learning problem we intend to address, we have used these questions to design our learning experience. In a research context, Lam, Walker and Hills (2014) characterized interdisciplinary problems as problems that originate from the real world and whose complexity prevents them to be solved without the integration of efforts from different disciplines. Similarly, in learning contexts, interdisciplinary problems can be described as those that cannot be addressed from a monodisciplinary perspective, as they require the integration of different disciplinary perspectives.

The learning problem should lead us to formulate the relevant educational questions that, like research questions in research projects, help us define the purposes of our educational project. Once the learning problem has been defined and the research questions have been formulated, we can determine the intended outcome of our learning process, i.e. what we expect our students to be able to do. The need of a particular outcome will guide the selection of a particular method. For such selection, we suggest using a design abduction approach, in line with Dorst (2013), as it enables us to explore different patterns of relationships instead of an already tried and tested pattern of relationships.

Hersam, Luna and Light (2004) highlight the importance of going beyond «traditional content-based knowledge objectives» to embrace also the personal, social and practical dimensions that they consider «of critical importance to overall student learning» (ibid., 50) Thus, together with content-based educational objectives, they include highly relevant social, personal and practical learning objectives such as «students will gain a sense of ownership of the course content and collaborative projects» or «students will gain confidence as students and professionals». In addition, the need to encourage students' independence is emphasized, as well as the development of interpersonal structures that enable them «to effectively share their diverse disciplinary expertise».

2.4. *Interdisciplinarity in Translators' Education*

Until the 2010s, the number of works devoted to interdisciplinary teaching and learning in higher education gradually increased over the years, but scientific research into the subject was still «limited, explorative» and more focused on pedagogical characteristics than on students' gains (Spelt *et al.* 2009, 365, 375). Many studies focused on the development of comprehensive curricula mainly in the fields of Engineering and Technical Sciences with little focus on particular project-based modules. In the last ten years, in contrast, the number of works describing individual faculty experiences, modules and projects within the scope of interdisciplinary education has considerably increased, with varied subjects as aging (Picchiello *et al.* 2020), medical communication (Eklics *et al.* 2019), urban health games (Knöll *et al.* 2014), social media, humanitarian technology or prototyping (Holzer *et al.* 2018). Interdisciplinary courses in the field of translators' education, however, are still scarce or almost nonexistent despite the fact that Translation Studies has been traditionally considered a discipline of eminently interdisciplinary nature formed out of linguistics, literary studies and some other fields (Ožbot 2015, 360) and that research in translation has frequently involved cooperation with other disciplines such as neuroscience, linguistics, cultural studies, sociology or computational science (Lee-Jahnke 2011, Rojo López and Campos Plaza 2016, Aguayo Arrabal, 2017).

Clearly, Translation Studies can be described as interdisciplinary at the theoretical level. Similarly, translation as a profession is becoming more and more interdisciplinary because it involves formal or informal team work where the integration of methods, knowledge and skills is mandatory. Indeed, a number of authors have pointed to the growingly fuzzy limits of the translator profession. Massey (2021, 52) claims that «the intraprofessional diversification of translation brings with it a widening range of new tasks, roles and demands. This is coupled with a progressive convergence around the fuzzy edges of the translation profession with adjacent professional communication profiles such as technical communication and corporate communications». Focusing on the particular context of the publishing market, Veiga Díaz (2020) shows how translation students can develop a professional profile that combines translation skills with additional value-adding preparing and editing competences.

There is also a commonly shared notion that translators need to be trained as polymaths or even T-shaped professionals (Conley et al. 2017) who combine excellent knowledge and skills in specific areas with a broad set of generally applicable skills and are also good at working in a collaborative way (Henke et al. 2018). Such training should enable trainees to combine their translation competence with skills normally associated with different areas of expertise, among which encyclopedic knowledge on one (or several) disciplines, text editing, software management, data and terminology management, or intercultural communication skills. Hence, translator training must be interdisciplinary.

Considering all the above, it is in part surprising that, while considerable attention has been paid to interdisciplinarity in Translation Studies, the focus on how to foster intrapersonal interdisciplinarity of future translators has been scarce to date. This may be linked to the traditional classification of specialized translation into a variety of types of translation, which has provided a convenient framework for curriculum design, yet not reflecting the complexity of professional translation. For example, in its first bulletin, the International Federation of Translators (FIT 1955) proposed a classification of specialized translation comprising 18 types of specialized translation, namely administrative, cinematographic, business, diplomatic, legal, military, music press, advertisement, radio, literary (which encompassed five different types of translation), scientific and institutional translation. More recently, Mayoral and Fouces (2011, 53) simplified those categories and proposed ten, a number which is still inappropriate. Moreover, the most common classifications of translation specialties are not even homogeneous, insofar as the differences among the different specialities are based on diverse classification criteria, particularly for audiovisual translation and localization, whose specificities are based on technical questions, rather than on the topic covered, as would apparently be the case for scientific, technical, legal, economic or business translation.

Within such a rigid organization of isolated, separately-graded modules, it is difficult to find the necessary conditions to successfully design, develop and implement interdisciplinary learning projects. Some experiences, though, are already finding their way in this direction with rather different approaches. Blasco Mayor and Jiménez Ivars (2000) describe a learning project involving the translation in a scientific-technical translation module of a computer sciences handbook to be used in a PhD seminar. The authors highlight some implementation problems, such as the need to motivate students or the poor commitment of some of them to teamwork, but also the positive assessment that students made of the experience and of the contribution of the outside expert commissioning the translation. Way (2002) refers to an interdisciplinary project involving Spanish students of Legal and Business Translation, Spanish students of Private International Law and Erasmus students, who cooperated in the judgment of an international law case and in the translation of such judgment and the associated material. For the translation students involved, the project was particularly aimed at improving the interpersonal and documentation competences of the participants, but also at increasing their confidence and self-concept as part of their psycho-physiological competence.

More recently, Cagnolatti (2021) describes several class interdisciplinary assignments involving the translation of social and human science texts in a scientific-technical translation module. Finally, Carmona Ruiz (2020) discusses an individual project of interdisciplinary translation developed as a final master's degree dissertation and highlights the need to combine different traditional translation types, in his case, medical and screen translation.

Beyond the differences between the above learning experiences in terms of type of translation, number and background of the participants or intended and acquired learning goals, among other issues, all the described projects share new ideas that can be replicated and redesigned with a view to increasing personal interdisciplinarity among translation students. In the same line, the learning experience described in the following sections proposes another possibility to deal with interdisciplinarity in translators' education by focusing on the combination of two particular translation modules for the implementation of a common translation project.

3. DESIGN OF AN INTERDISCIPLINARY LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Our point of departure for the design of the proposed interdisciplinary learning experience was the set of key questions proposed by Klaassen (2018, 857), which were used to determine whether a project that went beyond the boundaries of one module would be beneficial to our students. Likewise, this set of questions served as a guide to determine which learning methods and processes should be integrated in the project in order to help students address their learning and understand how crossing different disciplinary boundaries contributes to a better understanding of the relationships between disciplines and of how the competences acquired in one module can be transferred to another mainly because of the common set of problems, theories, concepts and methods of study they share (Weingart 2010, 8). Below, we describe the basis for the design of the project, as well as the materials and methods used for project implementation.

3.1. *Definition of the problem, educational questions and possible solutions*

Being aware of the benefits of interdisciplinarity that were mentioned in the theoretical background section but also of the limitations and challenges posed by current curriculum design in translators' education, our challenge was to implement interdisciplinary work within the framework of a degree designed according to the traditional rigid division of modules, yet going beyond the boundedness of individual disciplines or translation specialties. As teachers of specialized translation modules, we observed that the interdisciplinarity of specialized texts is often dismissed in monodisciplinary modules, which focus on problems that are specific to a single discipline, thus departing from dynamic and flexible real-world translation projects and neglecting the need to overcome the compartmentalization of skills and knowledge to successfully approach the translation market requirements. Likewise, we observed that traditional multidisciplinary curricular designs frequently include the same competences and learning goals in various modules, such that they are assessed in every module repeatedly but unrelatedly, as is the case for the modules involved in this project. As a result, students often find it difficult to perceive the transversality and transferability of the competences acquired in different modules due to disciplinary boundedness (García and Veiga 2015, 110) and to work overload (often mentioned by students in the classroom). Accordingly, the problem addressed in the proposed learning experience was how to manage the interdisciplinary nature of the specialized texts used in economic and scientific translation modules in such a way that students would be able to integrate the concepts, theories and methods from the relevant disciplines and generate a common output that simplified assessment and reduced work overload for students enrolled in both modules.

To find a solution to this problem, the following educational questions were posed:

– How can we transform two separate modules with repeated but unrelated multidisciplinary results into an appropriate setting for interdisciplinary translators' education?

- What type of interdisciplinarity should we boost to reach that goal?
- What type of project would be most beneficial?

In addition, the design of the project should be oriented to answering more specific questions about the benefits of this type of approach:

- Can an interdisciplinary cross-module project help students transfer competences and knowledge from one discipline to another and contribute to a better understanding of real translation projects?
- Can we simplify assessment and reduce work overload by implementing an interdisciplinary project involving students from two modules?
- Can we enhance curriculum coordination and collaboration by implementing interdisciplinary cross-module projects?

Based on the literature review conducted and on our reflections on the proposed educational questions, we came to the conclusion that a learning setting that combined the participation of students from different backgrounds or modules with the acquisition of competences from different disciplines would be necessary in order to create that 'third interpersonal space' where students could effectively share their previous experiences and diverse expertise and cooperate in the acquisition of new, more significant knowledge. Thus, combining students, knowledge, procedures and competences from both modules to reach a common output, i.e. the translation of an interdisciplinary text, would be a possible solution to the problem at hand.

3.2. *Outcomes driving the learning process and integrative features used*

Considering the above assumptions, the learning method should be driven by two main outcomes: 1) the ability to integrate and transfer knowledge, competences, expertise and skills from at least two of the disciplines involved in the translation of specialized administrative, economic, scientific and technical texts and 2) the ability to work with people from different backgrounds to produce a common output. The specialized nature of the selected modules, with potentially coinciding competences and learning outcomes, and the low number and diversity of students enrolled in the modules provided the ideal conditions for the creation of that 'third space' that allowed for knowledge co-construction within the framework of a traditional rigid division of modules, mainly because of knowledge transferability between disciplines and ease of time and space management.

As per the elements that should be combined to form an effective learning setting or 'integrative features', two main elements were considered: the students and staff involved in the selected modules (participants), and the competences and learning goals included in the two modules involved in the experience.

3.2.1. Participants

The interdisciplinary cross-module project was conceived as a pilot experience for implementation in two optional 6-ECTS specialized translation modules taught during the eighth semester of the four-year undergraduate program in Translation and Interpreting of the University of Vigo, namely Scientific and Technical Translation (M1) and Administrative and Economic Translation (M2) from English into Spanish for students of English as their second foreign language. The number of students enrolled in these modules is usually low, often below 5 students, and international students usually choose these modules, which facilitates cooperation and guarantees the diversity of backgrounds.

Students rarely enrolled in both modules because of a coincidence in the scheduling of one of the sessions. Yet, we consider that the proposed project would be ideal for students of the two modules to avoid work overload and simplify assessment. For this reason, in the design of the project, three scenarios were envisaged: one with most students enrolled in both modules, a second one with no students in common and a third one with only one student in common. In scenario 1, the composition of the common group would not be altered in terms of background and no subgroups would be required; in scenario 2, the common group would be composed of two subgroups with divergent backgrounds and teachers would act as liaisons; and in scenario 3, the common group would be composed of two subgroups with divergent background and one common student with comprehensive knowledge of both disciplines who would act as liaison between the two subgroups.

Finally, the teachers of the selected modules must participate and cooperate in all the stages of project design and implementation to ensure the transferability of competences between modules to train students as polymath professionals able to combine skills normally associated with different areas of expertise. No special staffing is required for the creation of an appropriate integrative context. Rather, the design and implementation of the proposed interdisciplinary project requires an approach to teaching and learning that uses a combination of perspectives and allows for co-construction of knowledge based on a sense of continuity, transferability and critical thinking. It would be desirable that the teachers involved have good knowledge of real-world needs. In this case, the teachers of these modules have professional experience in the relevant areas of expertise, which allows them to better assimilate training to real-world situations.

3.2.2. Competences and learning goals

Currently, the design of the curriculum of the Degree in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Vigo shows a high degree of competence overlap and recurrence throughout the programme, mainly for basic and transversal competences, which include personal and social competences for life and key competences for employability that can be acquired in one context and transferred to a different context or situation; but also for specific competences, which are considered to be directly related to the competences required for the profession.

For the design of the project, we reviewed the competences envisaged in the modules involved in the proposed educational experience and found that 62% of the competences envisaged in the selected modules are common to both modules (13 out of the total 21 competences, which is a rather comprehensive catalog for only two modules). Five of these competences are basic competences defined by the Spanish Ministry of Education for every undergraduate program, and none of them are transversal competences. This leaves us with 67% of common specific competences (8 out of 12) and 33% of divergent specific competences (4 out of 12). Table 1 shows common and divergent competences in the selected modules.

Similarly, the learning goals of the modules involved in the didactic experience largely coincide in that they are oriented to the acquisition of knowledge about the characteristics of the specialized language used in the relevant disciplines and to the acquisition of the skills required to successfully translate texts produced in those disciplines, using the appropriate conventions to tailor the text to target audience expectations. Conversely, the learning goals of the modules diverge in that the disciplines involved show different characteristics in terms of the language and techniques required to correctly convey the information originating in each discipline.

The design of the modules is based on the assumption that students must learn to translate texts originating in a single discipline using the knowledge, procedures and skills relevant to that discipline. Yet, real-world texts combine disciplines and, consequently, combine information and conventions. With this in mind, the integrative activities of the experience were developed.

3.3. *Integrative activities for skills and knowledge development*

Based on the outcomes envisaged for this interdisciplinary learning experience, mainly the ability to integrate and transfer knowledge, competences, expertise and skills from separate disciplines and the ability to work with people from different backgrounds to produce a common output, we considered a collaborative project to be the ideal framework for the design of the activities that would be integrated in the experience.

According to the competences and learning goals of M1 and M2, the common output should be a translation of an interdisciplinary text that required the application of knowledge and competences relevant to the two modules involved. To this end, a specialized text that combined characteristics of two of the disciplines included in the translation modules involved in the learning experience was selected for translation. In particular, we chose a research article on economic growth and human capital that

Type	Scientific and Technical Translation	Administrative and economic translation
BASIC	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of a matter of study using prior knowledge and advanced materials, including pioneering concepts of their field of study.	
	Apply acquired knowledge to their professional activity, discuss and find solutions to problems.	
	Collect and analyze relevant data for reflection on social, scientific or ethical topics.	
	Convey information, ideas and solutions to specialized or non-specialized audiences.	
	Develop the learning skills required for autonomous lifelong learning.	
SPECIFIC	Know the norms and uses of the relevant work languages.	
	Apply term management and creation strategies to specialized translation.	
	Acquire information mining and documentation skills.	
	Enhance decision-making processes in specialized translation.	
	Develop rigor and seriousness of purpose.	
	Develop translation skills.	
	Acquire basic knowledge of the relevant disciplines.	
	Develop critical thinking.	
		Know foreign languages.
		Know foreign cultures and civilizations.
		Know oral and written native language patterns.
	Develop edition, revision and correction skills for translated texts.	
TRANSVERSAL	Develop teamwork skills.	
	Enhance autonomous learning.	
	Behave ethically.	
	Apply computer skills.	

Table 1. Convergent and divergent competences in modules 1 and 2.

integrated and conveyed knowledge relevant to two disciplines, namely, economy and statistics. To produce a successful output translation, the students would have to combine the knowledge and competences envisaged in the two modules. Under scenarios 2 and 3, not all the students involved in the project would be enrolled in both modules. Thus, in agreement with the design abduction approach, most students would have to face challenges related to the unknown parameters of the project, to which a joint solution had to be found. The definition of the project included the following types of activities:

- Detection of commonalities and divergences between disciplines.
- Identification of discipline-exclusive content.
- Project planning based on the characteristics of the students involved.
- Terminology and information mining activities.
- Interdisciplinary glossary co-construction.
- Common discussion sessions with all the students and instructors involved in the project.
- Project assessment activities.

4. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROJECT (AND MAIN OUTCOMES)

The project was implemented in two academic years, 2020-21 and 2021-22, under a scenario-three scheme. The project was scheduled as the final translation assignment in both modules, such that students had the opportunity to share the knowledge and skills acquired separately throughout the semester to obtain a common output. The main characteristics of the interdisciplinary translation project are summarized in Table 2:

Feature	Description
Type of project:	Short, collaborative, interdisciplinary project.
Modules involved:	Administrative and economic translation. Scientific and technical translation.
Type of output:	Translation of a specialized research article and tailoring to journal conventions.
Source text title:	Education, Human Capital and Economic Growth: Empirical Research on 55 Countries and Regions (1960 - 2009).
Disciplines involved:	Economy, statistics, education, translation.
Source text length:	4726 words.

Feature	Description
Number of interdisciplinary groups:	One per year, divided into two subgroups according to expertise area.
Number of students per group:	Four in 2020-21 and three in 2021-22.
Number of instructors:	Two, one per module.
Scheduling:	Last five weeks of the semester + two more weeks for autonomous learning before assignment submission.
Number of common lessons:	Two.
Assessment instruments:	Five-score rubric; discussion session.

Table 2. Main characteristics of the interdisciplinary cross-module project.

4.1. *Distribution and profile of students*

All the students enrolled in both modules took part in the project. The composition of the groups was diverse, as indicated earlier in this paper. Each team was composed of two subgroups based on their area of expertise, with a liaison student who was enrolled in both modules. The high degree of competence overlap allowed for simultaneous acquisition of the common competences, knowledge and skills required to complete the project. In addition, it allowed for easy transferral of these elements from one discipline to the other, in agreement with Steenhuis & Rowland, 2018: 35. Table 3 shows the distribution and profile of the students participating in the project.

Year	Students in M1	Students in M2	Liaison students (M1&M2)	Student profile
2020-21	3	2	1	- Same educational background. - Two adults, one with professional experience.
2021-22	2	2	1	One exchange student from Mexico. Different educational and social background. Two coliving students with the same social and educational background.

Table 3. Distribution and profile of the students participating in the project.

4.2. *Time management*

Time management might be a challenge to the development of interdisciplinary projects within a monodisciplinary framework, particularly when the participating students are not enrolled in the same modules. In our project, students attended the lessons for the module/s in which they were enrolled, except for two common sessions which were held in the time devoted to one of the modules in weeks 1 and 4, respectively. These sessions were attended by all the students and instructors involved in the project and were conceived as discussion sessions. The first common session was used as an introductory session during which students met and identified the weight of the different disciplines involved in the project, the problems posed by interdisciplinarity and the sources and processes needed to start the project. At the beginning of this initial session, the only known parameter was the desired output. The goal of this session, according to design abduction, was to explore the patterns that might lead to a joint solution. In monodisciplinary sessions, the students of each module addressed the specificities and problems of each discipline and reflected on how to transfer the acquired knowledge and skills to the interdisciplinary text selected, in which both disciplines are intertwined. In the final common session, the interdisciplinary team presented their work and doubts, and discussed project development in order to assess both the method and the results of the project.

4.3. *Project assessment*

The project was assessed in both modules. The final assignment had a weight of 30% in the final score, which corresponds to the proportion of weeks devoted to the project. For evaluation, a rubric was constructed with five criteria that were adjusted to the requirements of specialized translation and the translated genre. For each criterion, five levels of achievement were defined, four associated with the levels of evaluation of research articles, and a fifth one aimed at rewarding excellence, as shown in table 4. The assignment was reviewed and assessed by the two teachers of the modules and students received feedback from both teachers, who adopted an interdisciplinary perspective.

Item	**Maximum score**				
	Rejected	**Major revision**	**Minor revision**	**Accepted**	**Excellent**
Accuracy of content	0	1	2	3	4
Familiarity (discipline's conventions)	0	0,5	1	1,5	2
Coherence and cohesion	0	0,5	1	1,5	2
Spelling and grammar	0	0,25	0,5	0,75	1
Tailoring to journal conventions (*Revista galega de economía*)	0	0,25	0,5	0,75	1

Table 4. Rubric for assessment of interdisciplinary translation project.

Below, we discuss the main results of the implementation of the project for the two academic years.

4.4. *Main outcomes*

4.4.1. Assessment of results in terms of learning goals

Overall, the students involved in the cross-module project improved their performance with respect to previous years in terms of the scores obtained in the final assignment. Thus, in years 2017-18, 2018-19 and 2019-20, the mean score for the final scientific and technical translation assignment was 7,8 and the mean score for the final administrative and economic translation assignment was 8,1, whereas the mean score for the cross-module assignment in 2020-21 and 2021-22 was 9. If applied to the rubric used for assessment, such an increase involves an improvement in performance from *accepted without revision* to *excellent*. Indeed, excellent results were obtained in both years for the acquisition of knowledge about the characteristics of the specialized language used in the relevant disciplines and of the skills required to successfully translate texts produced in those disciplines, using the appropriate conventions to tailor the text to target audience expectations. These results suggest that both interdisciplinary teams have been able to transfer knowledge and competences from one discipline to the other, in agreement with Steenhuis and Rowland (2018, 35). The techniques required to accurately convey the information originating in each discipline have shown dissimilar results in the two implementation years: the results for accuracy were excellent in the first year but only acceptable in the second year. This could be due to the greater emphasis placed on coherence during the second year on the basis of the results obtained in the first implementation year, with excellent values in accuracy but only acceptable values in coherence. These results point to the need to reassess the potential difficulties of the assignment every year based on the characteristics of the students involved and their background.

4.4.2. Assessment of results in terms of motivation and confidence

As expected, the students enrolled in both modules reduced work overload and simplified assessment. Simplification and transferability are key aspects in the implementation of interdisciplinary projects in monodisciplinary settings because these factors foster motivation, particularly for students. Actually, after two years of implementation under scenario 3, the number of students enrolled in both modules for year 2022-23 has increased from 1 to 3, which will allow for implementation of the project under scenario 1.

At the psychological level, students worked with confidence, motivation and commitment to teamwork. Overall, the students involved in the project made a positive assessment of the activity and were eager to collaborate with students enrolled in a different module. Remarkably, they showed availability to partially alter their schedules when the project so required in order to overcome the organizational problems derived from the rigidity of the system. All the participants met their individual deadlines, which allowed the team to meet intermediate deadlines and to successfully submit the project. In addition, students from both modules showed confidence in the capabilities of their mates and in their own capabilities to successfully complete the project.

An unexpected positive result was observed at the social level: the common sessions of the cross-module project facilitated the integration of exchange students. Usually, exchange students find it difficult to establish solid relationships with host university students because of the differences between the course plans, which often lead students to choose modules that diverge from the usual combinations for students of the host university. Accordingly, the personal profile and social background of students should be considered in project design and implementation.

5. DISCUSSION AND FINAL REMARKS

As our literature review has revealed, there is an urgent need for translation and interpreting curricula to include flexible, integrative modules that allow for the development of projects concerned with real-life problems instead of theoretical discussions on how to organize the study of the separate constituents of a scientific discipline. Until then, the design and implementation of cross-module learning experiences may be a good option to foster interdisciplinarity within students while also developing other required competencies at the social and psychological level.

Although the teaching and learning results have been promising in the short term, the project should be implemented in further years and modules, with different text genres and team compositions in order to obtain reliable data. Actually, our results confirm the importance of a careful analysis of student profile and background before project implementation because of potential variations in the needs of students from one year to another. Such variations require adjusting the weight of the different aspects considered in project design and implementation. Likewise, it would be advisable to test this experience in modules with a larger number of students to assess its applicability. We are aware that some potential obstacles related to diversity or time and space management could emerge in modules with many students, particularly under scenario 1. Similarly, the experience should be tested in optional and compulsory modules in order to assess whether the observed motivation and commitment derived from the personal interest of students in the modules chosen.

On the other hand, considering the results reported by authors like Chua (2014 in Steenhuis and Rowland 2018), who found that students begin to realize greater satisfaction, improved problem-solving skills and improved ability to integrate knowledge to find solutions after going through one or two projects, it is our claim that interdisciplinary cross-modules should not be isolated experiences but a common learning strategy throughout the degree, involving students from different courses. For example, students enrolled in compulsory modules such as culture and civilization (4th semester) could work with students of legal and economic translation (7th-8th semester) to better understand the transferability of knowledge and skills throughout the degree.

Finally, it must be noted that this type of projects are highly demanding for educators, in terms not only of effort but also of knowledge and design abilities. For this reason, the commitment of higher education institutions to educator training and coordination becomes essential to help faculty develop a shared vision on interdisciplinary education. It is only by slowly removing hurdles to interdisciplinarity at all educational levels that the interdisciplinary path will be gradually followed and interdisciplinary learning successfully included as a tool and as a result in future translation and interpreting curricula.

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La traducción vitivinícola: un caso especial de traducción especializada con distintas aplicaciones didácticas[1]

Wine-related Translation: A Special Case of Specialised Translation with Many Educational Applications

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Resumen: El sector vitivinícola ocupa un papel destacado en la economía española y de otros países y precisa una comunicación multilingüe que genera gran cantidad de textos, los cuales conforman un corpus variado e interesante para la investigación traductológica y para la didáctica de la traducción especializada. La finalidad de este artículo es explorar las posibilidades didácticas de la traducción vitivinícola tanto en el marco del Grado en Traducción e Interpretación como en el de la formación

1. Este trabajo se lleva a cabo dentro del marco del GIRTraduvino, Grupo de Investigación Reconocido por la Universidad de Valladolid que se ocupa del lenguaje de la vid y el vino y su traducción [http://www.girtraduvino.com].

continua a través de cursos y talleres independientes. Para ello, tras definir la traducción vitivinícola como traducción especializada, delinearemos una clasificación de géneros textuales para seleccionar los que pueden ser más productivos en un entorno didáctico y propondremos una serie de actividades y recursos para la práctica de la traducción vitivinícola, basados en textos con distintos grados de especialización y con características especiales que pongan en juego diversas competencias del traductor. A modo de conclusión, consideramos que un enfoque basado en géneros es muy adecuado para la enseñanza no solo de la traducción, sino también de las lenguas y la terminología, ya que permite abordar los textos a través de aspectos pragmáticos, socioculturales, macrotextuales, morfosintácticos y léxico-semánticos.

Palabras clave: traducción especializada; vitivinicultura; géneros textuales; terminología; cata.

Abstract: The wine sector plays an important role in the Spanish economy and in other countries and requires multilingual communication, which generates a large number of texts that make up a varied and interesting corpus for translatological research and for the teaching of specialised translation. The aim of this article is to explore the didactic possibilities of wine translation both in the context of the Degree in Translation and Interpreting and in the context of lifelong learning through standalone courses and workshops. To this end, after defining wine translation as a specialised translation, we will outline a classification of textual genres in order to select those that can be most productive in a didactic environment and we will propose a series of activities and resources for the practice of wine translation, based on texts with different degrees of specialisation and with special characteristics that bring various translator competences into play. In conclusion, we believe that a genre-based approach is highly suitable for teaching not only translation but also languages and terminology, as it allows texts to be approached through pragmatic, socio-cultural, macrotextual, morphosyntactic and lexical-semantic aspects.

Keywords: specialized translation; viticulture; text genres; terminology; wine tasting.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

El sector vitivinícola tiene una gran importancia en la economía española y también en las economías de otros países europeos, así como en los países del llamado Nuevo Mundo. Según las cifras facilitadas por la Federación Española del Vino (FEV)[2], España es el tercer país productor mundial de vino, con una facturación de las bodegas que supera los 5300 millones de euros anuales, lo que supone un 2,2% de Valor Añadido

2. http://www.fev.es/sector-cifras/ (consulta: 10/11/2022).

Bruto. El número de bodegas supera las 4100 (datos de 2020), de las que 3536 exportan a diversos mercados internacionales. Se trata, pues, de una industria que se desarrolla en todas las comunidades autónomas españolas, que contribuye al desarrollo de muchos pequeños pueblos y ciudades vertebrando el territorio y ofreciendo posibilidades de empleo local. Además, el sector está en constante evolución y desarrollo, lo que repercute no solo en la sociedad, sino también en la cultura. De hecho, la llamada cultura del vino ha propiciado iniciativas tales como las Rutas del Vino, en las que se mezclan los tres sectores implicados: economía, sociedad y cultura. Más de tres millones de visitantes han participado en las visitas a bodegas o museos de dichas rutas y disfrutado de la amplia oferta de actividades relacionadas con el sector vitivinícola en las 97 denominaciones de origen protegidas.

Teniendo en cuenta el importante volumen de bodegas y actores implicados en esta industria, resulta evidente que la comunicación multilingüe es una realidad que considerar; de ahí la necesidad de reflexionar sobre la traducción especializada en este sector, que engloba desde la viticultura hasta la enología o el enoturismo, pero también el marketing y la publicidad, lo que requiere traductores que conozcan diversas lenguas, pero también dominen el ámbito en el que van a desarrollar su trabajo, como apuntan Anderson (2006, 2010), García (2010) o Balbuena y Cobos (2018). Así pues, habrá que enfocar el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje encaminado a dotar a los alumnos de instrumentos que faciliten su futuro profesional.

Así, consideramos relevante trabajar durante la formación con textos tales como fichas técnicas de vinos, notas de cata, guías de enoturismo, artículos, monografías sobre vino/variedades de uva, procesos de elaboración del vino o visitas guiadas a bodegas, entre otros; es decir, documentos reales que pueden formar parte de la tarea que tendrá que afrontar el futuro traductor que trabaje en este ámbito de especialidad. Para Ibáñez (2017), los textos del vino, sea cual sea su objetivo (divulgación, publicidad, turismo, ciencia, etc.) constituyen un material didáctico interesante en el proceso de enseñanza/aprendizaje de la traducción especializada, puesto que, como hemos señalado, la industria vitivinícola se nutre de mercados exteriores, por lo que las relaciones comerciales necesariamente tendrán que llevarse a cabo no solo en español o en las lenguas cooficiales de las distintas comunidades autónomas, sino también en francés, inglés, alemán o chino. Basta con entrar en la página web de la mayoría de las bodegas para constatar este hecho.

A lo largo de las siguientes páginas, situaremos la traducción vitivinícola en el contexto de la traducción especializada, destacando los géneros más susceptibles de traducción y sus características, y propondremos una serie de actividades que permiten trabajar con distintos textos y herramientas.

2. EL DOMINIO VITIVINÍCOLA Y SU TRADUCCIÓN

Ibáñez (2007) define la lengua de la vid y el vino como «aquella que es expresión y portadora del saber vitivinícola e instrumento básico de comunicación entre los especialistas del sector (viticultores, enólogos, ingenieros agrónomos, catadores, sumilleres, etc.) y entre estos y el público no especializado» (p. 77). De esta aproximación pragmática se desprende que Ibáñez considera la vitivinícola como una lengua de especialidad, al igual que señalan Cuadra (2006), Rossi (2010) o Martínez (2021). Sin embargo, Lerat (2006) sugiere en primera instancia que no existe una lengua vitivinícola como tal, sino que se trataría de un vocabulario específico dentro de las lenguas naturales, donde conviven términos más especializados con otros menos especializados. Sin embargo, en el mismo texto, establece un paralelismo con el lenguaje jurídico y concluye que se trata en ambos casos de «langues spécialisées, si l'on ose parler ainsi du matériau des textes et discours dans des milieux professionnels caractérisés par des objectifs, des pratiques et des organisations qui leur sont propres» (Lerat, 2006, p. 85).

Para Cabré (1993) hay tres variables que aportan a los lenguajes de especialidad sus características lingüísticas y textuales peculiares: tema, usuario y situación de comunicación. Con la definición de Ibáñez y la observación de Lerat, vemos que las variables de usuarios especialistas en situaciones comunicativas propias se dan en la lengua de la vid y el vino. En cuanto a la primera variable, el tema, la vitivinicultura es un dominio de especialidad que podemos incluir en el ámbito científico-técnico, y profesionalmente se inserta dentro de la industria agroalimentaria, si bien resulta complicado delimitar el grado de especialización que asignar a cada uno de los subdominios que lo componen y que van a condicionar el tipo de lengua de especialidad y su terminología. Entre estos subdominios[3] figuran la ampelografía (variedades de la vid), la vinificación (incluye una serie de operaciones por las que la uva se convierte en vino), la enología (elaboración, crianza y cultura del vino), la viticultura (aspectos más técnicos tales como normativos, tipos de suelo, enfermedades de la vid o las normas por las que se rige el envasado y etiquetado del vino), la cata (degustación y apreciación del vino) o el servicio del vino (formas de servir el vino o instrumentos utilizados para hacer que su consumo sea más placentero). También, cómo no, el vino es un producto que hay que comercializar; por lo tanto, no podemos dejar al margen el marketing y la publicidad del producto, así como su venta y distribución. Tampoco podemos ignorar las nuevas formas de disfrute de la llamada «cultura del vino», donde se enmarcan el enoturismo y las rutas del vino, así como numerosas publicaciones tanto de divulgación como especializadas, o la importancia de las páginas web de las bodegas como una ventana en la que proyectar al posible comprador y consumidor todo lo que la industria vitivinícola pone a su alcance.

Partiendo, pues, de la base de que la lengua de la vid y el vino es una lengua de especialidad, podemos considerar también la traducción vitivinícola como traducción especializada. Utilizaremos esta denominación en el sentido en el que se ha utilizado tradicionalmente en la traductología, es decir, para referirse a «aquella que se ocupa de los textos referenciales, los que hacen uso de un lenguaje de especialidad, destinados

3. Véase Ibáñez (2010a, 2010b, 2017) y Martínez (2008, 2020, 2022).

a un público más o menos restringido, con una función más práctica que estética» (Buthmann, 2013, p. 265), si bien somos conscientes de que esta etiqueta ha sido cuestionada por distintos autores, como Gamero (2001), que sostiene que toda traducción es especializada en tanto que precisa conocimientos especiales, Hurtado (2011), que por la misma razón prefiere la denominación «traducción de textos especializados», Orozco (2003), que denuncia que la traducción general es solo un espejismo, y Mayoral y Díaz (2011), quienes apuntan que «lo que en un principio se nos presenta como dicotomías (general frente a especializado) termina revelándose como una cuestión de grado (más o menos especializado), amoldándose más bien a la estructura de los llamados *conjuntos borrosos*» (p. 49).

Una de las principales preocupaciones del traductor a la hora de enfrentarse a una traducción especializada es la terminología, aunque, según Newmark (1995), esta terminología especializada suele ser solo entre un 5-10% del total de un texto, por lo que la destreza en el empleo de la lengua general va a tener un peso ciertamente considerable. Para Camón (2002) los problemas de la traducción técnica no son fundamentalmente de orden léxico o conceptual, sino que tienen más que ver con las interferencias tanto interculturales como lingüísticas, es decir, el uso de extranjerismos: calcos (léxicos y sintácticos), préstamos, anglicismos, falsos amigos y barbarismos o estructuras sintácticas ajenas a la lengua propia. A esto hay que añadir que, en determinados géneros vitivinícolas, hay aspectos subjetivos, emotivos y poéticos (por lo general ausentes en otras lenguas de especialidad; de ahí que hablemos de lengua de especialidad especial) que juegan un papel determinante, lo que creemos que puede suponer una dificultad añadida para el traductor.

Lo cierto es que el ámbito vitivinícola es tan amplio que abarca textos pertenecientes a un gran número de géneros, desde artículos científicos hasta textos publicitarios y enoturísticos, «pasando por los manuales de viticultura y enología, monografías, guías de vinos o textos de corte más humanístico» (Ibáñez, 2017, p. 30). Estos textos presentan distintos grados de especialización y podrían clasificarse en virtud de aspectos como el tenor y la función. En una clasificación pragmática inicial de Pascual (2020), entre los más especializados (los que se dan entre expertos), encontramos géneros con una función principal informativa (como la ficha ampelográfica, el informe técnico, el boletín de avisos fitosanitarios o el artículo científico), normativa (por ejemplo, reglamentos), instructiva (manuales de uso, instrucciones, planes de producción) y compilatoria (tabla de añadas), funciones que se repiten con el tenor experto-semiexperto con textos relacionados (por ejemplo, entre los géneros instructivos tendríamos aquí manuales de viticultura o de vinificación, y los compilatorios incluirían glosarios). En el nivel de especialización más bajo (experto-lego), predominan las funciones informativa, persuasiva y compilatoria, en textos orientados al consumo y de iniciación en el mundo del vino (monografías divulgativas, folletos, etiquetas, etc.). Cabe destacar que, aunque hay géneros propios de este campo, como la nota de cata o la etiqueta de vino, muchos de estos géneros (por ejemplo, el sitio web comercial o el folleto) no son exclusivos del ámbito vitivinícola, sino que existen también en otras esferas profesionales, por lo que los textos que nos ocupan aquí podrían ser también subgéneros o especializaciones temáticas. También hay que tener en cuenta que los géneros no son conjuntos rígidos e invariables, sino que evolucionan (Devitt, 2004). La transformación digital ha llevado varios textos a un soporte electrónico con algunos cambios de características respecto a sus equivalentes analógicos, como la difuminación de la frontera entre emisor y receptor, la actualización más frecuente, etc. Pero hay otras evoluciones que nada tienen que ver con la digitalización. Por ejemplo, la etiqueta de vino ha venido experimentando transformaciones de contenido y diseño motivadas no solo por los cambios en las legislaciones vigentes, sino también por las modas (Pascual y Martínez, 2022)[4].

Otra consideración importante es que no todos los géneros suelen traducirse y muchos se traducen, en general, en una sola dirección. Por ejemplo, entre los géneros editoriales, las monografías divulgativas que hemos encontrado se han traducido de inglés o francés al español, pero no al revés, y no hemos encontrado guías enoturísticas que fuesen traducciones. Por su parte, los folletos enoturísticos analizados en nuestros estudios del GIRTraduvino se traducen sobre todo de español a inglés y, en menor medida, a francés y alemán. En cambio, el sitio web de bodega es un género que se presta más a la traducción en varias combinaciones y direcciones.

3. EL TRADUCTOR VITIVINÍCOLA

Teniendo en cuenta estas consideraciones, conviene señalar qué características debe tener el traductor de una lengua de especialidad, en este caso el traductor vitivinícola, para ajustar su formación en consecuencia. Por supuesto, además de un conocimiento de la lengua de origen (LO) y meta (LM), es decir, una competencia lingüística que facilite el traspaso de LO a LM, también requerirá un amplio conocimiento del tema, donde habrá que incluir la terminología y la fraseología propias del ámbito de especialidad, así como del contexto histórico y cultural, lo que supone un dominio conceptual tanto en la lengua materna como en la lengua meta, sin olvidar los conocimientos especializados sobre la cultura origen y meta que permitan al traductor moverse con comodidad por ambas lenguas. Como indica Luque (2006), el traductor debe aspirar a la naturalidad, lo que a veces entraña una seria dificultad en el proceso de traducción; de ahí que en ocasiones encontremos traducciones forzadas y chocantes para el receptor. Esa naturalidad implicaría que el texto traducido pudiera leerse como si se tratara de un texto escrito en el propio idioma y no en una lengua extranjera, lo que supone que el traductor debe transmitir de manera fiel y precisa el sentido del texto original, pero no centrarse únicamente en los aspectos lingüísticos. Por tanto,

4. Resultan interesantes las aportaciones de Tresaco, 2010; Tresaco y Salinero, 2010; Policastro, 2018; Fernández, 2020 y Couthino y Miranda, 2022, entre otras.

al traductor no debería presuponérsele únicamente un conocimiento lingüístico, sino también cultural. Samaniego (2007) habla de un cambio de patrón con respecto a las competencias del buen traductor y señala:

> Si las primeras obras hablaban de que un buen traductor ha de ser bilingüe, inmediatamente empieza a hablarse del papel de la cultura, es decir, del conocimiento enciclopédico y no únicamente lingüístico, por lo que las obras posteriores comienzan ya a referirse al «biculturalismo» que sería imprescindible en todo buen traductor (2007, p. 134).

Otros aspectos que García Yebra (1995, 2005) considera fundamentales al abordar la traducción son la responsabilidad del traductor y la importancia de conocer profundamente la lengua propia para evitar incorrecciones de todo tipo (lingüísticas, léxicas, morfológicas e incluso lógicas, como el tema del que trata el texto que se traduce). Por su parte, Pinto (2005) incide tanto en el plano formal como en el conocimiento cultural; para ella, el traductor es un intermediario entre dos lenguas y dos culturas y su cometido es «saber qué reconstruir de esos contextos, evitando lo superfluo y/o desarrollando aquella información implícita necesaria para la interpretación correcta del TD» (p. 64). Wotjak (2010) opina que el traductor debería conseguir que el texto traducido fuera «comunicativamente equivalente al original, y al mismo tiempo también comunicativamente adecuado» (p. 717), dado que en ocasiones se encuentran desajustes en LO y LM. En cualquier caso, estamos de acuerdo con Bonet (2002) cuando señala que la traducción ideal es aquella que no «huela» a traducción, es decir, que el lector de la traducción reciba el texto como si hubiera estado redactado en su propia lengua. Sin duda alguna, creemos que esa debería ser la máxima aspiración de todo traductor. Por su parte, Santoyo (1988) establece ciertos límites a la traducción: si bien la traducción es posible, no es posible traducirlo todo y entre esas limitaciones menciona las del propio traductor, no solo por desconocimiento de la cultura, sino también de la «materia lingüística objeto de traducción» (p. 187).

Uno de los problemas más complejos que deberían plantearse los traductores son las equivalencias o las interferencias, como apuntan diversos autores (Toury 1978, 1979; Rabadán 1991; Wotjak 2010), en relación con la traducción y los límites entre la fidelidad al texto original y la libertad de adaptación a la LM. Al hablar de traducción, Toury (1978, 1979) se debate entre ser como «el» original, potenciando así la reproducción de los elementos presentes en el texto origen, lo que facilita la interferencia, o ser como «un» original, lo que implica evitar fórmulas aplicadas en la LO en un intento de construir una traducción que utilice modelos escritos originalmente en LM; esto conlleva una tensión entre adecuación y aceptabilidad. Para Toury (1980), el concepto de adecuación supone la reconstrucción del mayor número de rasgos relevantes del texto de partida (en nuestro caso el español/inglés dependiendo de la actividad propuesta); en cuanto a la aceptabilidad, debería producirse un ajuste conforme a las normas del texto meta. Estos conceptos de adecuación y aceptabilidad también los han apuntado otros autores. Rabadán (1991) habla de equivalencia como una relación global entre texto origen (TO) y texto meta (TM), y de aceptabilidad por parte de los receptores del TM. Para Tricás (1998) todo texto debería ser traducible, aunque presente serias dificultades y puede que algunos elementos no tengan un equivalente aproximado en LT; así la autora habla de intraducibilidad lingüística y cultural, por desconocimiento del contexto. Para superar tales dificultades, el traductor debería conseguir el equilibrio entre la adecuación y la aceptabilidad a pesar de las interferencias que puede encontrar tanto en el plano lingüístico como cultural y, en el caso de los textos que nos ocupan, también terminológico. Por último, como señala Nord (2020), todo proceso de traducción conlleva una toma constante de decisiones que plantea dudas a las que el traductor deberá hacer frente para conseguir que su trabajo sea preciso y adecuado. Estas dudas surgen de aspectos tales como lo que se espera del encargo de traducción; el análisis, la comprensión y la interpretación del texto original; la estrategia de transferencia; la calidad del producto final, es decir la traducción y, sobre todo, los niveles de lenguaje y cultura. Por tanto, será necesario avanzar en la traducción, pero también volver atrás para comprobar si se han adoptado las decisiones adecuadas en cada momento.

Pérez (2010) sintetiza todas estas características que debe reunir el traductor especializado mediante un paralelismo con los atributos del lenguaje del vino:

> El trabajo del traductor especializado es rico porque abarca una amplia variedad de textos, de fuentes y de recursos (como tendremos ocasión de ver cuando analicemos las diferentes fases del proceso de traducción); es creativo porque a partir de un texto de partida, el traductor ha de crear un texto meta, dirigido a un público y a una cultura diferentes; y es dinámico porque obliga al profesional de la traducción a estar continuamente aprendiendo y rastreando información (2010, p. 61).

En el caso concreto del traductor vitivinícola, a diferencia de lo que ocurre en otros campos de especialidad, hay que dominar varios temas, algunos más técnicos que otros, y puede ser difícil especializarse en todos ellos. No obstante, Pérez (2010) apunta que no se espera que el traductor vitivinícola sea también «edafólogo, enólogo, técnico en comercio exterior o publicista, sino que sea capaz de comprender el texto origen y de trasladarlo al texto meta» (p. 62) y, siendo consciente de sus carencias, sea capaz de suplirlas con todos los recursos a su alcance. Aquí es donde entraría una formación específica en traducción vitivinícola (bien dentro de una asignatura del plan de estudios del Grado en Traducción e Interpretación, bien como formación independiente) que dote al traductor de conocimientos de las distintas esferas que orbitan en el universo del vino y de herramientas documentales y terminológicas que le ayuden en su labor.

4. PROPUESTA DIDÁCTICA

Para ilustrar la aplicación práctica de lo expuesto anteriormente, vamos a plantear una formación hipotética dirigida a un grupo de alumnos que pueda trabajar con el par de lenguas español-inglés y que tenga ya unos conocimientos básicos de traducción; podría tratarse de estudiantes a partir del tercer curso del grado en Traducción e Interpretación o de traductores profesionales en un taller temático. Como señalábamos al finalizar el apartado 2, el sector vitivinícola (incluyendo ahí el enoturístico) genera muchos textos, pero no todos se traducen habitualmente, por lo que su uso en un aula de traducción podría servir para practicar, pero no sería muy interesante para el alumnado de cara a preparar una salida profesional. Teniendo en cuenta esto y las diferentes características pragmáticas y lingüísticas de cada clase de texto, los géneros seleccionados para esta hipotética formación serían la monografía divulgativa, la ficha técnica y la nota de cata.

La monografía divulgativa[5] sería el primer género abordado, ya que al trabajarlo el aprendiz obtiene también conocimientos sobre el vino (elaboración, conservación, servicio, degustación…); es decir, es un objeto de estudio y práctica que se convierte al mismo tiempo en un recurso documental. Naturalmente, traducir un libro completo queda fuera del marco temporal de un taller o un módulo de una asignatura, por lo que se trabajaría con fragmentos en el aula, aunque los participantes dedicarían tiempo de trabajo personal fuera del aula a familiarizarse con el género. En particular, la primera actividad consistiría en pedir a los alumnos leer una monografía divulgativa en su propio idioma, anotando características lingüísticas y macroestructurales para, en la siguiente sesión, hacer una puesta en común que permita caracterizar el género. En dicha sesión se invitaría al alumnado a reflexionar sobre los aspectos pragmáticos, comunicativos y socioculturales que envuelven a la monografía divulgativa antes de poner en común los rasgos macro y microtextuales observados. Si todos los alumnos comparten el español como lengua materna, el docente expondría las características de este género en inglés para mostrar que son bastante similares en ambos sistemas.

Una segunda actividad para trabajar el género monografía divulgativa consistiría en comparar un original con una traducción. En este caso, es más fácil encontrar obras en inglés traducidas al castellano y una buena opción sería *How to enjoy your wine* (*Cómo disfrutar del vino*)[6], del gurú Hugh Johnson. La estructura del libro permite una comparación fácil de secciones originales con sus correspondientes traducciones y abarca temas muy específicos que, pese a la naturaleza divulgativa del trabajo, dejan ver ya terminología y algunas de las características típicas del lenguaje del vino.

5. Véase, por citar algún ejemplo, *The 24-Hour Wine Expert* (2016) de Jancis Robinson y su traducción al español titulada *Experto en vino en 24 horas* (2019).

6. Edición original publicada en 1998 por Mitchell Beazley y edición en español publicada en 2000 por Leopold Blume.

La tercera y última actividad con la monografía divulgativa consistiría en una traducción colaborativa de algunos capítulos o secciones (dependiendo del número de alumnos y la extensión de cada apartado). Tras dividir a la clase por parejas, se asignaría un fragmento del libro a cada grupo para traducir y revisar. Junto con la traducción revisada, cada pareja entregaría un registro de trabajo para plasmar las dificultades que han encontrado y cómo se han resuelto. Una vez corregidos los trabajos y examinados los registros, el docente dedicaría una última sesión a este tema para comentar los errores cometidos con mayor frecuencia por los alumnos, las dificultades que más han señalado, las mejores soluciones, etc.

El siguiente género abordado se materializa en textos mucho más cortos, por lo que se pueden trabajar varios en el aula. La ficha técnica[7] de un vino es un documento que se ha vuelto mucho más accesible para el público general con la popularización de internet: en el pasado, se trataba de textos dirigidos principalmente a comerciantes y distribuidores o a miembros de clubes de vino o cata, pero ahora son accesibles para cualquier persona a través de los sitios web de las bodegas. El formato electrónico también ha permitido ampliar la información recogida en estas fichas respecto a las versiones en papel, aunque la mayoría de las veces siguen teniendo una extensión de una sola página. El interés de este género para nuestra formación hipotética radica en la precisión con la que se describe el vino, combinando conceptos técnicos (variedades, características del viñedo y del suelo, fermentación, crianza, etc.) y características organolépticas, además de recoger consejos sobre maridaje y, en ocasiones, sobre el servicio y la conservación del caldo. Manejando estos textos, los alumnos pueden aplicar los conocimientos adquiridos al trabajar antes con las monografías y empezar a familiarizarse con el siguiente género, la nota de cata. El vocabulario tiene un papel destacado en la ficha técnica, ya que vamos a encontrar términos procedentes de distintos ámbitos científicos, como son la ampelografía, la edafología o la química, junto con palabras de la lengua general que, como veremos enseguida, aparecen de manera recurrente en el lenguaje de la cata.

La primera actividad propuesta aquí sería la creación de un pequeño corpus *ad hoc*, que, en términos de Laviosa (2002), recogería textos completos y sería comparable (con textos escritos originalmente en español y textos escritos originalmente en inglés), y sincrónico (se recopilarían textos actuales, del año en curso, por ejemplo, para evitar que la influencia de las modas pueda oscurecer la comparación entre lenguas). Los participantes podrían elegir libremente las fichas que descargar y las herramientas informáticas para trabajar con ellas, aunque se recomienda la conversión a texto simple y el uso de AntConc[8] por su sencillez. La finalidad de esta propuesta es

7. Sirvan como ejemplo las de Luis Cañas Selección de la familia 2017 en español (https://www.luiscanas.com/blog/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/familia-lc-es.pdf) y en inglés (https://www.luiscanas.com/blog/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/familia-lc-en.pdf).

8. Descargable de manera gratuita en https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/.

ayudar a los traductores a crear un recurso que les sirva al mismo tiempo como fuente de documentación y referencia y para comprobar términos y estructuras. Así pues, el segundo ejercicio consistiría en comparar las fichas recopiladas en inglés y en español para observar individualmente la macroestructura y el lenguaje empleado y poner después en común estas observaciones.

De nuevo apoyándose en las actividades anteriores, la tercera propuesta consistiría en traducir una ficha de inglés a español. En función del número de alumnos, el profesor seleccionaría varias fichas y las distribuiría para traducir, de manera que al menos tres personas tradujesen la misma ficha. Para esta tarea, se recomendaría a los participantes además el uso de recursos terminológicos y lexicográficos como ENOTERM[9] o distintos diccionarios y glosarios del vino. Una vez completado un primer borrador, las personas con el mismo texto pondrían en común sus traducciones para acordar una definitiva que compartir con la clase. El último ejercicio con este género consistiría en la comparación de algunas fichas técnicas de vinos españoles con la traducción al inglés ofrecida en el sitio web oficial de la bodega correspondiente, para comentar las técnicas aplicadas y debatir si los participantes habrían hecho lo mismo ante cada dificultad.

El tercer género seleccionado, la nota de cata[10], es muy especial. En primer lugar, porque se trata de un género que puede aparecer de manera independiente (por ejemplo, en un concurso), pero que muchas veces va «anidado» dentro de otro, como la ficha técnica o la contraetiqueta. En segundo lugar, porque el lenguaje de la cata presenta unas características peculiares para un lenguaje de especialidad. A diferencia de otros subdominios del ámbito vitivinícola, este se sirve generalmente de adjetivos y sustantivos y, en menor medida, de verbos y, además, la apelación a la metáfora, la metonimia o la sinestesia son recursos habituales para tratar de poner en palabras sensaciones, olores y apreciaciones que cada catador puede definir de forma diferente apelando a su propia memoria olfativa, gustativa o visual. Por ello solemos decir que un vino nos «recuerda a…», «sabe a…», «huele a…», en un intento de dotar de realidad a un acto tan personal y subjetivo como es la cata. Lehrer (2007) afirma que, al tratar de describir un vino, la mayoría de los descriptores utilizados denotan cosas cotidianas que asociamos con plantas, flores, minerales, hierbas o especias, pero también con rasgos humanos tanto físicos como de personalidad (vino débil, vino fuerte, nariz suave, vino elegante, etc.), y es que esta aproximación a lo conocido o a lo recordado va a hacer que lo que tan difícil nos resulta describir adopte una imagen de realidad que no siempre es fácil de apreciar. Todos los sentidos (aunque principalmente la vista, el olfato y el gusto) van a desempeñar un papel primordial y van a configurar la estructura de las notas de cata, que presentan una composición estandarizada y ordenada siguiendo las fases del proceso: la apreciación visual, en la que se determina el color o la intensidad o los matices del vino; la fase olfativa, donde se van a percibir los aromas

9. Acceso gratuito a través de https://girtraduvino.com/es/recursos/.
10. Véase Anexo.

del vino y, finalmente, la fase gustativa, en la que se perciben los sabores del vino, pero también muchos otros rasgos como su carácter, estructura o personalidad. Estas tres fases conforman los movimientos retóricos del género nota de cata, que en ocasiones podremos observar sin que aparezcan marcados como tales y en otras estarán articulados tras palabras o iconos. Esta macroestructura es igual en inglés y en español, pero al pasar al nivel microestructural, hay una diferencia observada habitualmente: las notas españolas están más redactadas (en oraciones cortas), mientras que en inglés encontramos más enumeraciones y yuxtaposiciones de adjetivos y sustantivos.

Dadas estas peculiaridades y las diferencias entre lenguas, la primera actividad para trabajar este género sería analizar varias notas redactadas originalmente en español y otras tantas en inglés para que los participantes saquen las principales características y busquen similitudes y diferencias entre ambos idiomas. Un segundo ejercicio consistiría en probar un vino y redactar una nota de cata, cada participante en su lengua materna. El objetivo de este ejercicio es interiorizar la estructura de la nota de cata y el estilo en esa lengua y llevar a cabo un trabajo más profundo con el vocabulario, ya que, en lugar de recurrir a diccionarios en busca de equivalentes, se estaría pidiendo a los alumnos que pongan en uso su propio léxico y se ayuden con recursos que puedan resultarles enriquecedores, como las ruedas de aromas o las referencias visuales de colores.

Puesto que la dirección más habitual de traducción de notas de cata es hacia el inglés, por su uso como lengua franca en el comercio internacional, la siguiente actividad sería el análisis de traducciones de notas de cata de vinos españoles al inglés, con el objetivo de observar las técnicas empleadas y comentar posibles errores o proponer distintas resoluciones de problemas. La conclusión a la que deberían llegar los alumnos es que la traducción suele ser bastante literal, en algunos casos casi palabra por palabra, aunque se llevan a cabo mínimos cambios, por ejemplo, el orden de los adjetivos o los verbos con una clara preferencia por el gerundio en inglés; el cambio de voz pasiva (inglés) a pasiva refleja en español o la reducción del número de verbos (de por sí escaso) en inglés, y alguna supresión de pronombres en inglés (en los pocos casos en los que se utilizan frases completas).

Esto daría pie a una cuarta y última actividad, que sería la traducción de una nota de cata, animando a los alumnos a decantarse por una adaptación siguiendo los patrones observados en la primera actividad, en lugar de ceñirse a una traducción más literal al estilo de las comentadas en la tarea anterior. Para completar el ejercicio, los participantes intercambiarían sus traducciones para corregir con una rúbrica y ofrecer y recibir una retroalimentación que fomente la superación en el aprendizaje (Galán, 2009; Firmenich, 2021). Dependiendo del contexto en el que se enmarque la formación y del tiempo disponible, se podría acordar una rúbrica específica para esta tarea (en una asignatura de Grado) o recurrir a una genérica (en un taller independiente), como la propuesta por De Miguel y Álvarez (2015), basada a su vez en el clásico baremo de Hurtado (1995).

5. CONCLUSIONES

Como hemos visto, la lengua vitivinícola y su traducción son una especialidad que requiere del traductor una serie de habilidades comunes a todos los traductores especializados, así como otras propias en relación con el ámbito vitivinícola. Uno de los rasgos más destacables de la traducción vitivinícola es la variedad: variaciones diatópicas en parte la terminología, variedad de géneros, diversidad de funciones que influyen en el estilo del texto, alternancia entre la lengua de especialidad y la general, etc. Esta variedad obliga al traductor vitivinícola a estar alerta y tratar con distintos temas, para lo que le resultaría útil una formación específica que le ayude a conocer el mundo vitivinícola, las características de sus textos y los recursos que tiene a su disposición.

Un enfoque basado en géneros como el de la formación hipotética que proponemos aquí se ajusta bien a estas necesidades formativas, dado que permite trabajar los textos a nivel extra e intratextual, observando aspectos pragmáticos y socioculturales, así como características macrotextuales, morfosintácticas y léxico-semánticas. Nuestra propuesta se ha centrado en tres géneros que dan muestra de esa variedad propia de la lengua vitivinícola, exponiendo a los alumnos a textos con distinto grado de especialización, que ponen a prueba distintas competencias del traductor y que van añadiendo conocimientos y herramientas a su kit de recursos. Además, las actividades propuestas incluyen la evaluación de traducciones, bien a través de comentarios grupales sobre traducciones «oficiales» o hechas por compañeros, bien mediante rúbricas que fomentan una reflexión individual. La inclusión de este tipo de ejercicios en una formación es importante para mejorar la calidad de las traducciones en general y para ayudar a los participantes en la formación en su propio proceso de aprendizaje a través de la metacognición.

La propuesta presentada aquí es una pequeña muestra de las posibilidades didácticas de la traducción vitivinícola. La formación podría extenderse con más géneros para trabajar otros aspectos. Por ejemplo, se podrían utilizar textos más técnicos centrados en la viticultura o la vinificación para familiarizar a los traductores con la terminología más especializada. Los textos enoturísticos también darían mucho juego en una formación, ya que están plagados de localismos y referencias culturales que son todo un desafío para el traductor. También se podrían abordar géneros orales, como la cata guiada o la visita a una bodega, para prácticas de interpretación.

Finalmente, aunque esta propuesta está centrada en la formación de traductores, cabe destacar que la misma selección de textos puede tener también aplicaciones didácticas en terminología, por ejemplo, en prácticas de vaciado terminológico y alimentación de bases de datos, y en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para fines específicos, pero también del español como lengua extranjera, dada la relevancia del vino en nuestra cultura y economía.

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ANEXO: MUESTRAS DE NOTAS DE CATA Y SUS TRADUCCIONES

El Zarzal 2019, Bodegas Emilio Moro, DO Ribera de Duero

Vino de color amarillo pajizo tenue, limpio y brillante en copa. En nariz se aprecian aromas a flores, frutas blancas y un toque muy tenue de madera, consiguiendo aromas elegantes y persistentes. En la boca destacan la frescura y la acidez, creando un conjunto sorprendente y equilibrado.

A pale straw yellow wine, clean and bright in the glass. On the nose, aromas of flowers, white fruits and a very faint touch of wood are appreciated, achieving elegant and persistent aromas. On the palate, freshness and acidity stand out, creating a surprising and balanced whole.

Tres Picos, Bodegas Borsao, DO Campo de Borja

Color cereza picota muy intenso con tonos morados. En nariz muestra una gran concentración de aromas de frutas rojas maduras con matices florales. En boca es un vino rico y bien estructurado que evoca sabores a mora, ciruela y tonos de cuero y vainilla, con un tanino dulce y sedoso.

Very intense cherry red colour with tones of purple. Presents in the nose a great concentration of aromas of ripe red fruit with floral nuances. In the mouth it is a well-structured, rich wine that evokes tastes of blackberry, plum and tones of leather and vanilla, with a soft and silky tannin.

Marqués de Cáceres Crianza 2017, DO Rioja

Bonita capa con destellos luminosos. Nariz de finas notas de madera tostada y especias, que engarzan con una fruta roja confitada sobre fondo de regaliz. En boca destaca una amplia sensación de volumen, con un fondo de fruta madura y unos taninos suaves y elegantes. Final de cata largo y sedoso.

Nice depth with a luminous sparkle. A bouquet of fine notes of toasted wood and spices, combined with red candied fruit on a licorice base. Full-bodied on the palate with a background of ripe fruit and smooth elegant tannins. A long silky aftertaste.

Colegiata tinto joven, Bodegas Fariña, DO Toro

Color rojo violáceo. En nariz aparecen aromas de regaliza y frutas rojas y negras, fresas y moras. En boca es carnoso y suave, con muy buena estructura.

A purple-red colour. The nose reveals aromas of liquorice, red berry and black fruits, strawberry and blackberry. Fleshy and smooth on the palate with very good structure.

Protos Clarete, Bodegas Protos, Ribera de Duero

Color: Aspecto limpio y brillante. Color rosa grosella con matices violáceos en capa fina.
Nariz: Alta intensidad aromática. Vino fragante, dominado por los aromas de fruta roja fresca (fresas, frambuesas), no exenta de complejidad.
Boca: Tiene un gran equilibrio, una entrada muy fresca con un final frutal y persistente que nos deja recuerdos de frutos rojos. Es un vino goloso con mucha intensidad de sabor, muy directo y fácil de disfrutar.

Colour: Clean and bright. Currant pink color with violet hues.
Nose: High aromatic intensity. Fragrant wine, dominated by the aromas of fresh red fruit (strawberries, raspberries), very complex.
Palate: Very balanced with a fresh entrance and a fruity finish, leaves memories of fresh wild berries. It is a delicate wine but very flavorful and easy to enjoy.

Muy fina Bodegas Barbadillo, DO Manzanilla de Sanlúcar

VISTA: Color amarillo pajizo.
NARIZ: En nariz destacan las notas clásicas de la manzanilla: aceituna, frutos secos, levaduras y recuerdos marinos.
BOCA: Su paso por boca es amable, punzante, buena acidez, cuerpo, voluminosa y larga.

APPEARANCE: Pale straw yellow.
NOSE: Classic manzanilla: olives, nuts, fresh dough and coastal aromas.
PALATE: Pleasant and sharp on the palate, good acidity, full bodied with a lingering finish.

Enate rosado 2021, Bodegas Enate, DO Somontano

El Cabernet Sauvignon, cultivado con mimo en nuestros viñedos de ENATE hasta alcanzar la madurez óptima, ha desarrollado todo su potencial en este vino monovarietal de nariz intensa, muy afrutado, donde resaltan los aromas de la uva (arándano, frambuesa, pimiento). En boca presenta un ataque carnoso y pleno. Su equilibrada acidez hace de él un vino ágil y vivo. Su evolución en boca es magnífica, con un final largo y sabroso en el que destacan los aromas varietales.

The Cabernet Sauvignon, cultivated with meticulous care in Enate's vineyards until reaching optimum ripeness, expresses its full potential in this mono-varietal wine. Intensely fruity on the nose revealing aromas of blueberry, raspberry and pepper. The first sensation on the palate is one of mouth-filling meatiness, yet thanks to its beautifully balanced acidity it develops into a lively and easy-drinking wine. Its evolution on the palate is magnificent and is rounded off with a long and flavorsome finish with lingering varietal aromas.

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Download IATE as a Resource for Teaching Names in the Translation and Interpreting Classroom

Download IATE como recurso para la enseñanza de nombres propios en la clase de traducción e interpretación

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Abstract: Proper names are a minoritarian yet fairly controversial topic in translation and interpreting literature. Some authors believe that they have been traditionally disregarded, becoming «one of translation's coziest fortresses» (Albin, 2003); however, a number of prominent translation and interpreting scholars have explicitly studied proper names (Hermans, 1988; Moya Jiménez, 2001; Nord, 2003), and a stream of recent publications underline the challenge they represent in fields as varied as biomedicine (Cariello et al., 2021), literature (Jouini, 2020; Sarmaşık, 2022) and the law (Tang, 2021), among others. This paper proposes the integration of terminology databases and onomastics for interpreter and translator training. We will adopt a constructionist approach (cf. Goldberg, 1995). The download functionality of the terminology management system IATE is employed to extract a reliable English-Spanish dataset of 3,997 organization names, which is first analyzed in a quantitative-qualitative manner, and then exploited to design three templates (easy, medium, and advanced) aimed at bilingual naming practice. Results show a generally rich and robust dataset, with 96% cascading domain names, 66% marked as very reliable and only 8% as deprecated or obsolete. By contrast, most names (75%) were labelled as terms, which shows no consideration for their onymic nature and small or no relevance of other specialized knowledge representations (abbreviations, phrases, short terms, and non-linguistic forms). The proposed templates extensively develop a Goldbergian-style notation system for construction, and their flexibility and replicability make them a good candidate for automatization and/or combination with documentation resources and NLP-based tools throughout the learning process.

Keywords: translation and interpreting training; Onomastics; Construction Grammar; organization names; template.

Resumen: Los nombres propios son un objeto de estudio minoritario pero controvertido en traducción e interpretación. Algunos autores opinan que la tradición los ha relegado a un segundo plano, considerándolos uno de los problemas más fáciles de solventar de una traducción (Albin, 2003). Sin embargo, varios teóricos consagrados de la traducción y la interpretación los han estudiado de manera explícita (Hermans, 1988; Moya Jiménez, 2001; Nord, 2003) y una serie de publicaciones recientes subrayan el desafío que suponen para traductores e intérpretes de campos tan variados como la biomedicina (Cariello y otros, 2021), la literatura (Jouini, 2020; Sarmaşık, 2022) y el ámbito jurídico (Tang, 2021), entre otros. Este artículo se propone integrar la enseñanza de bases de datos terminológicas y de la Onomástica en la clase de traducción e interpretación. Para ello, adoptamos una perspectiva construccional (véase Goldberg, 1995). Empleamos la herramienta de descarga de la base de datos terminológica IATE para extraer un conjunto de datos fiable con 3997 nombres de organizaciones en inglés y español, que primero se analizan de manera cuantitativo-cualitativa y después se utilizan para diseñar tres plantillas (dificultad fácil, media y avanzada) destinadas a la enseñanza bilingüe de nombres. Los resultados muestran un conjunto de datos por lo general variado y robusto, con un 96 % de nombres multidominio, un 66 % considerados muy fiables y solo un 8 % considerados obsoletos o descartables. Por el contrario, la mayoría de los nombres (75 %) vienen etiquetados como términos, lo que demuestra que no se considera su naturaleza onímica en la base de datos, además de una presencia marginal o inexistente de otras formas de representación del conocimiento especializado (abreviaturas, frasemas, formas cortas y representaciones no verbales). Las plantillas propuestas desarrollan de manera extensiva un sistema de notación construccional de base goldberguiana; su flexibilidad y replicabilidad las convierten en candidatas a la automatización y/o posible combinación con otros recursos documentales y herramientas PLN a lo largo del proceso de aprendizaje.

Palabras clave: enseñanza de la traducción e interpretación; Onomástica; Gramática de Construcciones; nombres de organizaciones; plantilla.

1. INTRODUCTION

Onomastics is the discipline which studies proper names in a scholarly way (International Council of Onomastic Sciences, 2022). Since Ancient Greece, names have been regarded as central to the study of language, and this has continued to be a major theme of both philosophical and linguistic enquiry throughout the history of Western thought. The history of name studies can be chronologically divided in the following branches: name theory (grammar, meaning, and discourse), etymologically approached toponyms and anthroponyms, names in literature, socio-onomastics, and interdisciplinary studies (Hough, 2016). The discipline is recently steering to multiculturality (Felecan & Bugheșiu, 2021) and successfully applying new technologies like named entity recognition (Butler et al., 2017), corpora (Nazar et al., 2021), and online bilingual databases (Ó Raghallaigh et al., 2021). However, there still seems to be room to assimilate a wider range of technological resources, e.g., collaborative cloud-based work, neural machine translation, post-editing or terminology tools, in the same manner that multilingual disciplines like translation and interpreting are already doing (cf. Corpas Pastor & Sánchez Rodas, 2021).

Our research focuses on integrating terminology databases and onomastics for interpreter and translator training, addressed within Construction Grammar, or CxG (cf. Goldberg, 1995). The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 briefly summarizes some classic and more recent studies on proper names in translation and interpreting, while Section 3 explains how to extract a reliable multilingual dataset of names from IATE and exploit it in class under the theoretical approach of Construction Grammar. Section 4 analyzes the English-Spanish onomastic dataset, before proposing three template-based exercises for translation and interpreting trainees. Finally, Section 5 provides our main conclusions and some further ideas on the type of terms found in IATE and the prospective development of our didactic proposal.

2. STATE-OF-THE-ART

Proper names are a minoritarian yet fairly controversial topic in translation and interpreting literature. Some authors believe that they have been traditionally disregarded, becoming «one of translation's coziest fortresses» (Albin, 2003). The truth is that several researchers have studied the translation of names, but they have avoided onomastic terminology, alternatively labelling them as «culture-bound terms» (Šarčević, 1985), «institutional references»[1] (Martin, 1997), «cultural references»[2] (Mayoral, 1999), or «legal system-bound terms» (Vigier-Moreno & Sánchez Ramos, 2017), among other

1. *Referencias de carácter institucional* (English translation is ours).
2. *Referencias culturales* (English translation is ours).

denominations. On the other hand, a number of prominent translation and interpreting scholars have explicitly referred to proper names. Hermans (1988) broadly divides them into «conventional names», which are unmotivated for translation (*Bruce Wayne*), and «loaded names»*,* which are somehow motivated for translation and range from «faintly suggestive» onomastic units (*Naughtius Maximus* from *Life of Brian*) to «overtly expressive» names around which certain historical or sociological associations have accrued in the context of a particular culture (Carlo Collodi's *Jiminy Cricket,* Tim Burton's *Edward Scissorhands*). Newmark (1988) includes two sections on names in his *Textbook of Translation*, while Moya (2001) devotes an entire book to the topic. Nord's (2003) multilingual analysis of the translation of *Alice in Wonderland* points out that just a quick glance at target texts reveals that translators deploy a variety of strategies to deal with names, i.e., transcribing (Чайковский in Russian > *Chaikovski* in Spanish), substituting (*Cheshire Cat* in English > *Edamer Katze* in German), and omitting them (*Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury* in English > ø in Portuguese).

Like in Onomastics itself (Zgusta, 1998), one of the major problems seems to be the inconsistent use of onomastic terminology. In turn, this hinders the shared study of names and contributes to their noticeable absence from translation and interpreting curricula, even when they represent a real challenge for trainees and professionals alike in a wide variety of fields, i.e., biomedical texts (Cariello et al., 2021), children's literature (Jaleniauskienė & Čičelytė, 2009), classical literature (Jouini, 2020), fantasy genres (Sarmaşık, 2022), and legal texts (Tang, 2021). As Onomastics binds ties with Didactics (Bobrova, 2022) and new construction-based pedagogical approaches with multilingual potential emerge (Boas, 2022), we believe that translation and interpreting studies should take advantage of the momentum and strive for further integration with Onomastics and Construction Grammar through classroom applications, in an attempt to create scholarly attitudes and practices that would increase the shared knowledge of names in multiple languages.

3. METHODOLOGY

For this study, we have selected the European Union terminology database IATE[3] in order to produce multilingual onomastic datasets suitable for specialized translation and interpreting teaching. Section 3.1. presents the Download IATE functionality and the procedure to obtain a filtered dataset. Section 3.2. focuses on preparation and format conversion of files for better visualization and exploitation. Finally, Section 3.3. chooses a suitable didactic framework for the teaching of bilingual names and provides some tips for teaching the basics of Onomastics and Construction Grammar in class.

3. https://iate.europa.eu/home.

3.1. *Downloading onomastic subsets in IATE*

The European Union terminology database IATE is an almost perfect example of how the combined work of powerful, yet different institutional bodies can bring terminology closer to the average citizen. With about 800 000 entries and approximately 7.5 million terms in the 24 official languages of the European Union, IATE has become a terminology reference for both language professionals and academics (European Union, 2023). As recently as in May 2020, IATE added the possibility of downloading terminological subsets in TBX[4] or CSV format for specific needs, such as linguistic research or education, under the name Download IATE (European Union, 2022a). The only download requirement for external users is to sign in with a free-of-charge EU Login[5] account.

After logging and clicking on Download IATE, the user will find the following filtering criteria:

- language code (one or several EU languages)
- domain (one or several domains, with their subdomains)
- collections (one or several public collections, in which users can search by keyword, institution, and creation date range)
- term type (term, abbreviation, short form, phrase, formula, lookup)
- evaluation (preferred, admitted, obsolete, deprecated, proposed, not specified)
- reliability (1 to 4 stars)

The most relevant filters for onomastic work apart from collections[6] are domains and subdomains. Since names are fully part of terminological entries in IATE, it is necessary to aim at specific domain descriptors to retrieve partial or complete onomastic sets. Based on EuroVoc (a multidisciplinary thesaurus covering the activities of the EU managed by the Publications Office of the European Union), IATE concepts are linked to 21 subject domains with many subdomains.[7] Even though there are several research possibilities, we decided to look for organization names under the domain

4. TermBase eXchange format.
5. https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/cas/eim/external/register.cgi
6. The public collection EU-MUL-INDIVIDUALCONCEPTS (https://iate.europa.eu/search/collection/5DCEF74FA2CB484AB4FE793513B3571B) is especially interesting for this matter. It currently contains 5,513 proper denominations beyond organization names and is enlarged on a daily basis. Our didactic proposal alternatively uses domains to show the entrenchment of onomastic units in terminology via a classification based on fields of knowledge. Nomination and appellativization (individual concept/generic concept) may be included as metadata at the IATE entry level in the near future.
7. The entire EuroVoc classification can be browsed at https://op.europa.eu/en/web/eu-vocabularies/concept-scheme/-/resource?uri=http://eurovoc.europa.eu/100141

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route [«EUROPEAN UNION» > «EU institutions and European civil service» > «institutional structure»]. For this first pedagogical study, we choose organization names for three reasons: they usually signal complex phenomena like metaphor and metonymy at higher syntactic levels (Mossop, 2003), they convey a good part of the encyclopedic knowledge of the speakers (Viimaranta & Mustajoki, 2020) and they are empirically confirmed to be one of the most common onomastic categories in institutional discourse (Corpas Pastor & Sánchez Rodas, forthcoming; Steinberger et al., 2011). Our download request would have the following appearance (see Figure 1):

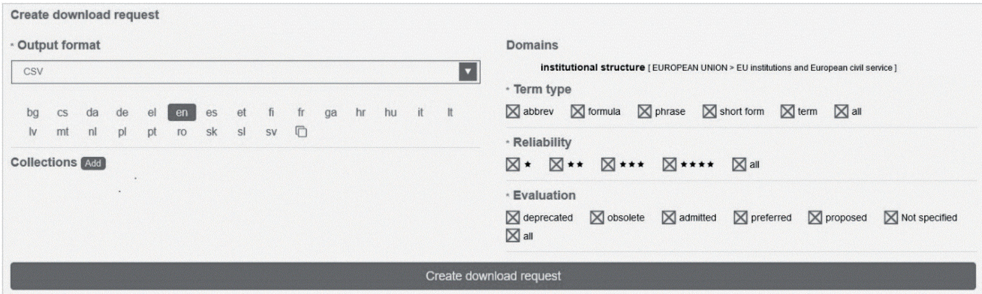

Figure 1. Filters applied in Download IATE for the English onomastic dataset.

3.2. *Preparing and converting the files*

After downloading the data, it is necessary to convert the CSV file format into XLSX[8], since information for each term is unsorted and delimited by pipes (|), with different types of data occurring in the same cell (see Figure 2). There are several methods to convert CSV into a properly organized XLSX file. Users just need to specify which one is the delimiting symbol (|) when opening the CSV in a standard spreadsheet software, like Microsoft Excel or Google Sheets. External websites (Zamzar[9], CloudConvert[10]) or libraries (SSConvert[11], XLSXWriter[12]) can also be used to change formats. We opted for the Google Sheets import function because the output was neater than in the Excel wizard, (after all, today's translation and interpreting trainees seem to be rather familiar with the Google Docs Editors suite). Once a tidier XLSX is generated, standard filtering and counting can be applied in Excel to peruse the data in each desired manner (see Figure 3).

8. IATE provides CSV since it is a non-proprietary format (while XLSX is proprietary).
9. https://www.zamzar.com/
10. https://cloudconvert.com/
11. https://manpages.ubuntu.com/manpages/bionic/man1/ssconvert.1.html
12. https://xlsxwriter.readthedocs.io/

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    A          B          C           D          E          F          G          H          I          J          K          L          M          N          O          P          Q
1   E_ID|E_DOMAINS|L_CODE|T_TERM|T_TYPE|T_RELIABILITY|T_EVALUATION
2   3537375|institution EU institution|en|unit|Term|Reliable|
3   3587155|institution European Parliament|en|Informatics Unit|Term|Very reliable|
4   3598743|institution European Parliament|en|Directorate for Citizens' Language|Term|Very reliable|
5   3599775|cooperati international Council of the institutional structure|en|Working Party on Development Cooperation and International Partnerships (NDICI â€“ Global Europe)|Short Form|Reliable|
6   3599775|cooperati international Council of the institutional structure|en|CODEV-PI Working Party (NDICI â€“ Global Europe)|Short Form|Minimum reliability|
7   3599775|cooperati international Council of the institutional structure|en|Working Party on Development Cooperation and International Partnerships (Neighbourhood, Development and International Cooperation Instrument â€“ Global Europe)|Term|Reli
8   760655|Council of t institutional s early fruit and vegetables|en|Working Party on Fruit and Vegetables (Fresh Fruit and Vegetables)|Term|Very reliable|
9   3598986|Council of institutional structure|en|Working Party on International Food and Agricultural Questions (Codex Alimentarius)|Term|Very reliable|
10  879581|Council of t institutional s Middle East|en|MOG Working Party|Short Form|Reliable|
11  879581|Council of t institutional s Middle East|en|Middle East/Gulf Working Party|Term|Reliable|
12  3587254|institution European Parliament|en|Secretariat of the Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development|Term|Very reliable|
13  851758|Council of t institutional s statistics|en|Working Party on Statistics|Term|Very reliable|
14  851783|wine        Council of the institutional structure|en|Working Party on Wines and Alcohol (Wines)|Term|Very reliable|
15  3587512|institution European Parliament|en|Directorate for Impact Assessment and European Added Value|Term|Very reliable|
16  3587557|institution European Parliament|en|Committee Coordination and Legislative Programming Unit|Term|Very reliable|
17  785454|Council of t international institutional structure|en|Working Party on Non-Proliferation and Arms Exports|Term|Very reliable|
18  785454|Council of t international institutional structure|en|CONOP Working Party|Short Form|Reliable|Obsolete
19  785454|Council of t international institutional structure|en|Working Party on Non-Proliferation|Term|Very reliable|Obsolete
20  3555485|Council of protection of institutional structure|en|Working Party on Plant Health (IPPC/CPM Affairs)|Short Form|Very reliable|Obsolete
21  3555485|Council of protection of institutional structure|en|Working Party on Plants and Plant Health Questions (IPPC/CPM Affairs)|Short Form|Reliable|
IATE_export_EN
```

Figure 2. CSV file (as generated by Download IATE).

	E_ID	E_DOMAINS	L_CODE	T_TERM	T_TYPE	T_RELIABILITY	T_EVALUATIO
2	3537375	institutional structure;EU institution	en	unit	Term	Reliable	
3	3587155	institutional structure;European Parliament	en	Informatics Unit	Term	Very reliable	
4	3598743	institutional structure;European Parliament	en	Directorate for Citizens' Language	Term	Very reliable	
5	3599775	cooperation policy;international affairs;Council of the European Union;institutional structur	en	Working Party on Development Cooperation and International Partnerships (NDICI – Global Europe)	Short Form	Reliable	
6	3599775	cooperation policy;international affairs;Council of the European Union;institutional structur	en	CODEV-PI Working Party (NDICI – Global Europe)	Short Form	Minimum reliability	
7	3599775	cooperation policy;international affairs;Council of the European Union;institutional structur	en	Working Party on Development Cooperation and International Partnerships (Neighbourhood, Development and International C	Term	Reliable	
8	760655	Council of the European Union;institutional structure;early fruit and vegetables	en	Working Party on Fruit and Vegetables (Fresh Fruit and Vegetables)	Term	Very reliable	
9	3598986	Council of the European Union;institutional structure	en	Working Party on International Food and Agricultural Questions (Codex Alimentarius)	Term	Very reliable	
10	879581	Council of the European Union;institutional structure;Middle East	en	MOG Working Party	Short Form	Reliable	
11	879581	Council of the European Union;institutional structure;Middle East	en	Middle East/Gulf Working Party	Term	Reliable	
12	3587254	institutional structure;European Parliament	en	Secretariat of the Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development	Term	Very reliable	
13	851758	Council of the European Union;institutional structure;statistics	en	Working Party on Statistics	Term	Very reliable	
14	851783	wine;Council of the European Union;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Wines and Alcohol (Wines)	Term	Very reliable	
15	3587512	institutional structure;European Parliament	en	Directorate for Impact Assessment and European Added Value	Term	Very reliable	
16	3587557	institutional structure;European Parliament	en	Committee Coordination and Legislative Programming Unit	Term	Very reliable	
17	785454	Council of the European Union;international security;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Non-Proliferation and Arms Exports	Term	Very reliable	
18	785454	Council of the European Union;international security;institutional structure	en	CONOP Working Party	Short Form	Reliable	Obsolete
19	785454	Council of the European Union;international security;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Non-Proliferation	Term	Very reliable	Obsolete
20	3555485	Council of the European Union;protection of plant life;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Plant Health (IPPC/CPM Affairs)	Short Form	Very reliable	Obsolete
21	3555485	Council of the European Union;protection of plant life;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Plants and Plant Health Questions (IPPC/CPM Affairs)	Short Form	Reliable	
22	3555485	Council of the European Union;protection of plant life;institutional structure	en	Working Party on Plant Health (International Plant Protection Convention / Commission on Phytosanitary Measures Affairs)	Term	Very reliable	Obsolete

Figure 3. XLSX file (format conversion through Google Sheets and file import in Microsoft Excel).

3.3. *Choosing a didactic and theoretical framework*

The last methodological step consists in selecting a suitable curriculum module or any other type of didactic framework, plus an updated and fitting theoretical approach, to exploit the dataset. The chosen didactic context is the bachelor's degree in Translation and Interpreting of the University of Malaga (Spain), as our current teaching activity takes place there. Several modules are well tailored to fit our onomastic proposal, i.e., *Traducción General* (Non-Specialized Translation), *Traducción Especializada* (Specialized Translation), *Interpretación Simultánea* (Simultaneous Interpreting), *Recursos Informáticos Aplicados a la Traducción e Interpretación* (Computer Resources in Translation and Interpreting), etc.[13]. For this study, we have selected the module on *Traducción Jurídica y Socioeconómica I* (Translation in Legal and Financial Settings I). Taught in the third year, the degree syllabus states that in this mandatory module trainees need to be taught the basic «lexical», «terminological» and «cultural challenges» of legal translation, as well as the most frequent «norms» and «documentation sources» in

13. The complete degree syllabus (Spanish only) can be consulted here: https://www.uma.es/media/tinyimages/file/Graduado-a_en_Traduccion_e_Interpretacion_ultima_Memoria_VERIFICADA.pdf. English translations are ours.

legal translation briefings. Additionally, attention should be paid to «legislative» and «administrative texts», which makes it an ideal candidate for the introduction of Download IATE and EU-related names altogether. Overall, the wide range of subjects from the degree that fit our proposal supports the idea that modern translation and interpreting theory and practice could make much more room to Onomastics, especially when combined with technology and documentation.

Regarding theory, we believe in the suitability of Construction Grammar (CxG) for teaching names in a bilingual fashion, given that constructionist studies are on the rise (Corpas Pastor & Losey-León, 2019) and pedagogical applications have recently been suggested (Boas, 2022). CxG is a family of closely related grammars which confronts Chomskyan views on language and idiomaticity. Contrary to mainstream Generative Grammar, constructions are not the result of a limited set of transformations or derivations, but symbolic units which are linked to each other and constitute complex networks (Goldberg, 1995). As a result of this symbolism, Construction Grammar employs particular notation systems to represent language in a quasi-mathematical nature, based on three main styles: Fillmorean, HSPG-style and Goldbergian (Fried, 2015). From discourse markers to nominal constructions and morphemes, CxG approaches are theoretically able to describe the form-meaning pairings of every type of linguistic unit, and are equally applicable to the deep study of specialized phraseology, terms and/or names.

The first step would be presenting Onomastics and CxG as two autonomous yet relatable linguistic disciplines (cf. Hoffmann & Trousdale, 2013; Kostanski & Puzey, 2016). Special attention should be given to introducing some basic onomastic terminology (anthroponym, toponym, organization name, etc.), as well as a simple notation system for constructions. Wasserscheidt (2019) proposes the following:[ ] = linguistic unit (construction); __ = slot; $\_\_{}_{\text{SUBSCRIPT}}$ = semantic restriction of a slot; CAPITALS = morphological paradigm; *italics* = fixed form. At the same time, some typical abbreviations for morphology can be introduced, bearing in mind that conventions may differ between authors and individuals: N = Noun, V = Verb, NP = Noun Phrase, PP = Prepositional Phrase, etc. Constructional notation may be easier to understand through visually arranged examples from the literature (see Table 1 below).

The notation systems of Wasserscheidt (2019) and Corpas Pastor (2015, 2017, 2021) presented above are Goldbergian-based representations upon which extra conventions for onomastic constructions can be layered. Given that onomasticians employ a rather diverse terminology, we propose to notate names with abbreviations also used in Named Entity Recognition (NER). More specifically, we propose the labels used by the NER functionality of the technological platform VIP: NORP for nationalities and language names, ORG for organization names, GPE for geopolitical entities, ENT for any type of named entity, etc.[14]. This would make our specific notation needs more

14. http://www.lexytrad.es/VIP/site/paq_complementario/entities_text.php (a login is required to visualize the entire list of abbreviations).

Construction type	Constructional notation	Examples
Collocational (noun)	[V NP$_{\text{—disease}}$] [V NP$_{\text{—enfermedad}}$]	[*contract a disease*] [*propagar una enfermedad*]
Collocational (prep)	[V PP]	[*die from a disease*] [*morirse de miedo*]
Equative	[X BE *as* ADJ *as* Y] [X SER/ESTAR *tan* ADJ *como* Y]	[*he may not be as fool as it seems.*] [*la ciudad no está tan vacía como parecía.*]
Passive	[SUBJ aux VP$_{PP}$ (PP*by*)] [SUBJ aux VP$_{PP}$ (PP*por*)]	[*the disease was spread by air.*] [*El popular actor fue atacado por un perro rabioso.*]

Table 1. Constructional examples in English and Spanish mostly extracted from Corpas Pastor (2015, 2017, 2021).

coherent and increase the potential of our pedagogical approach to combine with NLP applications.

Finally, two more key CxG concepts which can be understood through suggesting visuals are the clines of complexity and schematicity. A cline is a continuum with an infinite number of gradations from one extreme to the other; Croft and Cruse (2004) distinguish atomic versus complex constructions along a complexity cline and substantive versus schematic constructions along a schematicity cline. Complexity is the degree to which constructions incorporate smaller symbolic components, while schematicity is the quality of constructions consisting of fully specified and partially specified elements, or slots (Wasserscheidt, 2019). All constructions from any given language are located in a cline of complexity and a cline of schematicity independently (see Figures 4 and 5 below).

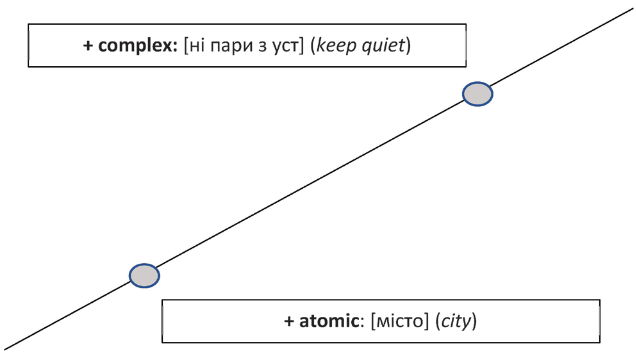

Figure 4. Clinal complexity in two Ukrainian constructions (Wasserscheidt 2019).

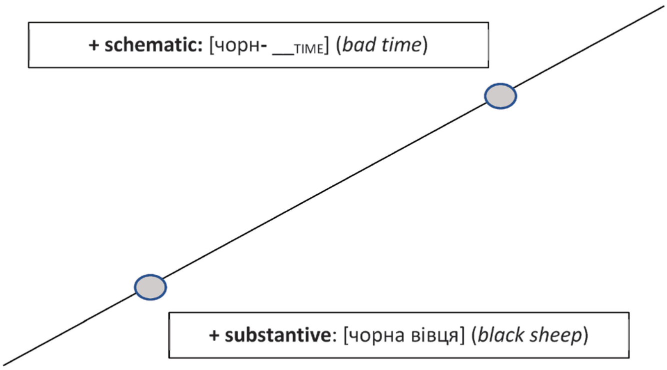

Figure 5. Clinal schematicity in two Ukrainian constructions (Wasserscheidt 2019).

4. DIDACTIC PROPOSAL

Prior to the description of our template-based didactic proposal, a brief quantitative-qualitative analysis on the onomastic dataset is performed. Annex I provides an answer key with possible solutions for the exercises included in section 4.2.

4.1. *Dataset analysis*

Before designing specific didactic applications, it is convenient to display some of the numbers of our onomastic dataset. Such pre-analysis helps teachers and researchers understand the nature and possibilities of this material, and can be re-converted into a classroom activity to be made by target students themselves, provided they have a basic knowledge of Excel filtering and sorting. Subsections 4.1.1. to 4.1.4 and the corresponding Tables 2-5 show the distribution of the downloaded entries per language (English and Spanish) and per IATE systemic categories (number of domains, term type, reliability and evaluation).

4.1.1. Number of domains

IATE domains and subdomains are based on the EuroVoc thesaurus, and entries can be linked to one or more of them. Interestingly enough, single domain names are a minority in the case of «institutional structure» for both languages. This fits IATE rules, in the sense that «institutional structure» is actually a subdomain that should be linked at least to one of its two parent domains, «European Union» and «EU institutions and Eu-

	EN	ES	EN+ES
Single domain entries (»institutional structure»)	107	53	160
Cascading domain entries («institutional structure» +1 or more)	2,069	1,768	3,837
TOTAL	**2,176**	**1,821**	**3,997**

Table 2. Number of domains in the IATE subset «institutional structure» (English and Spanish).

ropean civil service» (see section 3.1.). Nevertheless, there are several cases in which cascading domain entries are not only linked to parent domains, but also to specific EU bodies (English *Directorate for Citizens' Language*, linked to «institutional structure; European Parliament»; Spanish *comisión del Comité de las Regiones*, linked to «Committee of the Regions;institutional structure») and/or fields of knowledge (*Bio-based Industries Consortium*, linked to «institutional structure;INDUSTRY;consortium»; *Grupo «Vinos y Alcoholes» (Vinos)*, linked to «wine;Council of the European Union;institutional structure»). This is further evidence of the enriching nature of names and their key role in mapping field(s) on hybrid specialization texts, as Bowker (1997) already noted for terminology.

4.1.2. Term types

	EN	ES	EN+ES
Abbreviations	187	95	282
Phrases	1	0	1
Short Forms	205	131	336
Terms	1,783	1,595	3,378
TOTAL	**2,176**	**1,821**	**3,997**

Table 3. Term type distribution in the IATE subset «institutional structure» (English and Spanish).

As could be expected, terms (word or set of words which designates a concept in a particular language) are the most common type of onomastic units[15], ranging from «namified» single-word entries (*Budget*, *Dirección*) to rather complex multi-word organization names (*Annual Meeting of the Board of Governors of the European Investment Bank*,

15. The default type value when a linguist inserts a term in IATE is 'term', which may explain the fact that in some cases the user overlooks changing this value to a more appropriate one (abbreviation or short form).

Secretaría de la Comisión Especial sobre Inteligencia Artificial en la Era Digital). Short forms (accepted simpler versions of names of offices, agreements, or countries) are the second units in number and provide a closer insight into a more specialized type of EU bodies (*Management Committee*, *Junta de Cibergobernanza*)[16]. Slightly less frequent abbreviations (acronyms, initialisms, contractions or truncations) are even more opaque, probably making for the most specialized subgroup of names (*CIVCOM, CITI*)[17,18]. Lastly, phrases have only one occurrence in English and none in Spanish. This is a rather thought-provoking finding; it leads to conclude that, even when IATE provides for this category a careful definition of specialized phraseology[19], entries of this type are clearly ignored in practice, at least in what refers to phraseology with organization names. This impression is reinforced when we consider that the only identified phrase is actually a mislabeled abbreviation in English (*SG.E.3*)[20].

4.1.3. Reliability

	EN	ES	EN+ES
Reliability not verified (★)	10	4	14
Minimum reliability (★★)	87	60	147
Reliable (★★★)	730	460	1,190
Very reliable (★★★★)	1,350	1,297	2,647
TOTAL	**2,176**	**1,821**	**3,997**

Table 4. Reliability distribution in the IATE subset «institutional structure» (English and Spanish).

IATE uses a four-star coding system to indicate the reliability of terms. One and two stars are automatically assigned to terms entered by non-native and native speakers, respectively. Three stars are manually assigned after human terminological assess-

16. Names that contain an abbreviation (*COJUR Working Party, Grupo «Cuestiones Marítimas» (ESMUE)*) are also considered short forms in IATE.

17. CIVCOM is a Council working party set up to provide information, formulate recommendations and give advice to the Permanent Representatives Committee on civilian aspects of crisis management.

18. CITI stands for Spanish *Comité interinstitucional de traducción e interpretación*.

19. «Phraseological unit that is not strictly speaking a 'term' (i.e. it does not denote a definable 'concept') but which nevertheless has a standard translation — and must therefore always be translated the same way — or which occurs repeatedly in our texts and poses real translation problems.» (European Union, 2022b).

20. Unit within the Committee of the Regions' Directorate E responsible for developing and implementing the Committee's policy on staff statutory rights and obligations, training, career guidance, working conditions and wellbeing at work.

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ment, but also automatically assigned to batches of entries following the merger of previously existing databases ('legacy data'). The highest reliability level (four stars) can only be achieved manually. Very reliable terms are either well-established and widely accepted by experts as the correct designation, or confirmed by a trusted and authoritative source, in particular a reliable written source. Our onomastic dataset reliability levels grow exponentially both in English and Spanish. IATE terminologists assign four stars to organization names because most of them appear in EU legal texts, which is a positive indicator of the good health of our dataset.

4.1.4. Evaluation

	EN	ES	EN+ES
Preferred	5	4	9
Admitted	7	2	9
Deprecated	6	0	6
Obsolete	221	199	420
Proposed	0	1	1
ø	1,937	1,615	3,552
TOTAL	**2,176**	**1,821**	**3,997**

Table 5. Evaluation distribution in the IATE subset «institutional structure» (English and Spanish).

When multiple terms are stored for the same language, IATE makes possible to assign a specific evaluation as follows:

- **Preferred**: A term may be marked as «preferred» because it is intrinsically better than other terms, or simply to ensure consistency in EU texts (*WPOR* vs. *Working Party on Own Resources*, *ALDE* vs. *Grupo de la Alianza de los Demócratas y Liberales por Europa*).
- **Admitted**: A term which is correct, but for which better synonyms exist (*High Level Working Party on Tax Questions* vs. *High-level Working Party*).
- **Deprecated**: A term which is widely used, and is therefore likely to appear in documents, but which should not be used, and should be changed when editing a text (the deprecated *service of the European Commission* vs. *department of the European Commission*).
- **Obsolete**: A term which was previously used to denote a concept, but is no longer in use (*Fisheries, Food and Health Directorate* vs. *Fisheries Directorate*).
- **Proposed**: A term or denomination which has been proposed but not yet fully adopted (*Grupo de Referencia ADA*).

In our subset, term evaluation presents some subtle differences between English and Spanish. The low-evaluation categories «Admitted» and «Deprecated», which account for 7 and 6 entries respectively in English, have less or no assignation in Spanish. This result may come from the fact that there is more variation at the drafters' level (usually English is the source language) than at the translators' level, where terminology consistency is expected to be addressed more carefully, and there are more tools available and used for term recognition and term verification. Turning to commonalities, the remarkable number of «Obsolete» entries (221 in English, 199 in Spanish) may point towards a short-living onomastic field, where the names of institutions are frequently changed on the basis of political decisions.

4.2. *Ad hoc templates for the teaching of names*

The IATE categories described in Section 4.1. provide a wide range of possible activities for the translation and interpreting trainees, from documentation searches (e.g., by looking up the corresponding onomastic definitions in IATE or other external sources) to terminological quality assurance based on reliability and evaluation, plus the alignment and creation of bilingual glossaries. In this first didactic contribution, however, we would like to show three examples of how ad hoc templates can be a fruitful method for acquiring a basic knowledge of CxG, name translation, and name drafting in multiple languages.

The three depicted templates are quite similar to a «fill the table» or cloze exercise, with the exception that they combine repetition with subtle variations, in order to grasp the memetic yet ever-changing nature of linguistic constructions. Once cross-lingual and/or monolingual repetitions or variations have been filled and notated (e.g., *Committee of Fisheries* vs. *Comisión de Pesca*, *Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en Austria* vs. *Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en el Reino Unido*), the students must come up with two final schematic constructions which can comprise all previous individual instances, like [$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}\ \underline{\quad}_{\text{N.TRANSLATION}}$ *Unit*] in English or [*Comisión de* NP] in Spanish. The templates contain eight names each, sorted by difficulty (Template 1: easy, Template 2: medium, Template 3: advanced), and all selected instances have gone through the following filter:

- Domain: institutional structure; European Parliament.
- Type: Term.
- Reliability: Reliable, Very Reliable.
- Evaluation: Preferred, Admitted, Proposed, and non-evaluated (neutral).

The initial pool of names is delimited by domain (European Parliament) to make our proposal more coherent and relatable to a possible translation assignment. Multi-word organization names are generally preferred to illustrate the complexity and pedagogical value of institutional onomastic construction. Complex organization names usually form an onymic subsystem with close contact to similar appellative, multi-word nominal expressions (Knappová, 2017). They are formed by a nominal header of appellative, non-onymic origin (*Bank*) to which different types of modifiers adhere (*Central European Bank*, *European Investment Bank*, etc.) These modifiers add a prestigious social significance to the appellative headers, building names which are culturally and socially worth learning.

A word of caution may be noted before moving on to the proposed templates. From our point of view, it is clear that Construction Grammar is not a comprehensive translation and interpreting theory, nor does intend to be. Rather, CxG is a linguistic approach which can provide translation trainees and professionals with a systematic metalanguage (the constructional notation) that can boost their comprehension, and especially their production skills, in the source and target language simultaneously. CxG is not intended to directly address issues such as individual translation briefings or textual assignments, although it can do so through the hints that linguistic constructions leave on their trace. Therefore, CxG exercises would be most profitable by being auxiliar to texts or speeches, combined (or not) with the consultation of external documentation resources depending on the teaching needs or the desired difficulty degree.

4.2.1. First template

Template 1 is a warm-up with the names of some translation departments from the European Parliament. Here, the student should carefully observe the English schematic construction [$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ $\underline{\quad}_{\text{N.TRANSLATION}}$ *Unit*]. The first slot, $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$, is reserved for nationalities, language names, or religious or political groups. The second slot, $\underline{\quad}_{\text{N.TRANSLATION}}$, has both a morphological and semantical restriction (the word must be a Noun and refer to the semantic field of translation, i.e., *Translation* or *Interpretation*). Since this scheme only allows for language names, a finer semantic distinction could also be made in the first slot, notating all the instances as $\underline{\quad}_{\text{LANGUAGE}}$ instead. As in Template 2 below, these are all interesting cases of imbrication or nesting, that is, names made out of smaller names.

The use of only one $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ slot in Spanish is another interesting remark which deviates from the norm. In most Spanish onymic or appellative constructions, the nouns *traducción* and *interpretación* are constructed differently, i.e., followed by a hyphenated [$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$-$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$] construction (*la asignatura Traducción Audiovisual Inglés-Español se imparte los miércoles*) or by the prepositional phrase [*del* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *al* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$] (*las traducciones que me envían suelen ser del neerlandés al español, pero casi nunca a la inversa*). In the European Parliament Translation and Interpretation Units, however, this would not make sense because the possible language directions are extenuating. The adopted solution is to employ one slot to refer to the Unit as a whole, given that EU translators and interpreters always work into their native tongue. This feature, combined with the

EP Translation and Interpretation Units			
EN_Name	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
Bulgarian Interpretation Unit	[___$_{NORP}$ *Interpretation Unit*]	Unidad de la Interpretación Búlgara	[*Unidad de la Interpretación* ___$_{NORP}$]
Croatian Interpretation Unit			
	[___$_{NORP}$ *Interpretation Unit*]		
			[*Unidad de la Interpretación* ___$_{NORP}$]
Dutch Translation Unit	[___$_{NORP}$ *Translation Unit*]	Unidad de la Traducción Neerlandesa	[*Unidad de la Traducción* ___$_{NORP}$]
		Unidad de la Traducción Inglesa	
			[*Unidad de la Traducción* ___$_{NORP}$]
	[___$_{NORP}$ *Translation Unit*]		
	[___$_{NORP}$ ___$_{N.TRANSLATION}$ *Unit*]		

Template 1. Exercise with EN-ES onomastic constructions (Translation and Interpretation Units).

oddly mid-positioned *la*, could alternatively indicate that the Spanish construction is inherited from the French (*Unité de la traduction/l'interpretation française*), as it is thought for several EU-related Spanish terms (Garrido Nombela, 1996).

4.2.2. Second template

Template 2 refers to a number of European Parliament Liaison Offices (EPLOs). These bureaus are located in capital cities and responsible for the local implementation of institutional communication activities. They engage with citizens and stakeholders, manage contacts with national, regional and local media, and provide support to EU politicians (European Parliament, 2023). Template 2 is arguably more difficult; imbricated names and slight morphosyntactic differences in each entry must be correctly notated and still associated to a common scheme at the end.

EP Liaison Offices			
EN_Name	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
European Parliament Liaison Office in Austria	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* ___GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en Austria	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* ___GPE]
European Parliament Liaison Office in Belgium			
	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* ___GPE]		[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* ___GPE]
European Parliament Liaison Office in the Czech Republic	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* ___the GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en la República Checa	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* ___ART GPE]
		Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en los Países Bajos	
	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* ___the GPE]		[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* ___ART GPE]
European Parliament Liaison Office ASEAN	[*European Parliament Liaison Office* ___ORG]	Oficina de Enlace Parlamento Europeo ASEAN	
EP-US Congress Liaison Office in Washington DC		Oficina de Enlace PE-Congreso de los Estados Unidos en Washington D. C.	[*Oficina de Enlace* PE-___ORG *en* ___GPE]
	[___EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT *Liaison Office* ___ENT]		

Template 2. Exercise with EN-ES onomastic constructions (Liaison Offices).

A subgroup of names (*European Parliament Liaison Office in Belgium, Oficina del Parlamento Europeo en Austria*) presents just one slot for a geopolitical entity, in this case a country: [*European Parliament Liaison Office in* $\_\__{\mathrm{GPE}}$]. Similar constructs subtly place a definite article before the country[21] (*European Parliament Liaison Office in the Czech Republic*), a fixed form that must be notated in italics, as in [*European Parliament Liaison Office in* $\_\__{\textit{the}\ \mathrm{GPE}}$]. The Spanish article changes inflection between names, which should be notated with the morphological paradigm ART instead, as in [*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* $\_\__{\mathrm{ART\ GPE}}$].

Two other names present slots for organizations. The first is *European Parliament Liaison Office ASEAN*, a bureau for contacts with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations. It is notated as [*European Parliament Liaison Office* $\_\__{\mathrm{ORG}}$]. The Spanish equivalent leaves the acronym ASEAN untranslated for a possible number of reasons: the association might not have a consolidated equivalent in Spanish, their members might prefer to be recognized univocally in English, or the fact that it can be read as a word facilitates its incorporation in Spanish without translating the acronym[22]. The other name is *EP-US Congress Liaison Office in Washington DC*. This case considerably differs from the rest of the template: the reference to the European Parliament is abbreviated and hyphenated to a foreign organization (*US Congress*), and the GPE slot is filled with a city instead of a country (*Washington DC*). It does not only mean a challenging notation, but also leads to think that in this particular name American symbolism may be highlighted over European. As in many other EU-related organization names, the two cases described in this paragraph could be heavily influenced by the pragmatics of institutional mediation.

4.2.3. Third template

Template 3 is considered the most difficult because it focuses on notation. The students must be very familiar with the metalanguage of constructions before undertaking this kind of exercise, to which several solutions are possible, both at a substantive and at a schematic level.

For example, the first four names (*Committee on Development*, *Committee on Budgets*, *Committee on Fisheries* and *Comisión de Peticiones*) can be simply notated as [*Committee on* N] in English and [*Comisión de* N] in Spanish. However, it could also be observed that *Committee on Development* and its translation are constructed in singular while the other three are constructed in plural, making a possible distinction

21. This topic has been specifically addressed by Onomastics before; see Berezowski (1997).

22. The readability factor might have also influenced other popular cases of non-translated, international organization acronyms in Spanish, e.g., *FAO*, *UNESCO,* or *UNICEF*.

EP committees			
EN_Name	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
Committee on Development		Comisión de Desarrollo	
Committee on Budgets		Comisión de Presupuestos	
Committee on Fisheries			
		Comisión de Peticiones	
Committee on Regional Development		Comisión de Desarrollo Regional	
Committee on Constitutional Affairs		Comisión de Asuntos Constitucionales	
		Comisión de Asuntos Jurídicos	
Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development			

Template 3. Exercise with EN-ES onomastic constructions (EP committees).

between [*Committee on* N(SG)] and [*Committee on* N(PL)]. At any case, students must carefully check whether the number would change or not in each Spanish counterpart.

The second set of names is constructionally more complex and allows for different notations, too. A high level of schematicity still provides an easy outcome, notating *Committee on Regional Development*, *Committee on Constitutional Affairs* and *Comisión de Asuntos Jurídicos*[23] as [*Committee on* ADJ N] and [*Comisión de* N ADJ] respectively, and *Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development* as [*Committee on* N *and* ADJ N]. A more fine-grained option would be to notate *Committee on Constitutional Affairs* as [*Committee on* $\_\_\__{\mathrm{AFFAIRS}}$] or [*Committee on* $\_\_\__{\mathrm{NP.AFFAIRS}}$], arguing that there exist other EP committees constructed with this noun (*Committee on Civil Liberties, Justice and Home Affairs, Committee on Economic and Monetary Affairs*, etc.)[24]. The last alter-

23. In this case, students must also beware the correct English equivalent of the adjective *Jurídicos*.

24. This could be another possible trace of French-inherited organization naming.

native would be to group together *Committee on Development, Committee on Regional Development* and *Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development* as [*Committee on* $\_\_\__{\text{DEVELOPMENT}}$], with no further morphological restrictions, given the formal variety of such names. All these notational variations would not be creations or subjective perceptions of the trainees, but actual constructions with functional differences between each other, located at higher or lower levels of the schematicity cline.

5. CONCLUSION

This study exploits a bilingual dataset of EU organization names in English and Spanish downloaded from IATE, with the aim of building a proposal for the teaching of names in the translation and/or interpreting classroom. Whereas the dataset was slightly larger in English (2,176 entries) than in Spanish (1,821 entries), the numbers confirm a rich and updated onomastic collection for both languages. More specifically, 96 % of the entries (3,837) presented cascading domains, 66 % (2,647 entries) were very reliable, and only 8 % (313 entries) were deprecated or obsolete, which in total makes for a fairly healthy dataset. Contrarily, a few 15 % of the entries (619) were labelled as linguistic forms different than terms, with just 0.02 % (1 entry) labelled as a phrase (and indeed wrongly). Such negative counterpart suggests that EU terminography still needs to open to the wide variety of symbols through which specialized knowledge can be represented, including (but not limited to) abbreviations, phraseology, short forms, constructional notation, and non-linguistic forms (pictures, audio, and multimedia).

Moving further to our didactic proposal, we have presented some basic strategies to make Onomastics and Construction Grammar more accessible to translation and/or interpreting students. To this end, three sample template exercises (easy, medium, and advanced difficulty) were designed and presented. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to propose the learning and teaching of multilingual names through a constructional approach, and, generally speaking, possibly one of the first to explore the intersections of Onomastic, CxG, and language training. Despite empirical data are still needed regarding the performance and suitability of the templates for trainees, this type of exercise is replicable and flexible enough to be also used by fellow grammarians, onomasticians, and translation scholars. Its systematicity and synergy with Named Entity Recognition makes it a good candidate for automatization and/or combination with NLP tools throughout the learning process, as some cutting-edge translation and interpreting platforms are already exploring.

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ANNEX I: ANSWER KEY FOR TEMPLATES

note: some entries may admit alternative solutions.

Template 1

EP Translation and Interpretation Units				
IATE ID	**EN_Name**	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
3587233	Bulgarian Interpretation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Interpretation Unit*]	Unidad de la Interpretación Búlgara	[*Unidad de la Interpretación* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587235	Croatian Interpretation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Interpretation Unit*]	Unidad de la Interpretación Croata	[*Unidad de la Interpretación* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587224	Czech Interpretation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Interpretation Unit*]	Unidad de la Interpretación Checa	[*Unidad de la Interpretación* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587662	Danish Interpretation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Interpretation Unit*]	Unidad de la Interpretación Danesa	[*Unidad de la Interpretación* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587220	Dutch Translation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Translation Unit*]	Unidad de la Traducción Neerlandesa	[*Unidad de la Traducción* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587400	English Translation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Translation Unit*]	Unidad de la Traducción Inglesa	[*Unidad de la Traducción* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587225	Estonian Translation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Translation Unit*]	Unidad de la Traducción Estonia	[*Unidad de la Traducción* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
3587222	Finnish Translation Unit	[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ *Translation Unit*]	Unidad de la Traducción Finesa	[*Unidad de la Traducción* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]
		[$\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$ $\underline{\quad}_{\text{N.TRANSLATION}}$ *Unit*]		[*Unidad de la* $\underline{\quad}_{\text{N.TRANSLATION}}$ $\underline{\quad}_{\text{NORP}}$]

Template 2

EP Liaison Offices				
IATE ID	**EN_Name**	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
3587488	European Parliament Liaison Office in Austria	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en Austria	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __GPE]
3587476	European Parliament Liaison Office in Belgium	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en Bélgica	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __GPE]
3587499	European Parliament Liaison Office in Bulgaria	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en Bulgaria	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __GPE]
3587496	European Parliament Liaison Office in the Czech Republic	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __the GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en la República Checa	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __ART GPE]
3587480	European Parliament Liaison Office in the Netherlands	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __the GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en los Países Bajos	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __ART GPE]
3587482	European Parliament Liaison Office in the United Kingdom	[*European Parliament Liaison Office in* __the GPE]	Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en el Reino Unido	[*Oficina de Enlace del Parlamento Europeo en* __ART GPE]
3587602	European Parliament Liaison Office ASEAN	[*European Parliament Liaison Office* __ORG]	Oficina de Enlace Parlamento Europeo ASEAN	[*Oficina de Enlace Parlamento Europeo* __ORG]
3587647	EP-US Congress Liaison Office in Washington DC	[*EP-*__ORG *Liaison Office in* __GPE]	Oficina de Enlace PE-Congreso de los Estados Unidos en Washington D. C.	[*Oficina de Enlace* PE-__ORG *en* __GPE]
		[__EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT *Liaison Office* __ENT]		[*Oficina de Enlace* __EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT __ENT]

Template 3

EP Committees				
IATE ID	**EN_Name**	**EN_Construction**	**ES_Name**	**ES_Construction**
3553171	Committee on Development	[*Committee on* N]	Comisión de Desarrollo	[*Comisión de* N]
3553173	Committee on Budgets	[*Committee on* N]	Comisión de Presupuestos	[*Comisión de* N]
3553183	Committee on Fisheries	[*Committee on* N]	Comisión de Pesca	[*Comisión de* N]
3553189	Committee on Petitions	[*Committee on* N]	Comisión de Peticiones	[*Comisión de* N]
3553181	Committee on Regional Development	[*Committee on* ADJ N]	Comisión de Desarrollo Regional	[*Comisión de* N ADJ]
3553187	Committee on Constitutional Affairs	[*Committee on* ADJ N]	Comisión de Asuntos Constitucionales	[*Comisión de* N ADJ]
3553185	Committee on Legal Affairs	[*Committee on* ADJ N]	Comisión de Asuntos Jurídicos	[*Comisión de* N ADJ]
3553182	Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development	[*Committee on* N *and* ADJ N]	Comisión de Agricultura y Desarrollo Rural	[*Comisión de* N y N ADJ]
		[*Committee on* NP]		[*Comisión de* NP]

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Errors in Specialized Translation Training: A Corpus-Based Study on the Sight Translation of a Popular Science Article

Errores en el marco de la enseñanza de la traducción especializada: un estudio sobre un corpus de traducción a la vista de un artículo de divulgación científica

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Abstract: In recent years, sight translation (SiT), the oral translation of a written text, has received little attention in the sphere of translator training. Rather, this practice has been almost exclusively studied within the framework of interpreting. Yet, based on the examination of the master's programs in translation (Giancola, 2022) recognized by the European Master's in Translation (EMT) (European Commission, 2022c), SiT is used, although rarely, as a course per se or as occasional exercises in translation training. Additionally, Dragsted and Hansen (2009) have emphasized its relevance and its benefits for translation students, which include improving speed rate, acquiring automatisms, and being more fluent. Based on these preliminary observations, the present study focuses on error patterns and speech disfluencies in SiT as part of specialized translation training. The study rests upon a corpus of twenty English-to-French SiTs of a popular science article about astrophysics performed by specialized translation students (Meyers, 2022). Building on existing work on errors in SiT, this study aims to find out the different error patterns observed in the corpus and the impact of speech disfluencies on the overall quality of the output. To analyze the corpus, an error typology in line with SiT has been developed based on established error analysis frameworks, such as MQM (Lommel et al., 2015) and Falbo's typology (1998), combined with new categories. Analysis of the corpus demonstrated the significant prevalence of meaning errors ($p < 0.05$), with a high number of terminological issues. This study also established the statistically significant association between errors and speech disfluencies ($p < 0.05$). The results suggest that SiT error patterns in specialized translation training differ from the observations made in the context of interpreting and that speech disfluencies negatively influence the overall performance. On this basis, it is recommended to explore SiT in specialized translation training independently and target speech disfluencies to enhance performance. Future research is needed to identify the ins and outs of SiT as part of specialized translation training —for instance, in legal translation training— and to determine whether it should become an integral part of the curriculum.

Keywords: Error assessment; Sight translation; Specialized translation training; Speech disfluencies.

Resumen: En los últimos años, la traducción a la vista, es decir, la traducción oral de un texto escrito, ha recibido poca atención en el ámbito de la formación de traductores. Más bien, esta práctica se ha estudiado casi exclusivamente en el marco de la interpretación. Sin embargo, el examen de los programas de máster en traducción (Giancola, 2022) reconocidos por la red *European Master's in Translation* (EMT) (Comisión Europea, 2022c) ha demostrado que la traducción a la vista se utiliza, aunque raramente, como curso propio o como ejercicios ocasionales en la formación en traducción. Además, Dragsted y Hansen (2009) han destacado su relevancia y sus beneficios para los estudiantes de traducción, incluso la mejora de la velocidad, la adquisición de automatismos y una mayor fluidez. Partiendo de estas observaciones preliminares, el presente estudio se centra en las tendencias de error y las disfluencias del habla en la traducción a la vista en el ámbito de la enseñanza de la traducción especializada. El estudio se basa en un corpus de veinte traducciones a la vista del inglés al francés de un artículo de divulgación científica sobre astrofísica realizadas por estudiantes de traducción especializada (Meyers, 2022). Partiendo de los trabajos existentes sobre los errores en la traducción a la vista, este estudio pretende averiguar las distintas tendencias de error observadas en el corpus y el impacto de las disfluencias del habla sobre la calidad general. Para analizar el corpus, se ha desarrollado una tipología de errores acorde con la traducción a la vista basada en tipologías de errores establecidas, como MQM (Lommel et al., 2015) y la tipología de Falbo (1998), y combinada con nuevas categorías. El análisis del corpus demostró la prevalencia significativa de errores de significado ($p < 0{,}05$), con un elevado número de problemas terminológicos. Este estudio también estableció la correlación estadísticamente significativa entre los errores y las disfluencias ($p < 0,05$). Los resultados sugieren que los errores de traducción a la vista en el ámbito de la formación en traducción especializada difieren de las observaciones realizadas en el contexto de la interpretación y que las disfluencias del habla influyen negativamente en el rendimiento general. Sobre esta base, se recomienda explorar, de forma independiente, la traducción a la vista en la formación en traducción especializada y centrarse en las disfluencias del habla para mejorar el rendimiento. En el futuro, habrá que investigar los pormenores de la traducción a la vista en el contexto de la formación en traducción especializada —por ejemplo, en la formación en traducción jurídica— y determinar si debería formar parte integrante del plan de estudios.

Palabras clave: evaluación de errores; traducción a la vista; enseñanza de la traducción especializada; disfluencias del habla.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Aim of study

Translation pedagogy acknowledges that «there is clearly a place for a plurality of approaches and learning activities within a given curriculum, depending on student profiles, group heterogeneity, and intended outcomes» (Massey, 2017, p. 510). Among these approaches, we find exercises that stand out from written translation, such as sight translation (SiT), which is taught to interpreting and translation students.

SiT is defined as a hybrid task involving the oral translation of a written text (Dragsted & Hansen, 2009; Mellinger, 2017). It is a mix of translation and interpreting, the ST being in a written format and the delivery of the message being oral, like an interpreter who translates aloud a written speech. Generally, the exercise is divided into two main steps: students are given a text and have 5 to 10 minutes to read and prepare it without checking resources such as dictionaries or the Internet; then, they orally translate the written text. Although the practice of SiT by translation students has been shown to be helpful to improve speed rate, acquire automatisms, analyze the ST quicker, translate quicker and become more fluent (Dragster & Hansen, 2009), the study of SiT has most exclusively been analyzed in the realm of interpreting and has received little attention in the sphere of translation training. Yet, based on our own professional experience and that of colleagues, this tool is used in translation by international organizations, such as the UN and the European Commission. Translators are sometimes required to sight translate short communications, especially in times of crisis. It is therefore a real asset to have students, our future translators, capable of mastering this type of translation once on the job market.

Furthermore, the absence of any existing typology to study errors in SiT raises the challenge to find or create the appropriate tool to gauge SiT output. SiT being a hybrid between written translation and interpreting, as previously stated, it would be relevant to have a typology that is at the crossroads of these two practices.

In that regard, the aim of the present paper is to build an error typology for SiT and analyze errors and speech disfluencies made by translation students during their specialized translation course in order to portray error trends, suggest avenues of reflection to teachers, and ultimately contribute to the development and improvement of SiT training for translation students.

A corpus of twenty English-to-French SiTs performed by master translation students was selected for the analysis. To analyze this corpus, we developed an error typology by adapting and merging three existing typologies which were aimed at other purposes: the MQM typology (Lommel et al., 2015) developed for machine translation quality assessment, Falbo's typology of interpreting errors (1998), and Shreve et al.'s speech disfluency taxonomy (2011).

Although we specifically focused on a group of master students, the developed typology is not exclusively intended to analyze SiTs made by master students and could also be applied to SiTs by any other translation students.

1.2. *The training of students on specialized translation*

Translation pedagogy has emerged as a whole branch of translation studies in the study of and the search for «the best way of training translators and interpreters, and […] has remained a key concern of applied translation and interpreting studies» (Whyatt, 2022, p. 244). The aim of translation pedagogy is to equip students with sets of competences during their curriculum that will be useful. It is therefore centered around the notion of translation competence.

Nevertheless, there is a noticeable lack of research in the training of students in specialized translation. Although specialized translation is a fundamental backbone of the translation training as stated in the «competence framework» developed by the *European Master's in Translation*, literature on the training of students is scarce. The EMT is a network of universities across Europe, which have been awarded a quality label for their master program in translation (European Commission, 2022b). The selected programs must meet a set of professional standards and market requirements to become part of the network. The skills set by the European Commission reflect the market needs in the EU context, and therefore the current trends. Although it is important to highlight that the quantity of translation produced by other stakeholders, including specialized translation, is vast. These criteria encompass five areas of competence: language and culture, translation, technology, personal and interpersonal, and service provision. According to the translation competence of the EMT 2022 competence framework, translation students should «acquire, develop and use thematic and domain-specific knowledge relevant to translation needs (mastering systems of concepts, methods of reasoning, presentation standards, terminology and phraseology, specialised sources, etc.)» (European Commission, 2022a, p. 8). In other words, students are expected to master specialized translation by learning how to acquire more knowledge depending on the field of study of the ST and how to use specific tools and specialized sources to build a robust terminology database. Learning specialized translation holds therefore a central place in the translator's curriculum and is considered essential to provide students with all the necessary working tools before entering the professional market.

1.3. *Sight translation in the classroom*

The concept of translation is large and encompasses a variety of practices. SiT, which can be defined as the oral translation of a written text (Agrifoglio, 2004; Dragsted & Hansen, 2009; Setton & Motta, 2007), is one of them. SiT has received little attention in the training of translation students and has rather been studied under the scope of interpreting training, probably because it «appears to be closer to interpreting than to translation because the output is oral» (Dragsted & Hansen, 2009, p. 590).

Yet, an examination of 92 Master's programs (Giancola, 2022) recognized by the EMT (European Commission, 2022c) reveals that SiT is, although in a small proportion, present in the training of translation students, either as a course *per se* or as practical exercises within their curriculum. The practice of SiT in the classroom comes with several benefits that are closely associated with two key concepts of translation pedagogy: deliberate practice (e.g., Shreve, 2006) and self-reflection (e.g., Gile, 1994, 2004).

In general terms, deliberate practice is the regular practice of activities aimed at acquiring professional skills (Ericsson et al., 1993). Transposed to translation training, it can be defined as «regular engagement in specific activities directed at performance enhancement in [translation]» (Shreve, 2006, p. 29). According to Ericsson (1996, p. 21), deliberate practice can only occur under the following conditions: (i) the task must be well-defined, (ii) the level of difficulty of the task is appropriate for the learner, (iii) feedback is included in the task, (iv) there must be opportunities for repetitive practice and error correction, and (v) the practice must run on a significant period of time.

Either as a course *per se* or as practical exercises, SiT meets all the criteria of deliberate practice. First, the task of SiT is well-defined before the beginning of the session. It is often broken down into a preparation time and a production time: translation students are allotted a specific amount of time (generally a few minutes, but it can vary depending on the length and difficulty of the text) to read and annotate a short ST in a way that will help them in their SiT of the ST with no access to any type of resources, such as dictionaries or web pages. During the production task, students are asked to sight translate the ST (through the use of a headset if the exercise is given in a language lab) in the most intelligible way, with the fewest pauses and repetitions possible and according to the standards of translation acceptability (acquired throughout their whole curriculum). Second, texts selected for SiT exercises are adapted to the task: they are short and their difficulty appropriate for learners. This allows translation students to maintain a good level of attention. Third, since SiT is practiced on short texts, it leaves room for immediate informative feedback during the course. Immediate feedback is beneficial because it allows the translation trainer to correct errors «on the spot» and leave a deeper mark in the students' mind. Fourth, students have multiple opportunities to practice SiT either at home or in class. If SiT is practiced at home, teachers can still provide feedback by asking students to upload their performance on a MOOC platform. If it is practiced in class, several STs can be the object of SiT within a single course. Finally, whenever SiT is included in several courses (usually one or two courses per B languages), students have the opportunity to practice SiT multiple times on a weekly basis throughout the school year.

Additionally, courses of SiT allow students to self-reflect on their practice and progress. Indeed, students practicing SiT in language labs are given the possibility to directly listen to their production and retrospectively compare it to the correction provided. Dragsted & Hansen (2009, p. 602) stress three main benefits associated with the deliberate practice of SiT: improved speed rate of delivery, automatism acquisition in the choice of «fast-and-ready solutions», and enhanced fluence in the processing of larger translation units.

Retrospective self-reflection leads to student empowerment, which is «a process in which the learner occupies a central position in the classroom and is actively involved in experiential collaborative learning followed by self-reflection» (Whyatt, 2022, p. 248). Moreover, the retrospective self-reflection that comes with the practice of SiT is a stepping-stone to experiential learning. Following Kolb's (1984) four-stage experiential learning model, Massey (2019) argues that translation students are empowered by (i) engaging in concrete experience, which triggers (ii) self-reflection on that experience. Students then reach (iii) abstract conceptualization learned from the experience and become able (iv) to apply the acquired knowledge to other settings.

Moreover, a growing number of scholars agree that translation and interpreting students should be given the opportunity to train on off-center practices, that are skills-based and transferable to other activities (Calvo, 2011) in order to «provide more than traditional translation services» (Gaspari et al., 2015, p. 336) and hence to better fit the ever-changing job market.

Other scholars, such as Dragsted & Hansen (2009), even encourage translators and translation students to integrate SiT as a deliberate practice in their daily routine because of its high time and effort efficiency when jointly practiced with a speech recognition software: «Our analyses support our overall assumption that working in the oral modality, *speaking your translation*, using speech recognition technologies, which are rapidly gaining ground, seems to have a lot to offer in terms of saving time and effort without compromising the output quality significantly» (Dragsted & Hansen, 2009, p. 602). They also highlight that time saved can also be repurposed for revision. According to the experience of our colleagues, it was common practice, in the past, to record SiTs using a dictaphone and have them transcribed by typists at a later time (although some translators keep on using this tool to translate more quickly). This process was a time saver and allowed translators and/or revisers to produce a final, revised version by correcting the typed draft. SiT is also often used in on-site interpreting, especially in public service and institutional settings. These examples highlight the practical applications of SiT and underscore the importance of training students in this skill.

Nevertheless, although the practice of SiT comes with several benefits and although there are many opportunities to study this particular form of translation, especially in any translation classroom where SiT is taught, there is a noticeable lack of research in SiT. It is our belief that translation studies underexploit the potential of case studies (Massey, 2017, p. 510) and that more «hands-on» research on SiT is necessary as case-studies increase our «understanding of the processes involved in the development of translator competence» (Kiraly, 2013, p. 222).

1.4. *Error assessment in translation and sight translation*

Translation quality assessment is an integral part of the translation process, but the evaluation is often based upon personal judgment and subjectivity (Lommel et al., 2014). For instance, an incorrectly or imperfectly translated segment can be categorized as a certain type of error by some revisers and teachers, while others might consider it correct, classify it under another type of error, or just consider that it needs to be finessed. As a result, it is no surprise that analyzing translation errors, either for research or pedagogical purposes, can be very demanding, even with a well-developed error typology. As Baxter (2017) and Martín Martín (2010) have pointed out, it is challenging to establish an error typology that is objective, exhaustive, and capable of being applied globally, especially when assessing translation in pedagogical contexts because teachers tend to have their own way of identifying and assessing their students' productions. In addition, Lommel et al. (2014) consider that without clear general guidelines, quality assessment can fall short of objectivity, but it would be hard to come up with a universal error tagging for translation quality, since translation is not an exact science. However, this underexplored scientific area provides the perfect space for investigating and developing the potential of an error typology for each form of translation (i.e., written translation, machine translation, interpreting and SiT) that could be applied on a large scale with exhaustive guidelines and could provide a framework to reduce subjectivity and increase accuracy.

Although there is no single error framework that has been put forward to be used globally in translation, the literature on the matter agrees on the fact that meaning accuracy holds a central place in translation, and even interpreting, quality. Even if the classification and identification of errors can be knotty (Gile, 1997/2002; Havnen, 2019; Stenzl, 1983), there are also clear aspects that stand out, such as expression and grammar (form errors), on the one hand, and meaning issues (content errors), on the other hand (Agrifoglio, 2004; Falbo, 1998; Gile, 1984, 1989, 1995, 1997/2002).

When it comes to SiT, studies have been conducted on errors, mostly in the realm of interpreting (Agrifoglio, 2004; Gile, 1983, 1985a, 1990, 1995), but it remains under-explored (Li, 2014). Some have analyzed errors between written and SiT (Baxter, 2017; Dragsted & Hansen, 2009), while others have compared SiT with simultaneous and consecutive interpreting, notably Agrifoglio (2004). However, it appears that no error typology specifically designed for SiT has been developed so far. Yet, error analysis, and thus a proper error typology, is essential to investigate trends, but also highlight the advantages and shortcomings of SiT and draw recommendations to improve its practice among translators and translation students.

2. OBJECTIVES

Based on the above observations, the objective of the paper is twofold. The first objective is to present an error taxonomy which can be specifically used to assess the quality of SiT. The second objective is to present a thorough analysis of a SiT corpus through the application of the proposed error taxonomy, and therefore to highlight key trends in different error categories. With this approach, we are also measuring two aspects: how useful and appropriate this combined error detection tool is and how better it helps us to categorize students' performance.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. *An error taxonomy for sight translation*

3.1.1. Overview of the typology

Before exploring the details behind the development of our error typology in SiT, it is crucial to provide an overview of the typology itself, including its various categories and subcategories. The typology is constructed based on a set of criteria such as the type of error, its source, and the context in which it occurs. The creation of this specialized error typology for SiT was made possible by the combination of two established error frameworks, one used in translation called Multidmensional Quality Metrics (Lommel et al., 2015b) and one in interpreting called *grille d'erreurs en interpretation* (Falbo, 1998); our own implementation of a more comprehensive approach towards mistranslation errors; and one speech disfluency taxonomy (Shreve et al., 2011).

By organizing errors into distinct categories and subcategories, the typology facilitates the identification and analysis of different types of errors, enabling researchers and teachers to gain a better understanding of their causes and effects. Thus, in order to fully comprehend the rationale behind the creation of our error typology, it is essential to first have a clear portray of its categories and subcategories.

Before delving into our final typology presented in Figure 1, the nomenclature and definitions employed to denote the groupings and subdivisions of the ultimate typology utilized is hereby explicitly established to ensure accuracy and lucidity:

1. The term «division» refers to the three categories that divide the typology into three main subgroups: the content division, the form division and the speech division.
2. The term «dimension» relates to each high-level category that falls under one of the divisions and that comprehends all the relevant issue types associated with the dimension (Lommel et al., 2015a).
3. The term «issue type» is employed when mentioning a category from a determined dimension that portrays a particular type of error (Lommel et al., 2015a).
4. Finally, the term «error» is exclusively used when referring to a confirmed error found in a text (Lommel et al., 2015a).

The typology is divided into three main divisions: **content, form, and speech**. Each division contains subcategories called «dimensions».

In the **content division**, which focuses on the shifts in meaning, there are two dimensions: accuracy and terminology.

Accuracy holds eight issue types:

- omission: content is missing from the translation that is present in the source (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- addition: the target text includes text not present in the source (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- lexical mistranslation: the translator uses the wrong translation among the translation possibilities of a word that could have otherwise been translated that way in another context (our own addition to the typology);
- mistranslation: the target content does not entirely represent the source content, with a target segment that can be less or more specific and intense than the source segment (our own addition to the typology);
- nonsense: the translation of the source content makes no sense (our own addition to the typology);
- opposite meaning: the target content conveys the opposite meaning of the source content (our own addition to the typology);
- overly literal: translation is overly literal (Lommel et al., 2015b); and
- false friend: the translation has incorrectly used a word that is superficially similar to the source word and does not correspond to a possible and correct translation of the SL word in any other context (Lommel et al., 2015b).

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Terminology holds one issue type:

- incorrect terminology: a term (domain-specific word) is translated with a term other than the one expected for the domain or otherwise specified (Lommel et al., 2015b).

In the **form division**, which focuses on form, grammar, syntax and style, there are two dimensions: grammar and style.

Grammar holds six issue types:

- agreement: two or more words do not agree with respect to case, number, person, or other grammatical features (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- part of speech: a word is the wrong part of speech (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- tense/mood/aspect: a verbal form displays the wrong tense, mood, or aspect (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- function words: a preposition, 'helping verb,' article, determiners used incorrectly (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- word order: the word order is incorrect (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- cohesion: portions of the text needed to connect it into an understandable whole (e.g., reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion) are missing (Lommel et al., 2015b).

Style holds three issue types:

- register: the text uses a level of formality higher or lower than required by the specifications or general language conventions (Lommel et al., 2015b);
- lexical awkwardness: words that are inappropriate to the context or do not exist, but thanks to the context, it is possible to understand what the speaker meant to say (Falbo, 1998);
- idiomatic awkwardness: expressions, in the broad sense, that are inappropriate to the context or do not exist, but thanks to the context, it is possible to understand what the speaker meant to say (Falbo, 1998).

In the **speech division**, we refer to speech disfluencies that can arise when sight translating. By speech disfluencies, we mean interruptions or disruptions in the flow of speech. There are four issue types:

- unfilled pause: interruptions in speech of at least one second that do not contain any phonetic content (Shreve et al., 2011);
- filled pause*:* interruptions in speech that are filled with utterances such as [euh] (Shreve et al., 2011);
- repetition: when the speaker repeats part of the utterance (Shreve et al., 2011);

– repair: when an utterance is repeated, but with an alteration to one or more constituents (for instance by replacement, omission, or insertion of words), and the other constituents generally preserved (Shreve et al.; 2011). Within the repair issue type, there is a distinction between announced and unannounced repairs:
  - announced repair: repairs for which students explicitly announce that they are correcting the initial segment by saying «excuse me,» «excuse me let me start again,» «sorry,» «no» (our own addition to the typology to determine whether students were used to announcing their repairs before correcting what they had just said);
  - unannounced repair: repairs for which students do not announce that they are correcting the initial segment (our own addition to the typology).

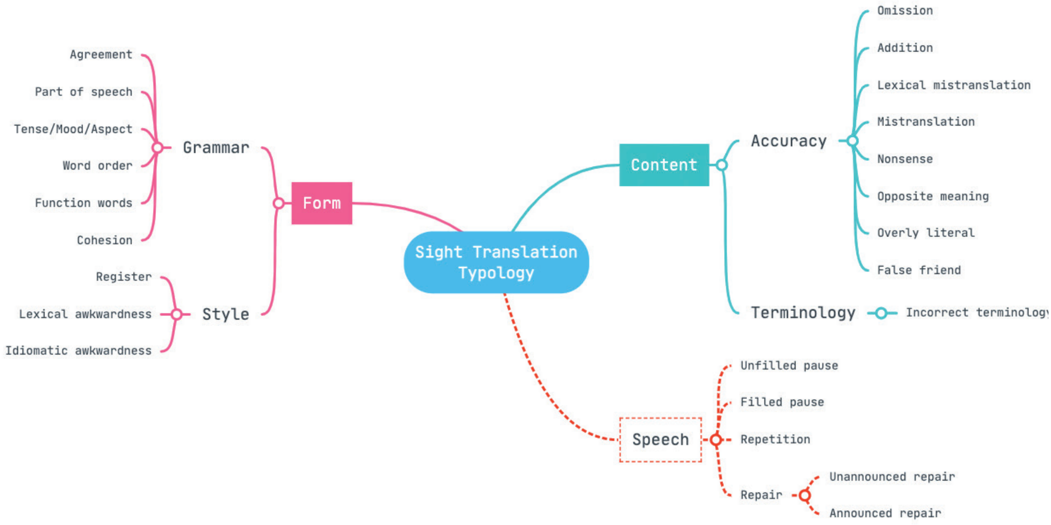

Figure 1: The SiT typology (mind map created with ©Mindmeister [MeisterLabs, 2022]).

3.1.2. The selection of established typologies for the development of the final typology

Considering that SiT is halfway between translation and interpreting (Agrifoglio, 2004), it was important to consider both aspects and thus consider typologies used in the two practices. There might be some error categories that could apply to both interpreting and SiT, since both contain an oral dimension (Gile, 1997/2002), while there might be categories that are only addressed in translation and SiT as they both share a common written denominator that interpreting does not have. Consequently, two established frameworks, one in translation and one in interpreting, were analyzed and used to develop the final error taxonomy of our study: the Multidimensional Quality Metrics (MQM) by Lommel et al. (2015) and Falbo's interpreting typology (1998). Additionally, we worked on a more thorough approach for dealing with mistranslation errors by creating new categories. Finally, Shreve et al's speech disfluency typology used in SiT was also incorporated into the framework to address the speech disfluencies (i.e., any interruption or disruption in the flow of speech) that arise when sight translating.

First, MQM was promising because it offers structured customization and «provides a framework for describing and defining quality metrics used to assess the quality of translated texts and to identify specific issues in those texts» (Lommel et al., 2015a, «Introduction [non-normative]»). It is designed to assess translation quality and applies to any translated content, be it machine translation or human translation. It is therefore not strictly limited to machine translation. Furthermore, «it provides a functional approach to quality that seeks to see whether a translation meets specifications and to identify aspects that may fall short of expectations.» (Lommel et al., 2015a, «Scope»). The framework is based on a wide range of categories and subcategories of issues, i.e., «a potential error detected in a text» (2015a, 2. Terms and definitions). Each of these issue types is accompanied by a definition and a set of criteria, such as examples in context.

Second, we focused on Falbo's taxonomy (1998), which is used in the interpreting field and focuses on contributing to research in this area and on providing interpreting students with an evaluation grid that highlights the errors they made. As far as her typology is concerned, it was developed as an analytical framework divided into two main categories: content and form. The «content» subcategories revolve around translation loss, that is to say, «the incomplete replication of the source language text in the target language text» (Dizdar, 2014, p. 2). The «form» subcategories revolve around grammatical, lexical, and idiomatic issues.

However, during the analysis of the typologies, we realized that the mistranslation issue type proposed by MQM did not entirely match our needs and was too vague. MQM defines a mistranslation as follows: «the target content does not accurately represent the source content» (Lommel et al., 2015b, 1.2. Detailed listing of MQM issue types). Nevertheless, this definition is overly general, and it does not entirely encompass all the patterns and severity levels of meaning errors that one may encounter in a text. Yet, the core of translation assessment rests upon the fidelity of the ST (e.g., Dragsted & Hansen, 2009; Gile, 1995). In fact, the meaning transfer of a translation perfectly reflecting the ST must be correct, precise, and complete (Dussart, 2005). Consequently, if the ST is mistranslated, then the translation does not faithfully convey the ST message. In the case of students, their main objective is to understand the ST and translate it into French by respecting the meaning conveyed by the ST (Dragsted & Hansen, 2009; Gile, 1995). Therefore, we decided to redefine the mistranslation issue type and add new issues to the accuracy dimension to tackle the different degrees of meaning issues so as to pinpoint flaws, provide an overview of the most common types of meaning errors, and ultimately adapt SiT training, if necessary. In that spirit, instead of only having one mistranslation issue type, we dug deeper and developed a more comprehensive approach to mistranslation by making a difference between a mistranslation (slight change in meaning), a lexical mistranslation (use of the wrong translation among the translation possibilities of a word that could have otherwise been translated that way in another context), a nonsense (a translated utterance that makes no sense), and an opposite meaning error (when the translated content is the opposite meaning of the source content).

Finally, a preliminary overview of the corpus revealed at first glance that the SiTs were filled with repetitions, pauses, and similar phenomena. It was therefore impossible to ignore this aspect. As Prak-Derrington (2011) puts it, translation—and by extension, SiT—is «a movement of reformulation from one language to another» (p. 293). SiT is noticeably confronted with this issue considering that sight translators, by translating a written text aloud after having had a few minutes of preparation (without resources), are at risk of introducing repetitions and other speech disfluencies. When translators «speak their translation», speech disfluencies can arise and take many forms, including repetitions of words or sounds, pauses, interjections such as «um» or «ah,» and other types of disruption. In fact, sight translators deliver a translation straightaway and do not have the ability to erase or review segments like in written translation. Moreover, while written translation allows translators to reflect before sending their final output, SiT does not offer such an option and is rather spontaneous.

Shreve et al. (2011) further stress this observation by stating that «because output in SiT must be verbalized, disruptions will manifest not just as errors or deficiencies in rendering, but also as speech disfluencies in the oral performance of the translation.» (p. 94). In fact, Shreve et al. (2011) have dedicated a whole study to SiT and speech disfluency to provide an overview of the cognitive phenomena in action when sight translating (with eye-tracking data, as well). These researchers' work and findings are the most comprehensive in the field of SiT. As a result, we thoroughly examined their work to incorporate and utilize it in our typology. Theirs is believed to be the only study that provides an in-depth focus on speech disfluencies in the realm of SiT. They developed their own speech typology based on a corpus-driven approach and put forward four categories of disfluencies that are thoroughly documented in the literature (Shreve et al., 2011, p. 98), and can be found in our own typology: unfilled pauses, filled pauses, repetitions, and repairs. It should be noted that the corpus for this study already included unfilled and filled pauses. Indeed, Meyers (2022) annotated the transcripts with unfilled and filled pauses of at least one second because pauses of 1-2 seconds have been shown to indicate some translation task-related cognitive processing (Dragsted & Hansen, 2009, p. 593).

The combination of existing issue types from MQM and Falbo, as well as our development of a more comprehensive mistranslation issue approach and the addition of Shreve et al.'s speech disfluency framework, contributed to the completion of an error typology specially designed for SiT, which has been portrayed in Figure 1.

3.2. *Compilation of a sight translation corpus*

To build this corpus, twenty Master students were asked, as part of their English-to-French specialized translation course, to sight translate an article from the *New Scientist* called «Looking into the Voids Could Help Explain Dark Energy» (Ananthaswamy, 2015). These students performed the task during their usual scientific and technical class (Meyers, 2021).

The ST is a popular science article written in English with a special focus on astrophysics. The text explains how voids in the universe may explain the existence of dark energy and lead to different scenarios for the faith of the universe. Since the study of voids and dark energy is still in its early stages, much of the information being discussed remains unproven and the observations are largely based on hypotheses. All the participants of the study sight translated the first 375 words of the article. It is important to highlight that we did not reveal the subject, nor did we give information or vocabulary prior to giving the text for the experiment, so we expected the students to struggle with some specialized terms that appear in the article.

To guarantee objectivity and impartiality of the experiment, students were not initially given any information about the conducted experiment. Instead, they were asked to perform a usual type of exercise they were given in class, namely the SiT from English to French of a popular science article from the *New Scientist*. They were given precisely ten minutes to read, prepare, and analyze the text without being allowed to use dictionaries or surf the Internet, relying only on context and their own knowledge. Then, they started recording their output in class through a headset with an integrated microphone. Once they had finished recording their SiT in the language lab, they were asked whether their target text (TT) could be used for research purposes. SiTs of students who had not given their consent for data use were immediately discarded. It is worth mentioning we did not measure time employed by each student when performing the exercise. After the experiment, the recordings were compiled and transcribed to build a corpus, which is available in .docx and .txt formats (Meyers, 2022). This corpus was chosen for the present study in order to analyze the errors made by the students and classify these in accordance with the proposed error typology tailor-made for SiT.

4. HYPOTHESES BASED ON THE FINAL TYPOLOGY

The study is expected to yield several outcomes:

- The participants in the experiment are students who may lack experience and are therefore more likely to make meaning errors. However, as they are master's students with translation skills, we do not anticipate many serious meaning errors that would significantly compromise the source text's message.

- Students may struggle with specialized terms as they are not familiar with the subject of the article and were not given any explanation before analyzing the text.
- Stress and cognitive overload may influence the output and result in different error trends. Baghi & Khoshsaligheh (2019) found that translation students tend to feel anxious and make errors when performing SiT, particularly when their coordination effort is saturated.
- There is a risk that the translator may inadvertently use a more informal register when delivering the oral translation because oral language is generally less formal than written language (Alic, 2020).
- Certain issue types, such as lexical mistranslation or overly literal translations, could be explained by the visual interference phenomenon associated with SiT.
- The study is expected to reveal many agreement errors as previous research has already identified agreement errors as the most common grammar errors in SiT (Agrifoglio, 2004).

5. ANALYSIS

Each TT was analyzed individually based on the SiT typology that we have already described. Each error found in the corpus was associated with the code of the corresponding error type. We decided to count every occurrence of error, even when the student made the same error more than once. The TTs were coded and analyzed, then converted into .txt files. The concordancer *AntConc* was subsequently used to identify, classify, and count the errors for each TT and for the overall output. AntConc (Anthony, 2020) is a «freeware corpus analysis toolkit for concordancing and text analysis» (Anthony, 2022, main page).

6. RESULTS

6.1. *Form or Content: which type prevails?*

Out of the three main categories already described (form, content and speech), content was the most prominently identified in the corpus. To determine the extent of this trend, a chi-squared test on the frequency of the content and form errors in all TTs was performed and gave rise to the following results: $\chi^2(19) = 30.957$, $p = 0.04082$. The results of the test show statistical significance ($p < 0.05$), but the effect size is weak (Cramer's $V = 0.187$). In other words, although the strength of difference is weak, the results are not due to mere chance, and there is a statistically significant difference between content and form errors, with more content errors in all TTs than form errors.

Additionally, the correlation between the two variables was analyzed to identify the general trend in data. In this case, the results show that the correlation is weak (r = 0.1024633). That is, if the number of content errors increases, then the number of form errors will slightly increase as well, and vice versa. In Figure 2, the linear regression is portrayed in red, while the blue dots represent the TTs. This linear regression shows the weak correlation between the two variables.

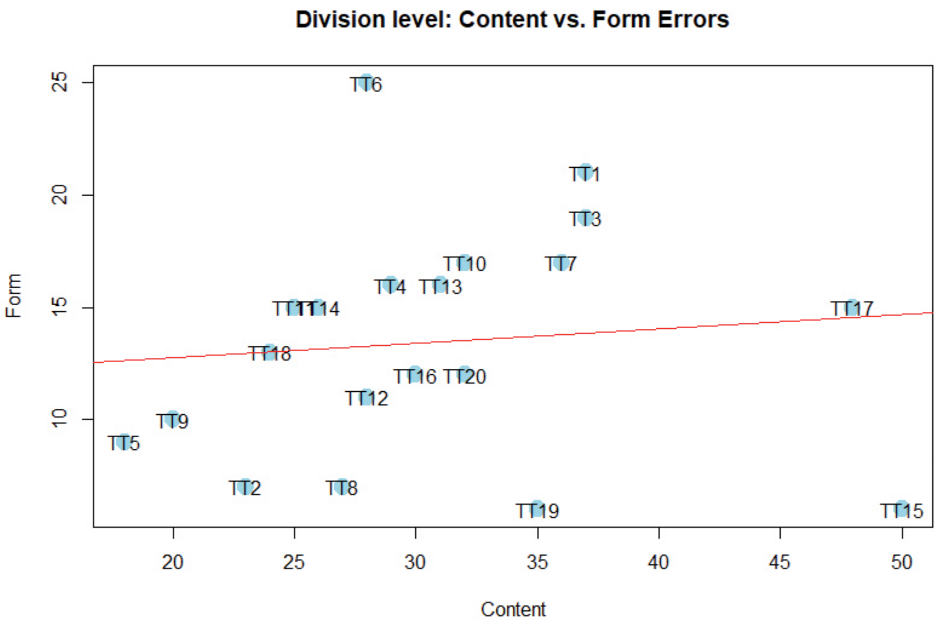

Figure 2: Scatter plot of content vs. form errors.

Given the above, the results contradict that of Agrifoglio (2004) and Gile (1985a), according to which there are more form and expression errors than meaning errors in SiT.

The difference could be explained by the fact that the participants in Agrifoglio's and Gile's experiments were professional interpreters, whereas this research project analyzed the output of translation students who are still in the learning process of becoming professional translators. Although it is true that, in this case, the students were used to practicing SiT (Meyers, 2021), they were still students and were more likely to make content errors as they lacked real-life practice and understanding of the SL. It should also be noted that the popular science article included specialized terms, which made it more difficult for students to understand the meaning of the ST. The text refers to concepts associated to voids and dark energy, which can become challenging when one cannot consult any databases or dictionaries. The interpretation of the meaning of the ST is therefore based on the general knowledge of the students, who may lack experience.

6.2. *Error frequency in the content division*

Figure 3 showcases the frequency of the total number of the errors that fall under the issue types from the accuracy dimension, which are omission, addition, lexical mistranslation, mistranslation, nonsense, opposite meaning, overly literal, and false friend. Amid the errors that were classified in the accuracy dimension, mistranslation is the most identified issue type (n = 174), followed by omission (n = 82), lexical mistranslation (n = 77), overly literal (n = 45), and addition (n = 42). The frequency of opposite meaning errors is the lowest (n = 2), followed by nonsense (n = 8), and false friend (n = 9).

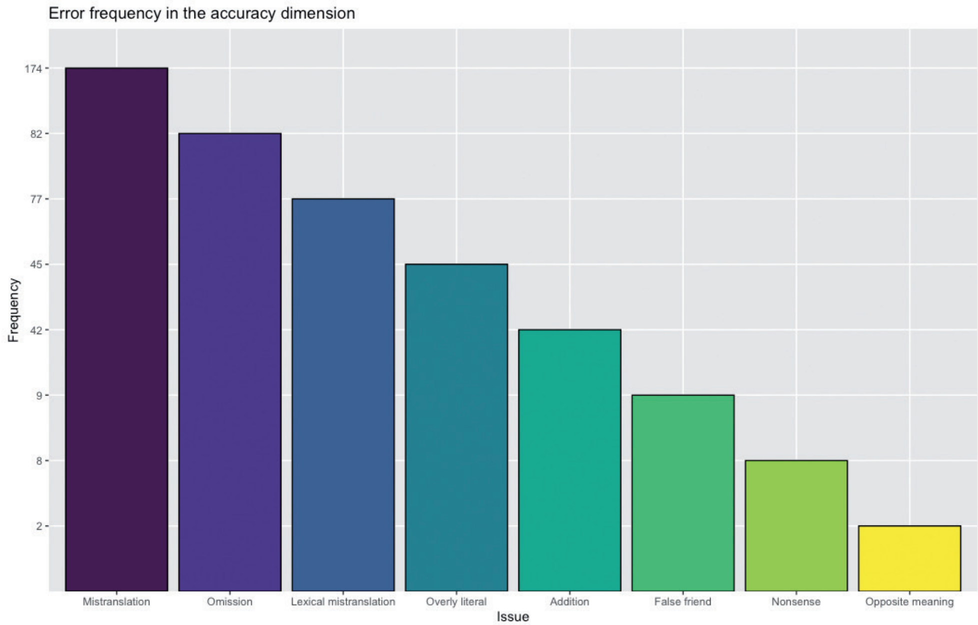

Figure 3: Bar plot of the error frequency in the accuracy dimension.

The fact that mistranslation errors are widespread is not surprising. The shift in meaning is among the most common errors discussed in the literature about translation and interpreting (Havnen, 2019). It is worth restating that the participants of the experiment were students. As they are not on the professional market yet, they lack experience and are more likely to make more errors of this nature.

The omnipresence of omissions in TTs does not fit with the theory that omissions are a limited phenomenon in SiT. Indeed, according to the findings of Agrifoglio (2004) and Gile (1995), omissions are rather rare in SiT, since the ST is always available throughout the exercise. This advantage should therefore prevent any sight translator from omitting segments.

Figure 4 portrays the frequency of terminology and omission errors in each TT. For instance, TT2 and TT9 contain a great percentage of omissions, but one of the lowest numbers of terminology errors. On the other hand, TT15 and TT17 hold the record of incorrect terminology errors but one of the lowest rates of omissions.

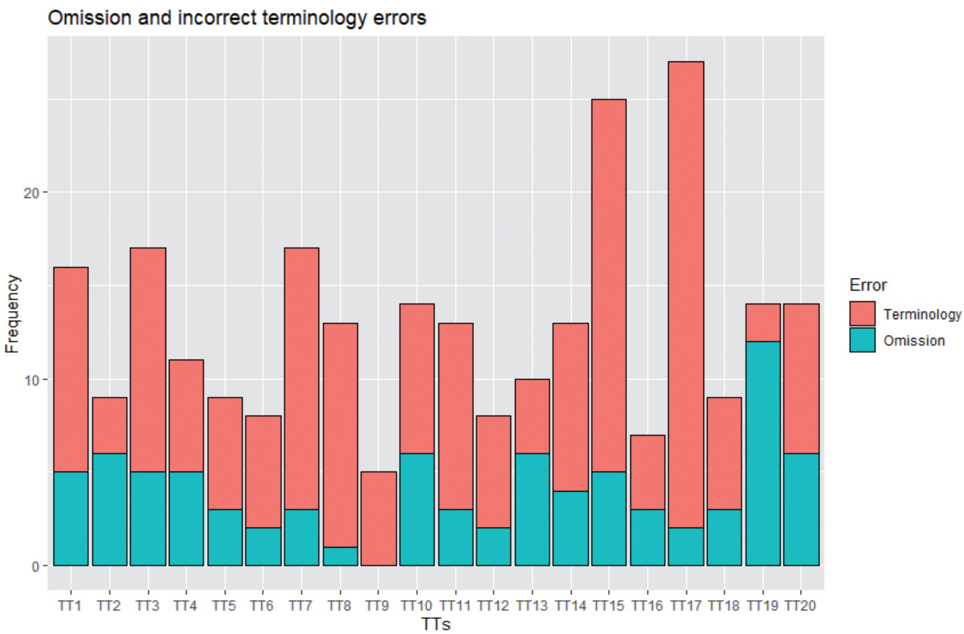

Figure 4: Bar plot of omissions and incorrect terminology errors.

Since there was sometimes an imbalance between the proportion of omission and terminology errors in some TTs, we wondered whether there was a link between omission and terminology errors. In fact, we wondered whether omissions were occasionally employed as a tactic to bypass words or segments considered difficult (since students did not have access to dictionaries and were not familiar with the subject prior to the experiment), especially when confronted with the presence of specialized terms. Gile (2009) argues that omissions are sometimes a deliberate choice in interpreting to avoid words or segments that are considered difficult. In order to determine whether the high number of omissions was partly due to the presence of specialized terms in the text, we classified the omissions into two subcategories: «omission of specialized terms» and «other» (all the other omissions). We found that 63% of the omissions concerned specialized terms. As previously stated, we expected students to struggle with some specialized terms, since we did not provide any information on the article. As a result, students probably omitted many specialized terms on purpose.

As a way of illustration, Table 1 showcases an example of an omission of a specialized term. The student did not translate «quantum» and only kept the word «fluctuations» by translating it literally, with a generalization in the translation of the word «fabric», which literally means «cloth». The change from a metaphorical but physical aspect of the ST is translated via a more general and open term «creation». In fact, the French translation of this specialized concept is *fluctuations quantiques* (Fliess, 2007).

EN	FR
Just instants after the big bang, **quantum** fluctuations in the fabric of space-time led to regions [. . .]	Quelques instants seulement après le Big Bang les fluctuations **<o>** dans la création de l'espace-temps ont mené à la création de régions [...]

Table 1: Example of the omission of a specialized term in TT1.

However, the results on the omission of specialized terms cannot justify alone why students make so many omissions despite having the text available throughout the performance. Stress is a possible explanation for the omission of segments that were not considered specialized terms. Baghi and Khoshsaligheh's results about stress in SiT (2019) emphasize the fact that students, who have to sight translate on the spot without resorting to resources, are particularly anxious, and «time pressure allows little time for processing all the available translation option» (p. 251). As a result, students, because of stress and time pressure, might be more likely to overlook parts of segments.

Figure 4 also portrays the number of incorrect terminology errors found in each TT. The plot shows that there is strong evidence that errors falling under this issue type are ubiquitous in general. Again, the nature of the ST that encompasses concepts about astrophysics and the fact that students did not receive information before the exercise justify the high number of this type of error. Even if we did not check whether some had background knowledge on the subject, we can assume that most of them in this study tended to struggle when faced with the translation of these specialized terms.

Moreover, it is not surprising to find that lexical mistranslations (and to a lesser extent, false friend errors) are present in many TTs. Agrifoglio (2004) has noted this problem in SiT, arguing that visual interference plays a role in it. This finding points towards the argument that visual interference may indeed play an important role in SiT. Indeed, as the written text is available throughout the process, words in the SL that are similar, if not the same, as potential words in the TL might be translated literally due to their proximity to the TL or their frequent use. When sight translators spot words that could look like a word in the TL or are often translated the same way, they are tempted to choose this option, rather than looking for a better-suited translation. For instance, in Table 2, the student opted for a word that is one of the correct translations of «rate,» but it is not correct. Although the term «rate» can be translated into French by «taux,» it does not correspond to the correct translation in this context. Indeed, «rate» can both mean «frequency or number of instances of a phenomenon in an area in a given time period» and «the speed at which something occurs or moves» (Druide informatique, 2021, «rate»). In this context, it is the second definition that has to be applied, and thus the translation possibilities are limited to *vitesse* or *rythme*. This issue type differs from mistranslation because students do use one of the potential correct translations of the word from the SL. However, they pick the wrong one for the context.

EN	FR
Pisani and colleagues considered three scenarios, all of which can explain the observed rate of expansion today.	Pisani et ses collègues ont envisagé trois scénarios, chacun expliquant le **taux d'expansion <L>** de l'univers que l'on observe actuellement.

Table 2: Example of a lexical mistranslation error in TT16.

Moreover, the presence of overly literal sentences could be another sign of the visual interference that impedes sight translators from performing a natural and smooth translation, since they tend to be influenced by the SL structures, in this case English structures. For example, in Table 3, the student translated «unavoidable part of» literally. However, «partie inévitable» in this case seems too literal and rather unnatural. The student should have taken a step back by reformulating «unavoidable part». There is a more idiomatic translation in French that could resolve the issue: *«les vides font inévitablement partie intégrante de la répartition de la matière dans l'univers»*.

EN	FR
«Voids are just an unavoidable part of the distribution of matter in the universe,» [...]	« Il s'agit juste de **parties inévitables ** de la répartition de matière dans l'univers » [...]

Table 3: Example of an overly literal error in TT14.

As for the other issue types, the low prevalence of addition errors does not lead to a particular interpretation, except for a compensation strategy. However, the low percentage of opposite meaning and nonsense errors shows that students still managed to sight translate without introducing major errors that would highly compromise the output.

6.3. *Error frequency in the form division*

Several findings were highlighted based on the observations of the proportions of the errors falling under the issue types belonging to the grammar and style dimensions. Interestingly, as shown in Figure 5, the most identified issue in the grammar dimension is tense/mood/aspect (errors of conjugation), followed by function words (incorrectly used prepositions, helping verbs, etc.), word order, and agreement (subject/verb, etc.). Cohesion errors (missing parts of a sentence or text to form an understandable whole) and part of speech errors (the incorrect syntactic function of a word, e.g., use of an adjective instead of an adverb) were a minority.

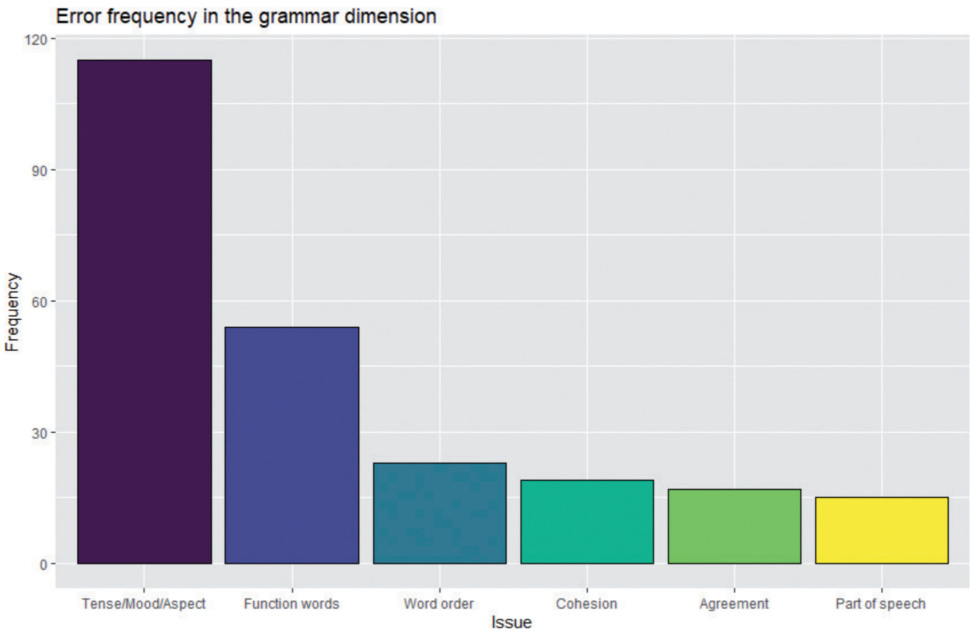

Figure 5: Bar plot of the error frequency in the grammar dimension.

The omnipresence of tense/mood/aspect errors is worth being analyzed. Students made many errors of conjugation. The errors were likely made due to a lack of understanding of the ST and a lack of distinction between descriptions and actions. As the text is about a study of voids in its early stages, many of the aspects that are discussed have not been proven yet, and the observations are based on hypotheses, as previously stated. However, most of the students struggled with the notion of hypotheses and translated the text into the past tense as if it had happened or as if the hypotheses were facts. In Table 2, there is a clear example of a student translating the hypothesis into a fact because the verb in the ST is in the simple past. However, although the hypotheses (scenarios) are put forward in the simple past in English, it is not possible to translate it into a simple past verb in French (with a verb conjugated with the *passé composé* [the French perfect tense]) because it conveys the idea that the scenario really happened. However, the author in the ST states that it has not been proven which scenario really occurred yet.

EN	FR
Pisani and colleagues considered three scenarios, all of which can explain the observed rate of expansion today [...] **The second caused** the expansion to accelerate later but faster than the cosmological constant would have [...]	[...] le deuxième scénario **a provoqué <tma>** un rythme d'expansion plus tardif mais plus rapide que dans le cas de la constante cosmologique [...]

Table 4: Example of a tense/mood/aspect error in TT11.

Additionally, some students mistook the use of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait* [the French imperfect tense], by employing the *imparfait* for concrete actions instead of the *passé composé*, and by using the *passé composé* for descriptions instead of the *imparfait*. Overall, within the category of tense-mood-aspect, tense was particularly a problem to sight-translate properly.

Word order errors are not surprising in EN-FR translation, as the order of words in a sentence in English can differ from that in French. For instance, adjectives often precede the noun in English, whereas adjectives are often positioned after the noun in French. Even when already aware and trained, sight translators can still be tempted to follow the same word order of a given sentence in English. Sometimes, this can lead to an error because the word order in French for that given sentence, or a part of it, should be adapted. As Shreve et al. (2011) argue, the sentence structures proper to a given language make it more difficult for sight translators to rearrange the ideas correctly in another language, especially between English and languages such as Spanish or French. In the corpus, some students fell into that trap of word order errors, as Figure 5 showcases it.

Previous research carried out on SiT errors (Agrifoglio, 2004) found that agreement errors were the main issue of the grammar category. Her findings are supported by the fact that participants seemed «to have suffered from coordination problems and short-term memory failures,» which led them to «[lose] the referent and [forget] the gender, number, and person» (Agrifoglio, 2004, pp. 52-53). Interestingly, our analysis revealed that agreement errors occurred less frequently than errors related to tense/mood/aspect, function words, and word order in the corpus. Despite their lower frequency, however, the occurrence of agreement errors among some students could still be attributed to the factors identified by Agrifoglio.

Although it is not clear why such errors arose in large numbers in the corpus, function word errors were numerous. For instance, there were many preposition errors, such as shown in Table 5. We can see that the preposition [de] (of) is used incorrectly. The preposition that goes with the adjective «inhérent» is [à] (to), as the word «inhérent» means something that is closely linked to something else (Druide informatique, 2021). This issue type differs from cohesion because it focuses on the wrong use of function words, while the cohesion category focuses on the absence of connecting words.

EN	FR
[. . .] Astronomers realised that the expansion of the universe was accelerating and attributed this to the inherent «dark energy» of space-time.	[…] les astronomes […] ont attribué ce phénomène à l'énergie noire inhérente **de <fw>** l'espace-temps.

Table 5: Example of a function word error in TT13.

As for the part of speech errors, such as using an adjective instead of an adverb, and cohesion errors, these issues were rare. The only cohesion error we found is the one portrayed in Table 6. The dash in the ST is important. It links the first part of the sentence with the second one. It is used to give further information on voids. The text is translated aloud, so it is not possible to put the dash in French given that it is a written sign. However, there is a missing element to link both parts in the TT. One way to explicitly express the dash in French is to say «c'est-à-dire» [that is to say] when the dash is used to provide details about the information given before it. This is therefore a cohesion error, since there is a missing element to connect the sentence as an understandable whole.

EN	FR
The less dense regions became **voids—regions** of space-time almost empty of matter, which can stretch from 30 million to 150 million light years across.	Les régions moins denses sont devenues **des vides des régions <ch>** de l'espace-temps quasiment vides de matière qui peuvent s'étirer sur 30 à 150 millions d'années-lumière.

Table 6: Example of a cohesion error in TT9.

No specific interpretation for the low prevalence of part of speech and cohesion errors can be given apart from the fact that, generally, students did manage to link the sentences together in a proper way, without using an adjective instead of an adverb, for instance, and remained overall faithful to the cohesion of the ST.

As a whole, the most identified issues from the style dimension (see Figure 1) are both lexical clumsiness and idiomatic clumsiness. Register is the least identified issue from that dimension, although the difference with the other two is insignificant. These results are in line with the findings of Agrifoglio (2004), Gile (1985a), and Falbo (1998) in SiT or in interpreting. According to Gile (1985a), students are prone to making these errors due to the particular constraints associated with interpreting, and more generally with oral translation. Indeed, students do not have time to pause and reflect on what they say, and they are thus more likely to mix up two expressions or invent a word without realizing it. However, it should be noted that the frequency of both lexical and idiomatic awkwardness errors is low among the TTs of the corpus.

In the context of our SiT study, there was a possibility that the students' spoken translations might contain errors related to register. There is a risk that the translator may unintentionally use a more informal register when delivering the oral translation because oral language tends to be less formal than written language in general (Alic, 2020). This is why it is important for the translator to be aware of the appropriate level of formality and register for the intended audience and context of the oral translation to ensure accuracy and consistency in the translation. Regardless of the genre of the original text, if the register in the written ST is formal, it should be kept formal in the oral translation as well. This means avoiding the introduction of any informal elements of oral language that could compromise the register of the ST.

Nevertheless, the tendency to resort to a less formal register was very limited in the corpus, with only one highlighted error. In Table 5, we can see that the student introduced an error of register. «Ça» is the less formal version of the demonstrative pronoun «cela» [*this/that*] (Druide informatique, 2021) and is mainly used in spoken contexts or in informal written language, such as text messaging. Since the text is published in the journal called *New Scientist* (journalistic genre), the register both in English and French should therefore be kept rather formal.

EN	FR
[. . .] Astronomers realised that the expansion of the universe was accelerating and attributed **this** to the inherent «dark energy» of space-time.	[…] les astronomes ont réalisé que l'ex l'expansion de l'univers s'accélérait et et ils ont attr et ils ont attribué **ça <R>** à la matière noire […]

Table 7: Example of a register error in TT17.

6.4. *Cognitive load*

As stated in the methodology, previous studies carried out by Dragsted and Hansen (2009) and Shreve et al. (2011) have postulated that speech disfluencies could influence the quality of SiT, without statistically proving this relationship. However, the present paper provides strong evidence for such a link, by proving the statistically significant association between the number of errors and the number of speech disfluencies in each of the four categories ($p < 0.05$). These findings imply that unfilled pauses, filled pauses, repetitions, and repairs all tend to affect, to different degrees, the quality of SiT.

For the speech disfluency analysis, we wanted to determine whether there was an impact on the number of errors when students corrected themselves aloud and thus introduced repairs. A chi-squared test was performed on errors and repairs and resulted in $\chi^2(19) = 40.456$, $p = 0.00285$. The p-value shows that there is a significant association between errors and repairs. Additionally, a correlation coefficient was computed to determine the strength of correlation between the two values and resulted in $r = 0.5359512$, which means that there is indeed a moderate correlation. In other words, there is a moderate tendency for the total number of repairs to rise when the number of errors increases, and vice versa. Overall, it is fair to argue that the correlation is far from being a coincidence.

Figure 6 showcases the scatter plot of errors and repairs in each TT. The regression line moves upward, which implies that there is a positive correlation between the values. TT17, which appears to be an outlier in the scatter plot, has the highest number of both errors and repairs, while TT2 and TT8 are the TTs with the lowest number of errors and repairs.

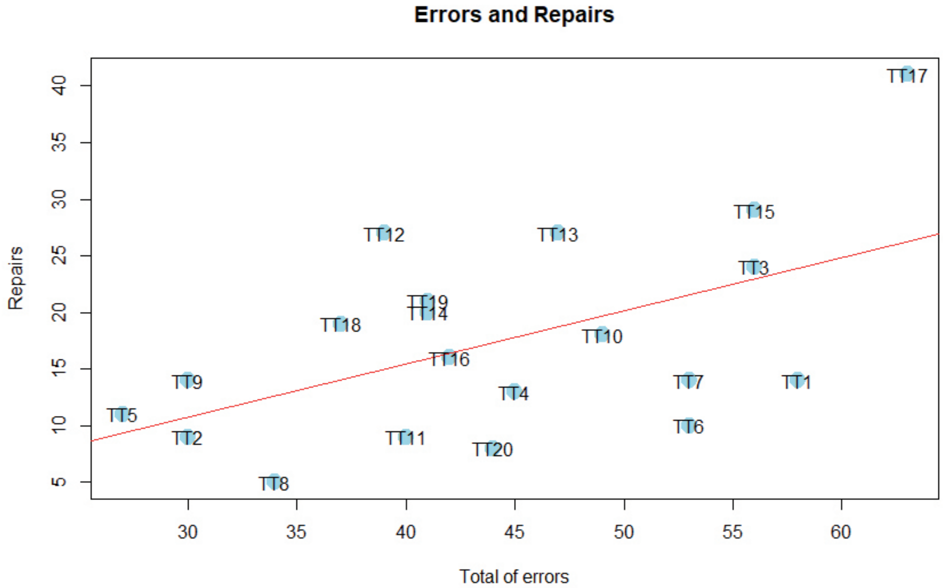

Figure 6: Scatter plot of repairs vs. total of errors in each TT.

The results on the repairs show that students, upon realizing they made errors or mistakes while sight translating, often introduce oral corrections to their oral translation. However, because SiT is processed on the spot, sight translators may avoid explicitly stating that they are correcting themselves and forget to say, for instance, «excuse me, let me correct this sentence». We took this aspect into account for our typology by splitting the repair issue type into two sub-types, announced and unannounced repairs.

In the corpus, the observed proportion between unannounced and announced repairs led to the conclusion that, in 95% of the cases, students did not explicitly announce they were about to correct themselves. The speedy delivery that is expected from sight translators when performing the exercise is one of the potential factors of such a phenomenon, alongside stress and cognitive overload.

As SiT is processed, sight translators are expected to translate the text on the spot without stopping, which might prompt them to avoid stating explicitly that they correct themselves. This is probably because, when a sight translator announces a self-correction during translation, it can interfere with their thought process and disrupt the flow of the translation. The focus may shift to the announcement of the correction itself, rather than the correction of said translation, which can disturb the train of thought and mislead the sight translator. Indeed, this type of announced correction is an interruption to the translation process, since it introduces new information that is not included in the ST, such as phrases like «sorry, let me rephrase that».

Additionally, as said earlier, stress and cognitive overload have been proved to play a negative role in the quality of SiT (Baghi & Khoshsaligheh, 2019). Indeed, Baghi & Khoshsaligheh (2019) found that translation students feel anxious when performing SiT and they thus tend to make errors and introduce speech disfluencies when their coordination effort is saturated. Another potential explanation for the predominance of unannounced repairs, which could give further credit to Gile's (1985b, 1997/2002) and Baghi and Khoshsaligheh's (2019) observations, is that when students realize that they might have made an error and decide to introduce a repair, their cognitive load and coordination effort are already saturated with information. They are thus left with no time or space to think about explicitly announcing their revision. This interpretation could partly justify the high number of unannounced repairs in the corpus and their direct impact on the overall quality of the output.

In the example in Table 3, there is a repair between «*être*» and «*expliquer*». The student probably realized that the verb «*être*» [to be] was not the correct choice to translate the ST segment. He therefore said «*tous pouvant expliquer*,» which, in this case, meets the ST meaning. However, upon realizing he had made a mistake, the student did not explicitly say that he was correcting himself. This unannounced repair can create confusion and hinder the understanding of the TT. However, sometimes, some students did announce their correction by stating «excusez-moi, je reprends» [excuse me, let me start again], for instance.

EN	FR
Pisani and colleagues considered three scenarios, all of which can explain the observed rate of expansion [. . .]	Pisani et ses collègues ont considéré trois scénarios, **tous pouvant être pouvant expliquer [h]** le taux d'expansion observé

Table 8: Example of an unannounced repair in TT6.

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Overall, these results show that the presence of speech disfluencies is not random and does play an active part in the delivery of SiT. By proving their direct negative implication on the overall quality of SiT, this study shows that such phenomena bear witness to the important cognitive load tied to SiT, as pointed out by Shreve et al. (2011). In fact, the speech disfluencies the researchers identified in their corpus «allowed [them] to associate the disfluencies with probable sources of processing difficulty» (Shreve et al., 2011, p. 108). Additionally, they argue that speech disfluencies are a direct reflection of the cognitive processes and efforts at play in SiT and are «associated with specific production problems resulting from the translation task» (Shreve et al., 2011, p. 117).

In light of these observations and the results of this study, it is fair to assume that speech disfluencies are an embodiment of the cognitive efforts associated with SiT. More importantly, the high rate of speech disfluencies in this corpus proves that students struggled to process the specialized text when sight translating it, certainly because they could only rely on their knowledge and ability to understand a specialized text written in English without the use of dictionaries. SiT already implies a cognitive effort, but the added level of difficulty due to the text has had a direct impact on the number of speech disfluencies as well. With these findings, it is fair to argue that a proper preparation is more than needed to help students cope with any type of obstacles when sight translating specialized texts and therefore improve both their training and performance.

7. CONCLUSION

This study has contributed to broadening the scope of SiT in the sphere of translator training. Indeed, the analysis of SiT based on a corpus of translation students made it possible to create a typology specifically designed for SiT and yield results about the error patterns and trends in the context of specialized translation training, which has scarcely been done, if done at all.

While the genre of the text and the size of the corpus limit the generalizability of the results, these still provide new insight into errors in SiT in the context of specialized translation training. Such findings are particularly relevant because they show that the results in the corpus were not always in line with the findings identified by researchers such as Agrifoglio (2004) and Gile (e.g., 1985a; 1995; 2009), who have investigated SiT errors in the realm of interpreting. It is therefore fair to argue that SiT within translator training should be explored separately, because it would provide an independent framework that would address the needs and issues specifically arising among translation students and translators when performing this exercise, and consequently adapt training accordingly, or so we suggest.

Finally, the establishment of the significant impact of speech disfluencies on the overall quality of SiT is by far the most important contribution to this study. Although the impact of speech disfluencies on SiT quality had already been postulated by Dragsted and Hansen (2009) and Shreve et al. (2011), the new findings are believed to be the first to confirm the statistically significant correlation between errors and speech disfluencies in SiT. In light of the profound implication of speech disfluencies in the overall performance, these should be addressed in training, with the establishment of exercises and workshops to help curb such phenomena and improve the overall quality of the output. Moreover, the high number of speech disfluencies bears witness to the difficulty of the text and confirm the importance of teaching specialized translation and providing students with the necessary tools to progress and eventually master SiT with other types of specialized texts, such as legal texts and research articles.

Based on these findings and previous research, SiT teachers should consider emphasizing on the understanding of the ST to help students avoid a high number of content errors, especially mistranslations, omissions, and incorrect terminology errors. It can be hypothesized that the misunderstanding of the subject has had an impact on the students' performance. This proves that specialized translation training remains central to provide students with a more comprehensive approach to translation, and thus help them improve their skills with regular training.

To develop a full picture of SiT in translator training, additional studies that explore the ins and outs of this tool and its purpose in the translator's toolbox will be needed. Further studies on the error analysis in SiT are also required to explore patterns depending on the genre of the ST, especially in the different fields of specialized translation. It would be relevant to determine which type of text is considered most or least efficient, but also to compare the error trends and patterns between all the genres.

The corpus-driven approach employed for the creation of a SiT error typology awaits more rigorous study. The present work represents a first attempt to address errors in SiT with the help of a typology specifically put forward for the practice of SiT. The investigation of errors in other SiT corpora would therefore be an opportunity to further develop the tool.

Although the generality of the current results must be established by future research, the present study has provided a first in-depth overview of error patterns in SiT in the context of translator training following previous literature. Despite the limitations, not only have the results yielded valuable conclusions on the error typology and error trends and patterns in SiT, but the study has also enhanced our understanding of the relationship between errors and speech disfluencies in SiT settings. Such analyses contribute to a growing body of evidence suggesting that speech disfluencies impact the quality of the output. All aspects considered, this work paves the way for more promising studies on the role of SiT in the field of translator training and specialized translation.

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Inmersión en la práctica profesional de la interpretación empresarial: retos clave para la formación del intérprete del presente y el futuro

Delving into the Business-Interpreting Profession: Tracking Key Challenges to Train Interpreters for Today and Tomorrow

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Resumen: En el presente artículo abordamos las complejidades propias de la interpretación empresarial con el objetivo de integrar las exigencias de la profesión en la formación especializada del intérprete. Con esta finalidad, partimos de los desafíos identificados en un corpus de interpretación empresarial en el que observamos fenómenos reales que requieren la intervención del intérprete para garantizar la eficiencia de la comunicación. Como el estudio subraya, las *zonas de intervención* en interpretación empresarial surgen como consecuencia tanto de las limitaciones temporales del diálogo como de la interacción entre diferentes culturas y enfoques empresariales. Ante estos fenómenos de la práctica profesional, el intérprete necesita activar el proceso de toma de decisiones para abordar tales limitaciones y trasladar el mensaje, teniendo presente la importancia de preservar no solo el contenido de las declaraciones de los oradores, sino también sus intenciones. Con este enfoque, nos aproximamos a la noción de *competencia* desde un punto de vista práctico y entendemos que el intérprete competente ha de ser capaz de superar los desafíos de la práctica de la profesión. De este modo, la propuesta considera el valor de tomar como referencia situaciones comunicativas reales para formar intérpretes preparados para dar respuesta a las exigencias de la interpretación empresarial profesional alineando, de este modo, la formación con las necesidades del mercado.

Palabras clave: interpretación empresarial; formación especializada; toma de decisiones; diálogo; comunicación.

Abstract: This article delves into the intricacies of business interpreting with the intention of integrating the demands of the profession in specialized interpreting courses. With this objective in mind, we depart from the challenges identified in a business interpreting corpus, where we observe real phenomena that demand the intervention of the interpreter so as to foster the efficiency of the communication. As our study highlights, business interpreting *intervention areas* combine time constraints posed by the dialogue with the interplay of cultures and business approaches. In light of these phenomena, the interpreter needs to activate a decision-making process to overcome such limitations and convey the message, while preserving not only the content of the utterances, but also the intentions of the speakers. In this perspective, we approach the notion of 'competence' from a practical point of view, understanding that a competent interpreter must be capable of overcoming the difficulties entailed by the profession. Thus, this proposal considers the usefulness of resorting to real interpreter-mediated situations to train interpreters prepared to meet the needs of the profession, aligning market needs and training.

Keywords: business interpreting; specialized training; decision-making; dialogue; communication.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

El acercamiento entre naciones a nivel mundial continúa acelerándose, no solo en el plano económico y político, sino también en el cultural y social. En respuesta a esta realidad, la interpretación toma diversas formas para adaptarse a las características de las situaciones comunicativas en las que se requiere la figura del intérprete. Es decir, observamos que la profesión del intérprete evoluciona, y se adapta, a medida que lo hacen los contextos en los que se hace necesaria esta figura para el acercamiento lingüístico y cultural de hablantes de diferentes naciones. El ámbito que nos ocupa, la interpretación empresarial (IE), no es una excepción ya que, como resultado de esta tendencia integracionista, se genera un entorno económico y empresarial cada vez más complejo (Villarreal, 2005, p. 55), donde las relaciones personales y comerciales devienen intricadas. Se originan así situaciones comunicativas en diferentes contextos y entornos, no solo físicos, sino también virtuales, en especial a raíz de los periodos de aislamiento impuestos por la pandemia de la COVID-19 (Delfino y Van der Kolk, 2021). Desde esta perspectiva, entendemos que, si la práctica profesional se amolda a los tiempos, también ha de hacerlo la formación del futuro intérprete para prepararle para la realidad. Asimismo, tenemos presente que la formación de intérpretes en IE es fundamental dado que, en vista del avance de la globalización, supone una salida laboral cada vez más clara para estudiantes de Traducción e Interpretación (Vigier-Moreno, 2020).

Desde estas coordenadas, planteamos una propuesta que parte de la importancia de la observación de situaciones comunicativas empresariales actuales para trasladar la práctica de la profesión a las aulas. Recordamos que la IE se desarrolla en un ámbito en el que el diálogo que se establece entre distintas empresas tiene la finalidad de alcanzar acuerdos específicos, conforme a determinados objetivos estratégicos o económicos. Es decir, dicho diálogo toma la forma de una negociación constante para buscar intereses comunes o resolver posibles conflictos pasados (Lewicki *et al.*, 2016; Siedel, 2014). En consecuencia, en estos intercambios comunicativos, no solo encontramos las complejidades propias de la interpretación dialógica —bidireccionalidad, contacto directo con los interlocutores, turnos de palabra o interacción de diferentes culturas (Gavioli, 2014; Sandrelli, 2005; Trovato, 2013; Wadensjö, 2004)—, sino que también entran en juego intereses comerciales y económicos. Ante la presencia de estos intereses, los interlocutores activan estrategias para lograr sus fines, tales como la persuasión, la agresividad o la cortesía (Danciu, 2010). Por tanto, resulta fundamental que el intérprete sea capaz de entender y mantener la intención del emisor que subyace tras el mensaje emitido para poder ser fiel a la estrategia con la que el orador busca alcanzar tales fines. Sin embargo, esta labor resulta compleja debido a las numerosas variables que rodean a la declaración del orador, que resulta indispensable conocer para seleccionar la fórmula idónea que permita la interpretación del mensaje.

Este es el motivo que nos lleva a subrayar el papel protagonista de la toma de decisiones del intérprete, agente que, ante determinados fenómenos, ha de intervenir en el diálogo y no limitarse a una mera reproducción consecutiva para permitir una comunicación eficiente, sea como coordinador, moderador o mediador (Gavioli, 2014; Takimoto y Koshiba, 2009; Trovato, 2013; Wadensjö, 1998). Con vistas a la formación, con esta perspectiva y desde el enfoque con el que Barret *et al.* (2014, p. 16) abordan la noción de *competencia*, entendemos que el intérprete competente deberá ser capaz de enfrentarse a la toma de decisiones que implica realizar una interpretación profesional. Sin embargo, en un ámbito como es la IE que, además, evoluciona con gran velocidad, no parece sencillo discernir cuáles son esos elementos o fenómenos que condicionan la transferencia del mensaje. Desde esta premisa, nos planteamos comprender qué motiva esta necesidad de intervención en el proceso de transferencia y, por consiguiente, exige que el intérprete active su capacidad de decisión. En concreto, buscamos esta respuesta a través de la identificación de los retos que la práctica profesional entraña para, de este modo, formar intérpretes preparados para afrontarlos.

Con este objetivo, en vista de la constante evolución de las relaciones de negocios entre agentes de diversas naciones, destacamos la importancia de tomar como referencia situaciones reales y actuales. Por este motivo, fundamentamos nuestra propuesta en un estudio de corpus de un diálogo empresarial real, encuentro presenciado, grabado y transcrito para el estudio del constructo que se sitúa en el núcleo de esta toma de decisiones, la *zona de intervención en interpretación empresarial*, en el que se recoge una jornada de negociaciones en el ámbito de la marroquinería entre una empresa británica y una empresa española (Torrella, 2020). Como veremos, esta propuesta toma un enfoque funcionalista, y eminentemente práctico, centrado en identificar el origen de estos fenómenos que sitúan al intérprete ante un dilema: la necesidad de decidir la mejor fórmula para transferir el mensaje.

2. LA IMPORTANCIA DE LA TOMA DE DECISIONES: LA ZONA DE INTERVENCIÓN EN INTERPRETACIÓN EMPRESARIAL

En la presente propuesta, consideramos la toma de decisiones como el desafío clave al que se enfrenta el intérprete en el contexto empresarial y, por consiguiente, como piedra angular de la formación del estudiante. Esta afirmación se fundamenta en destacados estudios centrados en el proceso traductológico que toman un enfoque funcionalista y subrayan que el traductor, o intérprete, adopta decisiones propias en este proceso, ya que existe un componente abierto (Mayoral, 2001) y, fundamentalmente, porque se busca que tanto la intención, que subyace tras el mensaje emitido por un orador, como la función de este mensaje, es decir, «el sentido que tiene este mensaje para el receptor», coincidan (Nord, 1997, p.28). De este modo, en sintonía con la teoría del *skopos* de Vermeer de 1978 (Gallagher, 1992), entendemos que el propósito del interlocutor que emite el mensaje original es el elemento guía en la toma de decisiones durante el proceso de interpretación. Partiendo de esta premisa, podemos comprender que el desafío de tomar una decisión aparece por la necesidad de hacer que la función del mensaje se mantenga, siendo fieles a la intención del original. Y entendemos esta fidelidad como la reformulación precisa y completa del mensaje que reproduce la intención e impacto del original (Hale, 2007, p.16). Desde estas coordenadas, observamos que en IE el desencadenante del dilema se sitúa en el origen, es decir, en los mensajes emitidos por los oradores que participan en un encuentro, ya que es el fenómeno en el origen el que sugiere la intervención del intérprete con vistas a su reformulación —planteamiento del estudio llevado a cabo por de la Cova (2017), quien ubica el *problema de traducción* en el origen, vinculándolo a su transferencia—. En el ámbito que nos ocupa, la IE, partimos con esta visión del estudio del *texto origen*, en este caso, el diálogo de los participantes del encuentro empresarial que tiene lugar en el corpus analizado. Desde el estudio de estos mensajes, se identifica y define el constructo *zona de intervención en interpretación empresarial* (ZDI-IE) que tomamos como eje central para la formación del intérprete en este ámbito. Como veremos, esta noción da cuenta del nacimiento de la toma de decisiones en estos contextos y describe fenómenos propios de la IE que sitúan al intérprete ante este dilema.

Desde un punto de vista conceptual, la denominación ZDI-IE para estos fenómenos tiene la finalidad de destacar el carácter *intervencionista* del intérprete, motivo por el que tomamos la nomenclatura de Morón (2010) *zona de intervención* (ZDI), autora que acuñaba este término en el ámbito de la traducción. En concreto, Morón (2010) acuña esta denominación para hacer referencia a elementos presentes en el texto origen que, por motivos funcionales, sugieren la necesidad del traductor de actuar de manera intencionada. Esta acción del traductor, como explica Morón (2017, p. 201), puede suponer alejarse de la «traducción literal» o «por defecto». Por otro lado, con vistas a su aplicación al ámbito formativo, consideramos la idoneidad de seleccionar esta denominación para evitar de este modo otras fórmulas como 'problema' o 'dificultad', que podrían presentar connotaciones negativas (Torrella, 2020).

Desde esta perspectiva, se estudió el corpus de Torrella (2020) que recoge un encuentro empresarial celebrado en Cádiz (España) en 2018 donde, durante una jornada, se reúnen una fábrica de marroquinería española y una marca distribuidora británica con una relación en fase avanzada —según las fases de Leonidou y Katsikeas (1996) que se presentan a continuación— para la negociación de aspectos técnicos y económicos relacionados con la nueva colección de la temporada. En esta negociación, mediada por intérprete *de parte* de la fábrica, se definió la ZDI-IE a través del análisis de las declaraciones de los participantes en el encuentro —un total de 1691 declaraciones—. Si bien el corpus cuenta con un total de 2299 declaraciones, que pueden ser consultadas en Torrella (2020), recordamos que únicamente los mensajes de los participantes primarios fueron estudiados, dado que en ellos se ubica la ZDI.

En este estudio, vemos que la ZDI-IE se presenta en aquellos fenómenos que originan una potencial pérdida de *transferibilidad* debido a las características propias que definen este tipo de interpretación (Torrella, 2020). Ante estos desafíos, la intervención del intérprete se hace necesaria para preservar dicha transferibilidad, entendida como la alineación entre las funciones del discurso origen y el discurso meta, tanto desde un punto de vista cultural (Reiss y Vermeer, 1984, p. 124) como en la sintonía entre la intención —del emisor del mensaje original— y la función del mensaje transferido por el intérprete al receptor (Nord, 1997, p.28). Dado que preservar esta transferibilidad exige considerar tanto los condicionantes propios de la modalidad como el contexto, recordamos en este punto que, en el ámbito empresarial, el intérprete se enfrenta a una interpretación dialógica. Esta tarea implica la necesidad de atender a las imposiciones temporales propias de la interacción, así como a la concurrencia de diferentes marcos de referencia (Kohn y Kalina, 1996; Salevsky, 1993; Seeber, 2011). Estos condicionantes, completan la definición del constructo ZDI-IE, en la medida en que suponen agentes causantes de la potencial pérdida de *transferibilidad*. Dado que, en IE, la situación comunicativa viene determinada y condicionada no solo por la interacción entre diferentes culturas y las imposiciones temporales, sino también por las características propias del contexto empresarial (Ko, 1996, p. 116), resulta fundamental comprender la finalidad de dichas reuniones. Solo de este modo podrá el intérprete entender las intenciones de las declaraciones emitidas por los oradores para seleccionar la fórmula más apropiada para la reformulación de estas.

Por este motivo, hemos de tener presente que cada situación comunicativa en IE presenta unas finalidades concretas, relacionadas con las necesidades de las empresas, los «objetivos específicos» del encuentro (Pruitt, 1981). Aquí reside la relevancia de que el intérprete sea convenientemente informado antes del encuentro y reciba una información clara y completa —sesión informativa conocida por su denominación en inglés *briefing*—, cuya importancia ha sido también destacada en otros ámbitos, tales como el policial (Gamal, 2017) o el sanitario (Miletic *et al.*, 2006). Con todo, a pesar de que cada reunión presente unos objetivos específicos, la definición del contexto empresarial desde la noción de la ZDI-IE nos permite entender que los objetivos generales de estas reuniones se relacionan con el grado de desarrollo de la empresa y con su nivel de internacionalización (Rialp, 2008, p.44). Desde las fases propuestas por Leonidou y Katsikeas (1996) —preinvolucración, involucración inicial, fase avanzada— podemos entender esta relación entre fase y propósito del encuentro del siguiente modo:

a) Fase de preinvolucración: nacimiento de la relación donde resulta, por consiguiente, fundamental la creación del vínculo personal y generar confianza (Smirnova, 2013).
b) Fase de involucración inicial: la atención se centra en el negocio, esta etapa requiere la negociación de condiciones de trabajo, tanto en términos de asociación como de carácter logístico para poder desarrollar la relación comercial (Soret, 2010).
c) Fase de involucración avanzada: en la relación consolidada, los encuentros empresariales se centran en aspectos precisos, tales como precios, entregas u otros aspectos cotidianos (Arteaga *et al.*, 2017).

Desde estas coordenadas, es posible aprehender la esencia de la situación comunicativa, es decir, considerar no solo los objetivos específicos que motivan el encuentro, sino también la situación en la que se ubica, a través del conocimiento del propósito de los hablantes. Por este motivo, consideramos indispensable conocer todos los descriptores del encuentro para poder aproximarnos a una visión general que contextualice los mensajes objeto de reformulación y, de esta forma, procesar la atribución de significados de las declaraciones de los oradores. Con este enfoque se examinó la relación entre descriptores y diálogo en el estudio de corpus (Torrella, 2020) donde se observaron diferentes fenómenos que provocaban una potencial pérdida de transferibilidad motivada por las características propias de este caso de IE. En esencia, fenómenos estrechamente ligados a la estrategia empresarial y a la cultura, donde la reformulación adecuada del mensaje requiere captar y reproducir la intención con la que el orador lo emitió. En concreto, en la observación de la influencia de las características propias de la IE en la comunicación entre la empresa británica y la empresa española —temporalidad e interacción, estrategia empresarial e influencia de diferentes marcos culturales de referencia—, se identificaron los siguientes fenómenos como *zonas de intervención en interpretación empresarial*, que podemos relacionar con la modalidad o el contexto, como veremos a continuación.

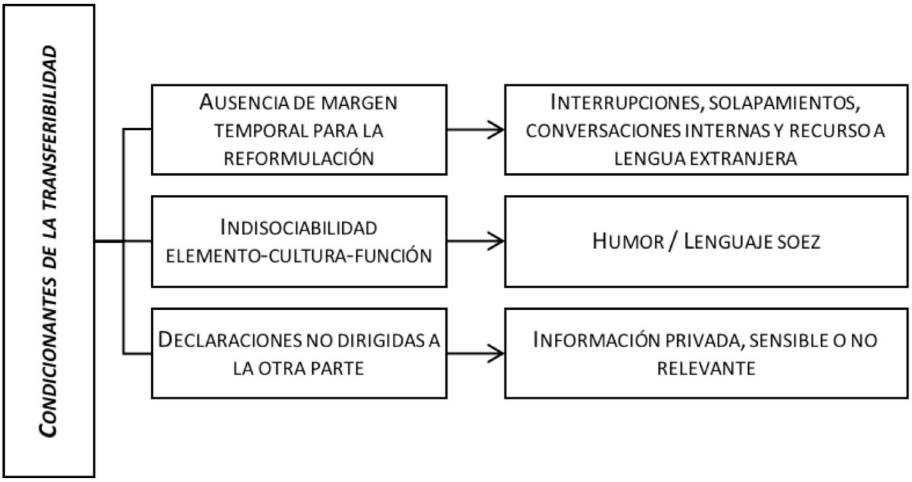

Figura 1: ZDI-IE. Fenómenos que originan potencial pérdida de transferibilidad en IE.

En primer lugar, con respecto a las imposiciones del contexto, desde un punto de vista cultural, vemos que la ZDI-IE se manifiesta en declaraciones, verbales y no verbales, en las que se hace uso del humor y del lenguaje soez. Estos fenómenos sugieren la intervención del intérprete en la medida en que el uso de este tipo de recurso o de lenguaje está fuertemente vinculado a la cultura (Marra y Holmes, 2007), motivo por el que su transferencia sin intervención —entendida como la traducción literal de la declaración— es susceptible de tener un impacto en el receptor (función) diferente de aquel que buscaba el orador del mensaje (intención). Ejemplo de este tipo de ZDI-IE sería la declaración que tomamos del corpus objeto de estudio número 1257 (Torrella, 2020), donde, en el debate sobre los milímetros que debe medir un producto, el interlocutor español hace una broma que podemos asociar a una comunicación informal, más propia de la cultura española: «Hoy la palabra que más se oye es milímetro. Y los milímetros son importantes, ¿eh? Je, je». En este caso, apreciamos el humor y el matiz vulgar de una declaración relativa a las *medidas* que busca divertir a los participantes del encuentro. Sin embargo, este no es un tono nada frecuente en una cultura donde la comunicación se estructura de manera clara y ordenada para centrarse en los aspectos propios de la negociación, donde los interlocutores muestran un carácter exigente, como es la británica (Elías, 2009, p. 94). En este punto cabe recordar que, como veíamos, atendemos a un intercambio comunicativo donde las partes mantienen un propósito, una finalidad latente en las declaraciones del encuentro, y que el intérprete ha de ser fiel a los objetivos de la comunicación (Hale, 2007) evitando el riesgo que supone la diferencia entre modelos mentales (Žegarac, 2007, p. 33). Por consiguiente, consideramos que la aparición de elementos indisociables del marco de referencia del emisor —en la declaración original— exige valorar si ese elemento puede ser asociado del mismo modo al marco de referencia del receptor para mantener la función del mensaje.

También relacionado con el contexto, encontramos otro fenómeno que da lugar a una toma de decisiones, en concreto, la aparición de declaraciones verbales internas —es decir, entre participantes de una misma empresa— donde el contenido se corresponde con información de naturaleza sensible o privada, o bien no es relevante para la otra empresa. Ejemplo de esta ZDI-IE es la declaración 137 del corpus que estudiamos (Torrella, 2020), donde un interlocutor de la empresa española habla a un compañero: «Hazme una fotocopia, anda». En este caso, vemos que el mensaje no solo carece de relevancia para la otra parte, sino que observamos que estos mensajes son emitidos sin intención de ser dirigidos a la empresa con la que se reúne —ya que son declaraciones entre miembros de la misma organización—, por lo que resulta complejo casar función e intención en la medida en que la intención del orador no sería que ese mensaje surta efecto alguno en sus socios comerciales.

Por otro lado, la ZDI-IE se manifiesta también como resultado de las características de la modalidad, es decir, la interacción propia del diálogo y los límites temporales para la reformulación del mensaje que impone la modalidad dialógica. En concreto, en el corpus estudiado (Torrella, 2020), observamos que los intérpretes han de seleccionar una alternativa que permita la transferibilidad del mensaje debido a la ausencia de margen temporal para la reformulación. Estas ZDI-IE se originan debido a interrupciones entre oradores o al intérprete, a solapamientos entre declaraciones o bien debido a la concurrencia de dos conversaciones paralelas (es decir, el solapamiento total de mensajes emitidos), donde no solo atendemos a la falta de tiempo para reproducir el mensaje, sino que, además, son dos conversaciones las que necesitan ser escuchadas al mismo tiempo. Por último, también debido a la limitación temporal, encontramos un fenómeno que forma parte de la ZDI-IE, el uso de la lengua extranjera. En este caso, la reproducción del mensaje se ve condicionada debido a que se entabla un diálogo en el que el intérprete no participaría, al dirigirse el orador de una empresa directamente a la otra parte empleando la lengua de este. Encontramos ejemplos de este tipo en segmentos diversos, algunos, donde se traslada un mensaje simple y es recibido sin interferencias, ejemplo 873 donde el interlocutor de la empresa británica dice «muchas gracias», y otros donde, sin embargo, vemos alteraciones gramaticales que podrían modificar la función del mensaje (ejemplo 847, declaración de orador español: «Will collapse, you need to change») si se produce una falta de comprensión en el receptor o si el uso del lenguaje se percibe como una falta de cortesía. En estos casos, la potencial pérdida de transferibilidad se origina porque el receptor recibe directamente el mensaje, agotando el margen temporal para que el intérprete realice su interpretación —en el caso de que sea necesaria— y garantice la coincidencia de la función de este con la intención del orador.

En esencia, como podemos ver, estos fenómenos se originan como resultado de las características propias de la IE. De este modo, en la convergencia de estas variables que introduce la situación comunicativa en la que trabaja el intérprete, encontramos el origen de la necesidad de su intervención, pues se requiere la activación de *vías* que preserven la *transferibilidad* del mensaje. Con el objetivo de trasladar este enfoque eminentemente teórico a la práctica, a continuación, nos detenemos en los aspectos relativos a su aplicación docente.

3. LA APLICACIÓN DE LA ZDI A LA FORMACIÓN EN INTERPRETACIÓN EMPRESARIAL

Desde el prisma con el que Barret *et al.* (2014, p.7) —en su estudio sobre la competencia intercultural— abordan la noción de *competencia*, esta es la capacidad de responder exitosamente a los desafíos que presenta el intercambio comunicativo. En sintonía con esta perspectiva, la presente propuesta parte de la premisa de que el intérprete competente ha de contar con capacidad de respuesta a los retos que entraña la práctica de la profesión. Con esta visión, nos aproximábamos al estudio del corpus, con el objetivo de comprender qué fenómenos suponían retos propios de la IE para, de este modo, entender para qué dilemas concretos hemos de preparar a los futuros intérpretes. En esencia, como veíamos, la ZDI-IE nos permite entender que la potencial pérdida de *transferibilidad* del mensaje se erige como un desafío clave en la interpretación en el contexto empresarial y, por tanto, el intérprete en formación no solo necesita conocer este concepto, sino también desarrollar la capacidad de decidir con la inmediatez que la interpretación requiere. Recordamos que, a diferencia de la práctica de la traducción, donde el profesional puede reflexionar sobre fórmulas con las que dar respuesta a complejidades propias de esta tarea, en interpretación el mensaje se reproduce bajo presión debido a que el intérprete está sometido a unas imposiciones temporales que le exigen actuar de manera inmediata y donde prácticamente no hay margen de corrección (Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 11; Salevsky, 1993, p. 159). En este sentido, el desarrollo de la capacidad de respuesta es indispensable, ya que la automatización de estrategias será la fórmula que permita al intérprete desarrollar una práctica profesional sin interferencias, preservando no solo la transferibilidad, sino también la eficiencia del diálogo cuya importancia ha sido subrayada por no pocos autores (Takimoto, 2006; Wadensjö, 1998).

En consecuencia, consideramos la necesidad de formar intérpretes capaces de tomar decisiones que permitan preservar la transferibilidad y, al mismo tiempo, garanticen la eficiencia del diálogo ante los desafíos propios de la práctica de la interpretación.

Para ayudar al desarrollo de esta capacidad, la ZDI-IE nos permite entender qué imposiciones encontramos en este contexto empresarial; en concreto, además de las limitaciones temporales propias de la interpretación dialógica, veíamos la relevancia del contexto cultural y empresarial, lo que pone de relieve la necesidad de formación en torno a la comprensión de la situación comunicativa en la que se realiza la interpretación. De este modo, observamos que la preparación para el encuentro —documentación previa para el conocimiento de la etapa en la que se encuentran las empresas (propósito del encuentro) y relevancia del *briefing*, en especial en fases más avanzadas de la relación comercial— asume un papel protagonista para entender la intención con la que se emiten los mensajes y, por consiguiente, para preservar la transferibilidad. Para mayor claridad expositiva, a continuación, presentamos un diagrama que refleja de manera sinóptica la relación entre la formación del intérprete competente, la toma de decisiones y la ZDI-IE.

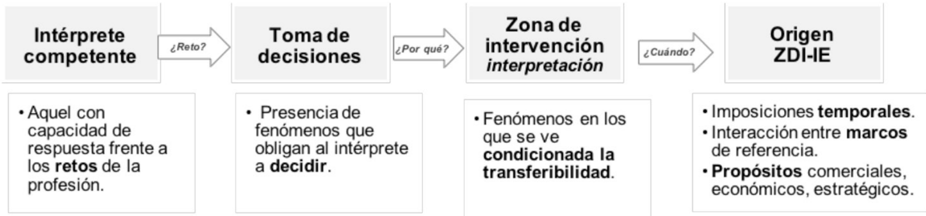

Figura 2. ZDI-IE: clave en la formación del intérprete competente.

Sin embargo, como veíamos, a pesar del potencial teórico que podamos atribuir a la ZDI-IE, el mero conocimiento de estos dilemas —que sugieren la activación de la toma de decisiones— no permite por sí solo que el futuro intérprete desarrolle la habilidad de dar respuesta a estas situaciones. Es decir, entendemos que la formación del futuro intérprete sería incompleta si tan solo transmitimos la *presencia* de estos retos en la práctica de la interpretación profesional empresarial. Por este motivo, consideramos fundamental proveerles con fórmulas específicas para abordar la práctica de la interpretación. Con este objetivo, planteamos la utilidad de recurrir a destacados trabajos en el ámbito de la interpretación, de los que extraemos lo que denominamos *vías de intervención*, entendidas como la selección de fórmulas que nos permitan garantizar la transferibilidad.

Esta denominación la tomamos desde el trabajo de Hurtado (2001), quien entiende la *vía de intervención* como el repertorio de estrategias, métodos y estrategias del traductor, y la aplicamos al ámbito de la IE donde la selección de una vía, por parte del intérprete, comprende un conjunto de acciones. Asimismo, consideramos que esta denominación resulta idónea en nuestra propuesta ya que subraya el carácter *intervencionista* del intérprete en el proceso de transferencia, como agente que, según las opciones planteadas por los trabajos que tomamos como referencia, ante las ZDI-IE se hace *visible* (Angelelli, 2004; Baker, 2006; Dal Fovo y Niemants, 2015; Gavioli y Maxwell, 2007; Mason, 1999; Wadensjö, 1998). Como veremos, la selección de una vía de intervención estará sujeta a los condicionantes que impone la situación comunicativa, es decir a las imposiciones que se manifiestan en la ZDI-IE, enfoque que planteaban Kohn y Kalina (1996) para la activación de estrategias en interpretación. Por consiguiente, la relación entre la adopción de esta fórmula de intervención y el fenómeno que requiere ser atendido no es unívoca, al igual que sucede en la relación entre el *problema de traducción* y la estrategia (Hurtado, 2001, p. 278). Es precisamente el hecho de que no se presente una relación unívoca lo que pone de relieve la relevancia de la toma de decisiones. Con todo, dado que la selección de una vía de intervención está condicionada por la situación comunicativa —modalidad y contexto—, el conocimiento de estas, relacionadas con las diferentes formas que toma la ZDI-IE, nos permite crear un repertorio de respuestas con las que formar a nuestros intérpretes para la mejora de la eficiencia en el proceso de transferencia. A continuación, exponemos esta relación entre los fenómenos identificados en el corpus (Torrella, 2020) —descritos en el apartado anterior— y las vías de intervención, que proponemos a partir de destacados trabajos en el ámbito de la interpretación dialógica.

En primer lugar, nos centramos en los fenómenos que suponen una ZDI-IE debido al contexto en el que se lleva a cabo la interpretación, es decir, relacionadas con posibles conflictos entre intención y función, motivados por las asociaciones de determinadas declaraciones a las culturas que interaccionan o a las estrategias empresariales de los participantes en el encuentro. Como veíamos en el apartado anterior, observamos que en IE pueden surgir declaraciones con contenido humorístico o lenguaje soez donde este uso del lenguaje responda a una intención del hablante. Sin embargo, dado que la relación entre el humor y el lenguaje soez es indisociable de la cultura, cabría examinar qué vía permite mantener la función, es decir, preservar la correspondencia entre la reformulación del mensaje y la intención del hablante.

Con esta finalidad, planteamos dos posibles vías de intervención. La primera, sería seleccionar la información relevante, es decir, tomar solo la parte del mensaje que permita ser fiel a la intención y suprimir aquella que no lo sea (Angelelli, 2004; Baker, 2006; Davidson, 2002; Mason, 1999; Wadensjö, 1998). En estos casos, si el uso del humor o el lenguaje soez no se adapta al marco de referencia del receptor, esta sería la parte del mensaje que sería omitida. Podemos observar este tipo de fenómeno en nuestro corpus en la declaración de un hablante de un marco de referencia menos formal, español, que emplea la broma para relajar la tensión y persuadir al interlocutor británico en la negociación, segmento 1257 que exponíamos en el apartado anterior. Sin embargo, es probable que la falta de formalidad de esta declaración no fuera recibida del mismo modo —lograr tal relajación— en la cultura británica en el momento en el que se emplea (Elías, 2009; Torrella, 2020), por lo que cabría optar por esta vía, y no reproducir literalmente mensaje, para evitar transmitir el matiz humorístico y vulgar. Por otro lado, hemos de tener presente que la omisión de parte del mensaje, es decir, de aquella que presenta elementos susceptibles de alterar su función, no es siempre viable, ya que podemos encontrar declaraciones que solo incluyan esa declaración humorística o vulgar, por ejemplo, el segmento 1093 «La host**, jod**» (Torrella, 2020). En estos casos, la supresión de la totalidad del mensaje no mantendría fidelidad a la intención ya que, si el cluyo intérprete no reformula el mensaje, no habría mensaje que cumpliera función alguna. En estos casos, podemos recurrir a otra vía, la adaptación del mensaje a la cultura meta, empleando una reformulación que causara el efecto deseado por el emisor del mensaje. En concreto, en el ejemplo tomado como referencia, en la consideración de este tipo de intervención, podemos sugerir adaptaciones como «Ya está bien». En este caso, la vía de intervención correspondería con la adopción del papel de mediador, donde el mensaje sufriría una adaptación (Garzone, 2001; Kohn y Kalina, 1996; Roy, 2000; Takimoto, 2006, 2009; Trovato, 2013; Wadensjö, 1998) y, de este modo, mantendría la transferibilidad.

Por otro lado, veíamos también que en IE podemos encontrar zonas en las que existe un intercambio de información interno, es decir, hablan los oradores que pertenecen a una misma empresa entre sí. En estos casos, dependiendo de la naturaleza de la información, podemos plantear el recurso de la vía de intervención de 'selección de información relevante' y, de este modo, dar respuesta a la intención de los oradores transmitiendo la información dirigida a la otra empresa. Siguiendo esta vía, en el ejemplo 137 en el que una interlocutora pedía a la compañera una fotocopia, cabría valorar la supresión de esta información si, de este modo, se mejora la eficiencia del discurso, como sucedería en el caso de que se presentasen limitaciones temporales propias de la modalidad.

En lo que respecta a las imposiciones propias de la modalidad dialógica que tiene lugar en una IE, observábamos que el fenómeno desencadenante de la necesidad de toma de decisiones es la ausencia de margen temporal para la reformulación, que se presenta de diversas formas. Para relacionar las posibles vías de intervención del intérprete, retomamos esos fenómenos que se erigen como ZDI-IE debido a esta limitación temporal originada por la interacción entre los participantes del diálogo.

En primer lugar, recordamos que el diálogo puede presentar interrupciones y solapamientos entre las declaraciones de los oradores, así como con las reformulaciones del propio intérprete. Ante estos fenómenos, el intérprete requiere vías de intervención que le permitan reformular su mensaje garantizando la transferibilidad y, con esta finalidad, identificamos tres posibles fórmulas. La primera, sería adaptar la modalidad (Kohn y Kalina, 1996; Takimoto, 2009) para permitir que el diálogo continúe, optando por pasar a una consecutiva más larga —toma de notas durante la continuación de la conversación—. Sin embargo, esta opción no sería viable si las interrupciones o solapamientos no permiten que los oradores enuncien declaraciones completas, como vemos en nuestro corpus en varios segmentos, como el 436, donde se interrumpe el mensaje y queda como sigue: «Estos de dentro…». El orador está refiriéndose a unas tiras internas del producto, sin embargo, esto no es posible entenderlo hasta minutos más tarde debido a que es interrumpido y no completa la explicación. Esta incompletitud de los mensajes que se emiten podría provocar una falta de comprensión del intérprete y, por tanto, impedir que se preserve la transferibilidad. En estos casos, el intérprete podría recurrir también a otras dos vías de intervención, bien a la moderación de turnos (Davidson, 2002; Garzone, 2001; Gavioli, 2014; Hale, 2007; Roy, 2000; Russell y Takeda, 2015; Wadensjö, 1998) o bien permitir que el diálogo continúe e intervenir a continuación solicitando las aclaraciones necesarias y aportando las explicaciones pertinentes (Angelelli, 2004; Baker, 2006; Mason, 1999; Wadensjö, 1998).

Por otro lado, en este tipo de declaraciones que se solapan, veíamos que podemos encontrar información que no se dirige a la otra parte —conversaciones internas—; en estos casos, conviene considerar la activación de vías relacionadas con el contexto, antes expuestas, para garantizar una intervención en sintonía con los objetivos de los participantes en el encuentro. Por último, veíamos que esta falta de margen para reformular también podía deberse al uso de la lengua extranjera, es decir, que un orador formulase una declaración directamente en la lengua del destinatario. Ante este fenómeno, la moderación de los turnos no sería una posibilidad debido a que el mensaje ya habría sido recibido. Por tanto, en caso de detectar una pérdida de transferibilidad debido al contenido o la forma de la declaración del orador (como en el caso 847 que veíamos en el epígrafe anterior), solo cabría la posibilidad de intervenir posteriormente, moderando el diálogo o solicitando aclaraciones y proveyendo las explicaciones necesarias.

Desde esta aproximación a la toma de decisiones a través del estudio de los fenómenos identificados (Torrella, 2020), planteamos un repertorio de opciones —vías de intervención— para dar respuesta a las ZDI-IE y proveer a los estudiantes con fórmulas con las que enfrentarse a estos retos presentes en la práctica profesional de la IE. A modo de síntesis, de estas fórmulas observadas a través de los ejemplos expuestos, presentamos las *vías de intervención* propuestas.

- Para dar respuesta a las imposiciones temporales:
  - recurrir a la adaptación de la modalidad;
  - a la moderación de turnos;
  - o la participación en el diálogo —petición de aclaraciones o provisión de explicaciones—.
- Para atender la posible pérdida de transferibilidad debido al vínculo entre el contenido de las declaraciones y los marcos de referencia —culturas y propósito—:
  - mediante la selección de información relevante y supresión de la no relevante, o no pertinente, para garantizar la coincidencia entre intención y función;
  - mediante la adaptación del mensaje, es decir, *mediando* culturalmente.

A continuación, incluimos un breve cuadro con estas *vías* para responder a las ZDI-IE descritas que esperamos resulte un esquema útil para la aplicación docente de esta propuesta.

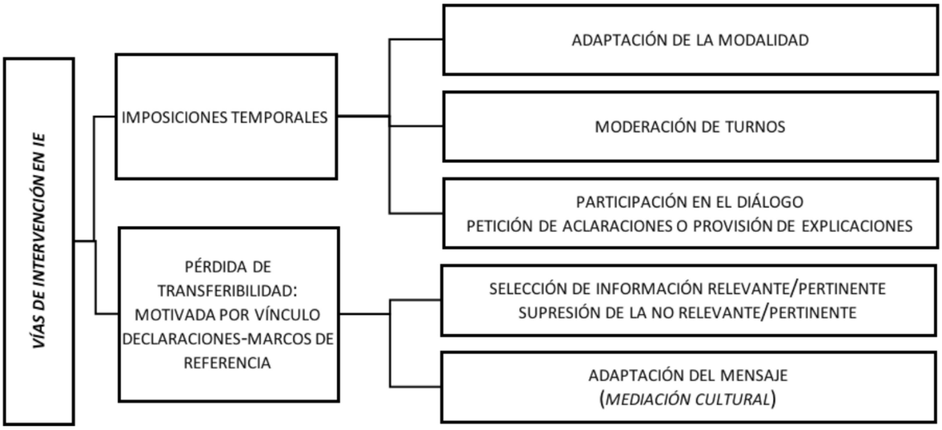

Figura 3: Vías de intervención para responder a las limitaciones en la IE (ZDI-IE).

Para completar esta propuesta, quisiéramos poner en valor la utilidad de entender este fenómeno para la formación práctica en IE, tanto para la creación de materiales como para reflexionar en torno a los aspectos deontológicos de la profesión. Partíamos de cómo el conocimiento teórico del concepto ZDI-IE y de las posibles fórmulas para dar respuesta a estos retos permite formar intérpretes conocedores de las complejidades de la profesión y conscientes de la necesidad de activar el proceso de toma de decisiones. Con vistas a desarrollar esta *competencia,* subrayamos el interés que tiene para la docencia la inclusión de diferentes ZDI-IE en el trabajo de clase mediante la creación de materiales específicos para promover el desarrollo de una capacidad de respuesta inmediata y para la reflexión en torno a la decisión del estudiante, tales como los juegos de rol que integren estos desafíos (Vigier-Moreno y Torrella, 2022). Del mismo modo, en esta aproximación a la decisión del intérprete como eje de la formación, no olvidamos que la deontología de la profesión es una pieza clave para formar intérpretes *competentes*, teniendo presente que debe existir una armonía entre la capacidad del futuro intérprete para dar respuesta a los retos de la profesión y los principios que rigen en esta. En este sentido, podemos considerar la ZDI-IE un concepto desde el que reflexionar en torno a la conducta del intérprete, en la medida en que permite valorar la sintonía de la actuación del intérprete con los principios éticos de la profesión, línea de investigación en la que continuamos trabajando.

4. CONCLUSIONES

En esta propuesta se ha definido la ZDI-IE, entendida como el fenómeno que exige al intérprete activar su capacidad de toma de decisiones, en la práctica de la IE, para garantizar la eficiencia de la comunicación y la transferencia del mensaje, preservando su completitud y la función prevista por el emisor, es decir, su *transferibilidad*. En vista de estos desafíos, que se presentan en la práctica profesional de la IE en la actualidad —desde el estudio de corpus compilado por Torrella (2020)—, proponíamos la integración de estos fenómenos en la formación del futuro intérprete con el objetivo de preparar a los estudiantes para enfrentarse a retos reales de esta práctica. Desde estas coordenadas, buscamos que el futuro intérprete desarrolle su capacidad de dar respuesta a las ZDI-IE a través del conocimiento de estos fenómenos y de las posibles *vías de intervención* con las que poder actuar durante la situación comunicativa. Es decir, explicando fórmulas que les permitan enfrentarse a los desafíos de la profesión para, de este modo, formar intérpretes competentes.

Tenemos presente que, si bien el concepto ZDI-IE nos ha permitido ilustrar diferentes retos de la práctica profesional y entender la relevancia de la toma de decisiones, resulta fundamental continuar examinando nuevos casos —recopilar y analizar situaciones de IE— que permitan definir otros posibles fenómenos que supongan zonas de intervención en este ámbito. En especial, consideramos esencial continuar también con el estudio de estos fenómenos en encuentros virtuales, en vista de la creciente importancia de la interpretación remota, para completar la formación del intérprete mediante la consideración de los retos propios de esta modalidad y las posibles fórmulas de respuesta.

Por último, no podemos olvidar que la noción ZDI-IE nos llevaba a subrayar el rol activo del intérprete, quien, según veíamos en las posibles vías de intervención, puede devenir moderador, participante o mediador en la conversación. En este sentido, tenemos presente que estas decisiones son también objeto de estudio desde un punto de vista deontológico y que es imprescindible reflexionar en torno a la sintonía entre las diferentes formas de intervenir del intérprete y los principios de la profesión (Vigier-Moreno y Torrella, 2022). Sin embargo, en vista del debate sobre la avenencia entre los diferentes códigos y la figura del intérprete en IE (Hale, 2007; Takimoto, 2006), resulta necesario continuar profundizando también en el análisis de la conducta del intérprete y las necesidades comunicativas de los participantes del encuentro. Con este objetivo, seguimos en la actualidad trabajando en el estudio de la ZDI-IE desde esta óptica, mediante la observación y reflexión de las fórmulas que emplean los intérpretes en diferentes situaciones para dar respuesta a los retos de la práctica profesional.

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Developing and Using an Ad Hoc Corpus to Teach Specialized Interpreting: A Case Study of German Embassy Speeches

La creación y el uso de un corpus ad hoc *en la enseñanza de la interpretación especializada: un estudio de caso de discursos de la Embajada de Alemania*

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Abstract: This article describes a corpus-based approach to specialized interpreter training, advocating for the compilation and use of ad hoc corpora to support trainers when developing training materials for specific domains. To do so, this article presents a case study to illustrate the utility and the subsequent analysis of an ad hoc corpus for specialized interpreting training, which is conceived of as a complement to current training practices for diplomatic interpreting. A specialized German language corpus of embassy speeches and interviews was compiled based on freely-available data and subsequently analyzed to identify genre- and domain-specific features of these types of addresses. By identifying discourse, text type, and specific terminology and expressions, trainers can develop domain- and genre-specific materials for training that align with the types of discourse that are likely to be encountered when working in these specialized domains. These materials can be used as part of courses in addition to self-study. This corpus-based approach to materials development can complement current training practices for specialized interpreting and enable authentic materials to be integrated into the interpreting classroom.

Keywords: interpreting pedagogy; diplomatic interpreting; specialized interpreting training; corpus-assisted training; genre analysis; genre-specific training.

Resumen: Este artículo describe la aplicación de la metodología de corpus a la formación de la interpretación especializada. Se propone el uso de los corpus *ad hoc* como apoyo al profesorado en la creación de materiales didácticos en ámbitos de especialidad, para lo que se presenta un estudio de caso y el resultado del análisis de un corpus de este tipo. El uso de los corpus *ad hoc* se presenta como un complemento a las prácticas actuales en la formación de la interpretación diplomática. El corpus especializado de este trabajo se recopila a partir de discursos y entrevistas en alemán de la Embajada de Alemania disponibles gratuitamente y con él se analizan y se determinan las características específicas de los géneros y del ámbito de especialidad en el que se inscriben. Al detectar las expresiones y la terminología propias de los géneros, el tipo textual y el discurso en un corpus *ad hoc*, el profesorado puede adaptar los materiales pedagógicos a los ámbitos de especialidad y géneros que se puedan encontrar en las condiciones reales de la interpretación en ámbitos especializados. Los materiales resultantes pueden usarse como parte de asignaturas o como material de autoaprendizaje. Este acercamiento a la creación de recursos pedagógicos puede complementar las prácticas de la enseñanza de la interpretación especializada y facilitar la integración de materiales auténticos en el aula de interpretación.

Palabras clave: pedagogía de la interpretación; interpretación diplomática; formación en interpretación especializada; formación asistida con corpus; análisis del género textual; formación adaptada al género textual.

1. INTRODUCTION

In light of its considerable visibility on the international stage, political and diplomatic interpreting is perhaps one of the most highly-recognizable forms of interpreting. This specialized type of language services enjoys its privileged position of societal recognition for a range of reasons, not least of which being that it is one of the oldest forms appearing throughout history (Thiéry, 2015; Baigorri-Jalón *et al.*, 2021), but also by virtue of the status of the parties for whom these interpreters provide their services. Interpreters regularly render these specialized interpreting services for dignitaries, political figures, and official state representatives, all of whom are perhaps more visible to the general public than other professionals. Such public presence of diplomatic interpreters comes naturally, particularly given the media coverage of international political summits and bilateral meetings and the often high-stakes nature of these interactions. Moreover, diplomatic interpreting has been the subject of considerable reflection — in mass media, in literary fiction, in film industry, and in interpreters' own memoirs (Andres, 2008, 2015). Interpreting studies researchers, too, have focused on the history of diplomatic interpreting (Roland, 1999), including inquiry into development of training practices and institutions in this area in different regions of the world (Lung, 2011; Sawyer, 2016; Cáceres-Würsig, 2012).

Despite its rather visible status, there is not a clearcut trajectory for interpreters interested in working in these contexts. According to a recent informal survey by Olsen *et al.* (2021), diplomatic interpreters have diverse backgrounds and skills, and are «not necessarily the type of interpreter one would find through an interpreting agency or by searching the directory of a professional association» (Olsen *et al.*, 2021, p. 68-69). The survey results suggest that some diplomatic interpreters are occasionally freelance interpreters, who then take more formalized positions, while others have previous experience as diplomats or have worked as military or intelligence service personnel. Some professionals currently working in the field criticize the relative dearth of job-specific training in academic contexts (Buri, 2015). Similar critical comments regarding interpreter education have been levied against general conference interpreting courses (Wang, 2015, p. 66), with some of the most ardent critiques suggesting that interpreter education has become pedagogically unfit to train professional interpreters (Igualada & Echeverri, 2019, p. 37).

To bridge this divide, interpreter trainers have started to focus on the development and use of teaching materials for specialized interpreting, including political and diplomatic settings. A recent publication by Kadrić *et al.* (2022), *Diplomatic and Political Interpreting Explained*, an English adaptation and update of Kadrić and Zanocco's (2018) earlier volume published in German, provides one such introduction to the field. In this latest version, the authors recommend engaging with authentic materials regularly encountered in these specialized settings. This guidance is common across much of the interpreting studies literature (e.g., Nolan, 2005; Gillies, 2013, 2019); however, the general nature of the recommendation is often unaccompanied rather than providing exercises to acquire specific interpreting skills. While trainers and researchers often view these pedagogical activities as indispensable (Dingfelder Stone, 2015, p. 243), the rationale for a lack of language-specific exercises is perhaps related to efforts to make these training materials broadly available regardless of language combination. In doing so, the onus falls on interpreter trainers or students to identify these materials and create associated exercises, which may ultimately lead to suboptimal results.

As one potential means to facilitate this type of preparation and to develop specialized materials that align with authentic interpreting scenarios, trainers may benefit from the use of ad hoc (sometimes referred to as opportunistic) corpora. This article demonstrates how this type of corpus-based approach to materials development can be done using an example of diplomatic speeches and illustrates the feasibility of incorporating these tools in the interpreting classroom. To frame this approach and to understand what role such corpus-assisted training may play in interpreter education, the article first examines the use of corpus-based approaches to interpreter training, followed then by a discussion of specific genre conventions of discourse commonly found in diplomatic interpreting. The case study presents a fit-for-purpose corpus of Embassy Speeches and Interviews (ESI) held by the German ambassador to the Russian Federation in order to show how language-specific resources can be developed and leveraged. Following the genre-based approach to translation and interpreting (TI) pedagogy forwarded by Baer and Mellinger (2020), the article then analyzes welcome speeches with regard to their overarching structure, rhetorical moves, and lexical composition in order to demonstrate how a research-informed approach to materials development can benefit specialized training in diplomatic interpreting.

2. CORPUS-ASSISTED AND GENRE-SPECIFIC TRAINING

Corpus-based approaches to TI scholarship are a commonly-adopted method to investigate the product and process of translation and interpreting. The compilation and composition of these corpora are of considerable importance (Zanettin, 2012), insofar as the digitized collection of texts serves as the primary data source in these studies. Whereas corpus-based translation studies may be able to rely on readily-available texts, corpus-based interpreting studies require an additional step — the transcription of signed or spoken source discourse or speeches and their subsequent target language renditions (for a review of transcribing interpreting events, see Niemants, 2012, p. 180-187). Previously, the difficulty and labor-intensive nature of this task led to fewer interpreting-specific corpora than their translation studies counterparts; however, greater availability of automatic speech recognition (ASR) tools have significantly decreased potential barriers to their incorporation. Consequently, the average size of corpora may no longer be as constrained as in the past, thereby increasing the feasibility of integrating these tools into the interpreting classroom. Corpus-based interpreting studies commonly focus on highly specialized areas of communication in which the available amount of data is naturally limited, which has ultimately led to these specialized corpora being analyzed in greater detail. For example, Sandrelli (2012) explores interpreting at football press conferences using the FOOTIE corpus, Cabrera (2016) reports on the «architecture interpreting» (ARCHINT) corpus, and Bendazzoli (2010) focuses on directionality when interpreting at international medical conferences in the DIRSI project.

Recent advances in speech-to-text technologies have led to considerable developments in corpus-based interpreting studies (Bendazzoli *et al.*, 2018; Russo, 2019;

Wang & Tang, 2020), along with their implementation in interpreting pedagogy[1]. For instance, Bertozzi (2018) describes a project involving an Italian-Spanish intermodal corpus (ANGLINTRAD) to investigate loanwords, resulting in an in-depth analysis of TI strategies for 241 English loanwords in the Italian subcorpus. These terminological resources can be used in TI classes for comparative study. Ferraresi (2016) shows how an English-Italian intermodal parallel corpus (EPTIC) can be used in an educational setting to analyze differences in decision-making processes and proposes corpus-based teaching materials on collocations. Still other studies have described the creation of a proprietary on-site bilingual interpreting corpus and a complex e-learning environment at Hong Kong Polytechnic University (Wang, 2015) and their use in training contexts (Wang & Tang, 2020). Xu (2018) shows the increased efficiency of student terminology-driven preparation for an interpreting task when using a corpus-assisted approach. Fantinuoli (2018) has also argued that comparable speech corpora can be used in interpreter training to support deliberate practice and autonomous learning, particularly to improve language-specific skills.

As the previously-cited studies indicate, the use of bilingual interpreting corpora has considerable advantages despite some of the challenges of creating these types of corpora (Bernardini *et al.,* 2018). Nevertheless, monolingual corpora may also be useful to understand specific discourse conventions in one of the working languages. Bowker and Pearson (2002) present several tools and techniques to work with these specialized corpora and lay the foundation for their subsequent application. Braun and Kohn (2012) and Bale (2015) provide descriptions of different corpus-based resources for interpreter training, focusing on spoken and video corpora as a source of training materials.

The utility of monolingual corpora for training purposes has been discussed by translation studies researchers who recognize the importance of including genre in training programs given its utility in analyzing texts (Biel, 2018; García Izquierdo, 2022; James, 1989). Researchers have discussed genre-specific training in language for specific purposes (Borja Albi *et al.,* 2014), conducted projects improving genre awareness in legal translator education (Balogh, 2019), and developed translation coursebooks centered around this approach (Baer & Mellinger, 2020). These approaches are also potentially useful for interpreter training which coincides with renewed calls to (re-)establish closer relations between translation and interpreting studies (Defrancq *et al.*, 2019). Indeed, revisiting earlier claims to study both interpreting and translation within one subject of *Translation* as opposed to the division in written *Übersetzen* and oral *Dolmetschen* modalities (Kade, 1968, p. 33), may provide additional insights for the current theoretical approaches and can be extended, at least in part, to pedagogy. In

1. This article focuses on the use of standard corpus tool features to work with spoken language in interpreting pedagogy. For a review of more sophisticated technological environments developed for interpreter training, see Rodríguez Melchor *et al.* (2020), and for signed language corpus-driven research, see Wehrmeyer (2019, 2021).

line with this trend, it might be useful to borrow some of the tools from translator training and apply them to interpreting classes.

In the context of diplomatic interpreting, one may look to translation studies research on genre and its relationship to diplomatic speech. Building on Hatim and Mason's (1990) work, García Izquierdo and Montalt (2021, p. 136) make the case to incorporate genre into these discussions, insofar as a corpus-based approach «links together formal ('conventionalized forms'), sociocultural ('social occasions') and cognitive ('purposes of participants') aspects of communication» as «a platform where all translation-relevant elements converge». As Trosborg (2000, p. vii–viii) argues, the awareness and ability to use genres is an indispensable aspect of knowledge that is required for a full participation in professional cultures. For the purposes of this article, *genre* (like discourse) will refer to the sociocultural use, the setting of a speech, and will be reflective of the social occasion (Hatim & Mason, 1990, p. 142). By considering genre in this way, it is therefore appropriate to speak about *diplomatic speech* as a genre. We will also adopt Hatim and Mason's (1990, p. 48) definition of *text type* as a more conventionalized form of text, entailing «a common core of grammatical and lexical features appropriate to many situation tokens». Here, we adopt the above-mentioned cross-disciplinary approach to build upon the suggestions from the introductory coursebook *Translating Texts* (Baer & Mellinger, 2020) that focuses on written translation to use a similar method in interpreter training. The theoretical overview and argument outlined in their introduction that situates genre-based approaches to translation pedagogy is equally applicable to interpreting studies. The present study is a natural extension of this work, which builds on genre analysis discussed by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). The methodology summarized in Baer and Mellinger (2020) was deemed preferable in this instance to other approaches (cf. Borja *et al*., 2009) given its orientation toward applied goals of teaching and training the language professionals. The present study seeks to illustrate the feasibility and utility of incorporating corpora into the interpreting classroom as a complement to other pedagogical activities, highlighting how a research-based approach to text analysis can augment a trainer's ability to teach specialized interpreting. In addition, we merge two main approaches to teaching genre (Flowerdew, 2002), namely linguistic and situational approaches. While a focus on the situational context is indispensable to understand language use in a specific context, a proficient specialized language user, especially an interpreter, must be very familiar with lexico-grammatical and rhetorical structures of certain text types to be able to provide necessary equivalents in a prompt and reliable manner. For interpreting studies and interpreter training, certain genres and text types (e.g., orally produced types of text, speeches, written-to-be-spoken addresses, interviews) are more pertinent than others regarding future work for graduates. In the context of diplomatic interpreting, diplomatic speech as a genre produced in the corresponding setting may manifest in several text types, such as welcome speeches or commemoration addresses by foreign ministers, international politicians, diplomats, or — as is the case with the corpus that is presented below — speeches delivered by an ambassador. In what follows, we briefly outline some of the genre-specific features of diplomatic discourse that are encountered by interpreters, followed by a description of the specific corpus and its subsequent analysis.

3. DIPLOMATIC INTERPRETING AND DIPLOMATIC SPEECHES

The situated practice of diplomatic interpreting (DI) requires explicit recognition of the setting(s) in which interpreters work as well as recognition of the types of genres, speeches, and texts with which they work. Gheorghiu (2020) provides a taxonomy for research in DI and attempts to identify what aspects of DI distinguish this type of interpreting from others. In Gheorghiu's proposal, broad concepts, such as responsibility, power, roles, ethics, and invisibility are particularly salient to understand DI. Nevertheless, the author concedes that these are not specific to diplomatic interpreting, or are only quasi-specific. Therefore, Gheorghiu (2020, p. 28) argues that one distinguishing factor of this specialized type of interpreting service, among others, is what the author terms «devices», i.e., techniques of interpretation in the given situation, such as coping with vagueness and ambiguity, or optimization of form and content.

These specific DI devices may be important for interpreting pedagogy since they comprise the basic skill that underlies all other factors and criteria, and as such, ought to be incorporated into DI coursework. The emphasis on skill development should not be underestimated: trainees enrolled in modern, rather short-term and practice-oriented MA courses in conference interpreting often seek to develop basic interpreting skills by retaining a link to language in interpreting. In an effort to bring together the larger contextual, setting-based approach to interpreter training with a more text-based, micro-level approach, this article advocates for a research-based pedagogy that incorporates corpus-derived materials into class activities. These activities, based on text and discourse, may assist in distinguishing the above-mentioned devices on a textual level, thereby providing materials for training, even without additional corpus annotation and enrichment efforts for pedagogical purposes (cf. Braun, 2006).

To train language professionals in the field of DI, a closer look is needed at the genre of diplomatic interpreting since there has been inconsistency in how it has been characterized, both in terms of the source language utterances with which interpreters work and the resulting rendition provided by interpreters. First, diplomats are not expected to speak as representatives of a political party nor are they considered active policy-makers (Kadrić *et al.*, 2022, p. 10-12). As such, their language use is often not performative and is not always considered to be an enactment of policy. However, when the issue of translation is concerned, there is a potential shift in the overarching function of the rendition in the target language. For instance, Schäffner (1998, p. 186) assumes a change in the function of the target text compared to the source text, which is illustrated by her example of a political speech delivered in German and then interpreted for a foreign audience:

> For diplomatic reasons, the ST [source text] has to be produced in the source language but from the outset with the intention of having it translated for use in the target culture. There are hardly any «proper» addressees of the ST (apart from German-speaking members of the immediate audience).

By emphasizing the interpreted rendition and the subsequent change in function, both researchers and trainers can point to decisions made when interpreting that have been shaped by this change. The case study presented below also recognizes this important feature of DI and political discourse, insofar as the German-language speeches given by the ambassador are addressed to a Russian-speaking audience. Thus, there are potential shifts in function across languages while also reaching a greater number of speakers than the original German-language version.

A second important characteristic of diplomatic speeches is that these texts are normally prepared in advance and can be ostensibly classified as «written-to-be-spoken» texts. However, despite their prevalence and regular use as part of diplomatic discourse, compilations of written-to-be-spoken text types, such as the hundreds provided in the *Handbook of Linguistics and Communication Science* (Gutenberg, 2000, pp. 582-585), do not mention any specific diplomatic genres. The question of what constitutes a diplomatic speech may instead be derived from the setting of a certain speech act or the person delivering the address rather than the type of speech or the text per se. For instance, if a diplomat gives a speech at an event, such speech may be deemed as a diplomatic speech; if an ambassador is speaking at a dinner, his toast or after-dinner speech may also be considered a diplomatic speech. The same applies to a (diplomatic) welcome addresses on different occasions, interviews, or other such events. Consequently, we expect to find different text types under the broad designation of this label. Certain genres are also more likely to be found in diplomatic settings than others (e.g., congratulatory speeches rather than sports commentaries or daily news summaries).

4. ESI CORPUS AND ANALYSIS

The present corpus follows the specialized corpus selection criteria provided in the appendix of Baer and Mellinger (2020). The Embassy Speeches and Interviews (ESI) corpus comprises 23,504 words, consisting of 35 documents: 31 speeches and 4 interviews. The extension of the corpus was restricted by availability — all documents that were publicly available online on the German embassy website in the Russian Federation under the section «Addresses, interviews and articles of the ambassador von Geyr»[2] at the time of corpus creation were included in ESI[3]. All of the texts are

2. https://germania.diplo.de/ru-de/vertretungen/botschaft/-/2356248 (Accessed on 15.05.2023).

3. All of these texts also have an official Russian translation that is published on the same website. These were compiled into a second corpus, namely a bilingual Russian–German corpus that aligns the original German speeches and interviews from ESI with their official published translations. It will be used for further research and training purposes; however, the analysis of this bilingual corpus falls outside the scope of the present article.

attributed to the same ambassador, and all texts were included in full. Titles and additional comments (e.g., «check against delivery») were original to the documents and were also included. The authorship and the language of the corpus are appropriate for the purpose of this corpus since they are officially released by the German embassy. The publication dates range between 2020 and 2022, ensuring that the language material is relevant, and the topics are current. Both of these factors are important for the quality of language training materials, especially in diplomatic interpreter training where not only contemporary topics, but also the relevant terms and wording are of utmost importance (Kadrić *et al.*, 2022, p. 31).

ESI was created using *Sketch Engine*, a readily-available corpus tool commonly used in translation and interpreting studies. The frequency analysis of this corpus and its sub-corpus ESI-OS (see below) have been conducted using various functions directly available in *Sketch Engine*. The utility of this type of tool lies in its ability to generate opportunistic and ad hoc corpora that are specific to the needs of interpreter trainers. Moreover, the documentation and community of users of the software make the tool an accessible resource that does not require extensive training to incorporate into their own classes or to develop their own resources.

All documents in ESI can be categorized into two groups, based on the mode of the text. The larger group can be described as «written-to-be-spoken», which refers to different speeches and addresses that were apparently composed in advance with the ultimate goal of being delivered by the ambassador. The other group of documents are interviews, which were originally transcribed to be read by the audience of the respective media outlets and have been included in the corpus as published on the embassy website. Although the general subject of the corpus is diplomatic speeches and interviews, a closer look at the text types reveals a more diverse selection of documents.

5. ESI TEXT TYPES

Here, we present a text type analysis, providing both a macro-level and micro-level description of the diplomatic texts included in the ESI corpus. All 35 documents begin with an original title. These titles include a description of the event, or the occasion at which the speech, or the interview were given. In most cases the document titles begin with a label of the text type, facilitating the following analysis for all 35 documents.

There are four interviews in ESI. In two interviews, the text type label is provided in the title, while in another two publications, the word «interview» is not explicitly mentioned*.* Quite often, the statement of the text type is omitted (7 instances), and the whole title is constructed using a preposition clause introduced by the German word *anlässlich* [on the occasion of], as in the following example: «Botschafter von Geyr anlässlich des 75. Jahrestags des Abschlusses der Nürnberger Prozesse» [Ambassador von Geyr on the occasion of the 75th anniversary of the end of the Nuremberg Trials].

In some cases, the omitted text type label can be found in the lead following the title. The text type *Ansprache* [address] is explicitly mentioned in the title in five instances, including such derivatives as *Videoansprache* [recorded address], and *Grußbotschaft* [greeting address][4]. The most frequent text type label, *Grußwort* [welcome speech], occurred 19 times in ESI, including such derivatives as *Einführendes Grußwort* [introductory welcome speech], or *Videogrußwort* [recorded welcome speech]. Seven speeches in ESI were initially produced as video recordings. All were published after the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Since labels such as «address» and «welcome speech» can be used in the titles interchangeably, the preceding review of the document labels may be somewhat misleading. However, a brief content analysis of the texts provides greater insight and helps to categorize the texts more reliably. For instance, a rather distinct text type, namely an anniversary address, appears six times in ESI. Despite being labeled differently (i.e., address, recorded address, or welcome speech), all six speeches had similar content insofar as the main topic addressed the primary occasion for the event, such as recurring holidays (e.g., German Unity Day) or memorial days (e.g., 75th Anniversary of The Nuremberg Trials).

Further analysis of the speeches, excluding interviews, shows that the most common text type in ESI is opening remarks: they account for 64.5% of all documents. An additional six speeches were delivered at public events despite not being the opening remarks. In total, 26 speeches (over 83% of ESI) were connected to public events, illustrating the context-specific nature of the comments. Of the comments presented at public events, 40% were opening speeches at an exhibition, which further situated the ambassador's comments not only to a specific location, but also to the event itself.

Having this broad understanding of the situatedness of diplomatic speeches is of potential support to trainers. As García Izquierdo and Montalt (2021, p. 140) describe when referring to translation classes:

> […] the target genre is conceived of as a communicative space in which the written text — that is, the translation — is but one among several key factors. Exploring them in detail may help the student choose strategies and take decisions to solve the difficulties and problems posed by the translation brief.

Much in the same way that García Izquierdo and Montalt (2021) recognize the communicative space shaping target language genre conventions, we consider the importance of the context-specific nature of these diplomatic texts for interpreting pedagogy. Trainers can point to these macro-level descriptions of texts included in an ad hoc corpus to illustrate the general orientation of these speeches and emphasize the

4. *Grußbotschaft* is often rendered in English as «greeting». This outlier may be classified by referencing the available official Russian version, in which the term has been translated using the same term as in the case of *Ansprache*, «address».

importance of the communicative space, this time quite literally, in which their renditions will be provided.

The most common text types of the ESI are presented in Table 1 (excluding four interviews):

Table 1: Text types in ESI

Genre	Count
Opening remarks	20
Holiday or commemoration day address	7
Award ceremony speech	2

In addition to opening remarks at events, the corpus included remarks at award ceremonies and holiday celebrations or commemorations for historical events. These text types will likely vary depending on the data sources included; however, there is utility in a general understanding of the types of events at which diplomatic interpreters may need to work. For instance, interpreters with ambassadors may find themselves participating in these types of events, while other staff that work with the ambassador may work in other contexts. Interpreters will need to be cognizant of this potential variation, and an ad hoc corpus helps reveal which text types may be most appropriate to prepare.

Table 2 presents the fields of discourse found in ESI. Of all ESI speeches, 67.7% are either addresses delivered for historical anniversaries, or opening speeches at exhibitions, concerts, and other art events.

Table 2: Most popular topics in ESI

Topic	Count
History and World War II	11
Art	10
Science and education	7

Quite remarkable is the number of speeches that are in some way concerned with historical topics. For the German–Russian context, such close attention to the past is commonplace in light of the roles both countries played in World War II. In fact, nearly a third of all ESI speeches (9 in total) were connected to topics related to the war. There may also be a personal connection to the topic of the speeches delivered by the ambassador. As a historian by training, the ambassador stresses in one of the speeches that he is particularly interested in the topic of the meeting where he is speaking.

Such a taxonomy of text types within a genre and a subject field can be one important result of working with a corpus like this in interpreting classes, especially when language for specific purposes in a specialized interpreting setting is concerned. As an introductory activity in class, students may be asked to reflect on these taxonomies in an effort to better understand what constitute diplomatic speeches more generally, followed then by a more detailed discussion of specific text types, occasions, and events where interpreting occurs. This type of activity familiarizes students with the topics covered as a whole in this communicative space, while also raising awareness of the language used in these settings. Trainers can use these text types to scaffold future assignments by building on this established foundation of what the diplomatic genre and text types to be discussed in these settings.

Beyond greater awareness of specific language characteristics, trainers may also wish to address the policies that surround the availability of these texts for analysis. Since political translation represents a form of political activity (Danni, 2020, p. 3), trainers and students can reflect on which published speeches are publicly available as well as their corresponding translations. Whereas this case study draws on speeches and their translations from the German embassy to the Russian Federation, other German-speaking countries such as Austria do not have the same level of availability of their speeches. In a similar vein, the German embassy in France also does not have as extensive of a collection of addresses delivered by its French ambassadors. Diplomatic interpreting and translation are situated among the relations of the constituent parties, and as such, these texts provide a window into the politics of translation, connecting broad conceptualizations of political engagement with tangible speeches used in these settings.

Moreover, communication with translation services of the corresponding diplomatic representations can enrich interpreting classes by providing students with additional information on when exactly the translations are created and to what extent and how diplomatic interpreters reference these texts. More detailed textual analysis will help to discover more about the topics and probably the language formulas, which are typical for discussions among the diplomats of two specific countries, and this information can be directly linked to the language combination that is taught in the course.

The above ideas for corpus-assisted pedagogy in specialized interpreter training are rather general and descriptive. To be more specific and to address the training of the actual interpreting skills by providing material for exercises, we shall further examine one text type from ESI. As the above analysis has shown, the most popular text type in ESI is opening speech, or opening remarks, i.e., a speech act of greeting the participants and introducing the main event, which was either organized in cooperation with the German embassy, or to which the ambassador was invited to address the audience. To analyze this text type in more detail, a subcorpus of opening speeches ESI-OS was created. Using ESI-OS we will describe this type of text in terms of rhetorical moves, that may be helpful for specialized interpreter education.

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Rhetorical moves, defined as «largely predictable functional components in a text» (Danni, 2020, p. 3), represent a potentially fruitful avenue to explore in simultaneous interpreting training since prediction, or anticipation as interpreting strategy is often discussed in literature (cf. Van Besien, 1999; Vandepitte, 2001). While recent empirical findings are inconclusive that anticipation is particularly prolific in some settings (Dayter, 2020), the role of context in interpreting should not be underestimated (Chmiel, 2021). Insight into what kinds of rhetorical moves in a diplomatic speech genre are used repeatedly, and hence can be considered recognizable and predictable, may provide practical guidance for anticipation training in DI context.

Dontcheva-Navratilova (2009) has examined interpersonal meaning in diplomatic addresses as a genre whereby she analyzed thirty opening speeches delivered by three leaders of UNESCO. Her introductory discussion of the generic structure and expected rhetorical moves of political opening addresses remains relevant to the present analysis. While there is difference in the discourse of politicians leading a major international organization and an individual diplomat representing one country, as will be shown below, such typical moves as salutation and acknowledging the hosts, introducing the main topic, as well as an obligatory closure with sub-moves «wishing the event success» and «thanking the audience for its attention» (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2009, p. 133-134) are also found in the ambassador's opening speeches.

Many aspects of the suggested approach may be expanded by discussing with students basic assumptions of genre theory and discourse studies as developed by Bhatia *et al.* (2008), Swales (1990) or — as presented in introductory textbooks (e.g., Bax, 2011) — earlier authors such as Bakhtin or Aristotle. The applied nature of this exercise in developing a training approach does not allow the authors to elaborate on all considered theoretical concepts in detail. Instead, the following sections should be considered as a practice example of using a speech corpus and a genre-based theoretical framework for teaching conference interpreting, subject to critical assessment and further development by colleagues.

6. OPENING SPEECHES SUBCORPUS – ESI-OS

The ESI-OS documents (20) comprise 64% of all speeches in ESI, and in terms of word count (12,754 words) account for 54% of the entire extension of ESI (23,504 words). On average, the opening remarks are shorter than interviews and other text types in ESI. The word count of ESI-OS documents is highly variable, ranging from 196 to 1,036 words. Most documents (12 speeches) range in word count between 300 and 900 words. The similar values of the mean (637 words) and median (691 words) text length suggest a fairly symmetrical distribution of ranges. This general description provides an initial indicator of the diverse nature of assignments that diplomatic interpreters may encounter in their career when interpreting at official events.

In what follows, we adopt a more general approach to develop pedagogical materials based on a descriptive corpus analysis, as suggested by Baer and Mellinger (2020) for translation of written text genres. While their volume focuses on written materials, the present study extends their work by compiling an ad hoc corpus of oral speeches that a diplomatic interpreter is likely to encounter in order to conduct a genre analysis in the service of interpreter pedagogy. We begin the analysis with macro-textual features of the opening speeches and look at the rhetorical moves that occur in the ESI-OS. We then establish obligatory moves which are the genre's «core and essential elements» (Danni, 2020, p. 3), and describe some complementary optional moves.

7. MACRO-TEXTUAL FEATURES

Most of the opening speeches (17) in the subcorpus ESI-OS are labeled as *Grußwort* [welcome speech] in the title, representing a slightly higher proportion of speeches than that of the full corpus. The document title is the first mandatory rhetorical move which is followed by a date, and a text type label (on the embassy website, all the documents included in the ESI-OS are labeled as *Rede* [speech]). After these initial rhetorical moves, the speech itself appears in the text, which always begins with an obligatory greeting and contains an expression of gratitude (for invitation or for organizing the event), and a closing statement. A somewhat-mandatory move is the notice *Es gilt das gesprochene Wort* [Check against delivery], which can be found in nine speeches. It is worth noting that seven speeches were pre-recorded video addresses; in these instances, this notice to verify the text against what was said in the speech is not necessary to include. Hence, this rhetorical move is absent in just four relevant speeches and therefore can be considered quite common.

Another optional move, present in six cases, is the name of the event location. Location is mentioned in the beginning of the document, after the date and the «speech» label, and indicates the city and/or the venue of the event, e.g., *Moskau, Neue Tretjakow-Galerie* [Moscow, The New Tretyakov Gallery].

The above mandatory and optional moves can be summarized as follows:

- Title
- Date
- Genre label
- Event location [optional]
- «Check against delivery» notice [optional]
- Greeting/gratitude/salutation
- Main content of the speech
- Closing/wishes/gratitude

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7.1. *Register*

The register of the opening speeches in ESI-OS depends largely on the field of discourse, since two other elements of the register — mode and tenor — remain constant. The mode — i.e., the way in which the language is used in ESI-OS documents — can be described as written-to-be-spoken. This type of language results in well-structured texts with obligatory moves that do not leave much room for spontaneity. At the same time, the author of the speech is cognizant of the oral communication channel and the function of this speech act, using discourse markers to shift to subsequent key points. The sentences in these speeches are not overly long and avoid complicated syntax, excessive statistics, or specialized technical terms. The tenor — i.e., the relationship between author and audience — of the opening speeches seeks to make the message accessible to the general audience at the event, and, more importantly, to underline the speaker's role as a diplomatic representative of the country. Both politeness and neutrality are main factors in the tenor of these speeches. In shorter speeches, the text may be more formal and restricted to mandatory moves with little additional content, while in longer addresses, the main topic of the event is touched upon, however, without being overly technical.

The prevailing field of discourse regulated by the topics of the speeches can be described as arts and culture: half of the speeches can be situated in this domain as they are opening either an art exhibition or a concert. Therefore, it is unsurprising that the word *Kunst* [art] occurs 26 times in the ESI-OS, and the noun *Ausstellung* [exhibition] appears 44 times. The latter term, *Ausstellung* is the fourth most frequent noun in ESI-OS, preceded only by the words *Russland* [Russia], *Deutschland* [Germany], and *Jahr* [year]. Additional reflection on word lists appears below in the analysis of micro-textual features.

7.2. *Communicative function*

The communicative function of the official opening statements tends to position the event more broadly and is less informative since the audience of such addresses is aware of the kind of event that is happening. The aim of the ambassador's speech at the beginning of an event is not so much to inform about the subject matter, but rather to create a conceptual frame for the event and provide a formal introduction. Some general information may be given about the organization (e.g., that the current event is part of a larger cooperation project). In some cases, personal stories are told that establish rapport or a relationship between the ambassador and the audience. However, the informative function is clearly less important than the formal expressive, or phatic one: opening and closing greetings and salutations abound and a direct connection is established by calling addresses in the audience by their names and titles. In each case, formal politeness remains of particular importance.

7.3. *Opening*

From an interpreter's point of view, the most relevant rhetorical moves are those that are contained in the speech itself and that will be interpreted at the event (as opposed to the title of the speech or location which are published alongside the text for informational purposes). The first obligatory rhetorical move found in all opening speeches is a greeting. In official speeches, the function of greetings is mainly expressive. Greetings are highly conventionalized and follow certain patterns (Li, 2010). Hence, greetings may be treated as set phrases that may be rendered with certain equivalents in the target language, making this obligatory rhetorical move a good candidate for skill development-focused practice (see Herring *et al.*, 2022).

Official greetings normally begin with salutations, and this is the case in all of the ESI-OS speeches. According to its phatic function, a formal greeting salutation often lists the most important guests at the meeting, addressing them personally and by their titles. The average number of salutations in ESI-OS speeches is 4.5, while the longest greeting entails eleven lines of salutation:

Herr Stellvertretender Ministerpräsident Beloussow,	[Mr. Deputy Prime Minister Belousov,
Herr Ministerpräsident Kretschmer,	Mr. Prime Minister Kretschmer,
Herr Professor Schwydkoy,	Professor Shvydkoy,
Frau Staatssekretärin Manilowa,	Mrs. State Secretary Manilova,
Frau Direktorin Tregulova,	Mrs. Director Tregulova,
Frau Direktorin Ackermann,	Mrs. Director Ackermann,
Herr Libeskind,	Mr. Libeskind,
Herr Görgen,	Mr. Görgen,
Exzellenzen,	Excellencies,
liebe Kollegen,	dear colleagues,
liebe Gäste	dear guests]

After naming the important persons, a salutation often ends with a formula addressing the general public. While the most common phrase here is *Damen und Herren* [ladies and gentlemen] (6 entries), other variations are possible, such as *liebe Gäste* [dear guests] (4 entries).

An implication of these observations for diplomatic interpreter training is the importance of noting correct salutations when working consecutively in light of the average number per speech in the present corpus. The variation and number of titles can be discussed with students, providing an opportunity to find appropriate renditions in their target languages. Salutations of this kind can be found in this and other speech corpora and trained as separate items, independently from a specific speech, in order to acquire the necessary skill of noting and interpreting 4-5 names with titles without mistakes. Other typical features in the speeches themselves can be trained using similar techniques according to the principles of deliberate practice (Tiselius, 2018) or skill development-focused practice (Herring *et al.*, 2022).

7.4. *Closing*

Another obligatory rhetorical move is speech closing. It is not unusual that the ending of a speech is somehow linked to its opening or its title. This type of repetition is found in four of the ESI-OS documents. The most frequent element here, however, is an expression of gratitude (13 entries), which is typically expressed toward the event organizers either for putting on the event or for the invitation to attend. A very frequent element is also expression of well wishes for the success of the event (7 entries), or a future outlook with lexical constructions such as *gespannt sein* [looking forward] (5 entries). In some cases, these various elements are combined into a single concluding statement: «Ich **wünsche** Ihnen einen informationsreichen Tag mit viel Austausch und bin schon jetzt auf die Ergebnisse **gespannt**. Vielen herzlichen **Dank**!» [I **wish** you an informative day with a lot of exchange and I am already **looking forward** to the results. **Thank** you very much!].

The above data provides a source for further training: expressions centered around most frequent lexical items can be extracted and incorporated into training with students during a class or given as a homework assignment. The latter will, on the one hand, promote the much-needed additional practice, and on the other hand, this approach aligns with the current principles of language pedagogy, in that «students should become more autonomous and take control of their own learning» (Bale, 2015, p. 25).

By way of example, we will consider the closing expression of gratitude, which is one of the obligatory rhetorical moves in diplomatic speeches. Given its prevalence in the corpus, we examined sentences in the corpus containing lexical elements with a root **dank** [*thank*]. To do so, trainers can rely on any number of freely-available corpus analysis tools. Wildcards, denoted by asterisks, can be used to allow for various prefixes and suffixes to be returned along with the root search item. In this case, using the built-in concordance function of *Sketch Engine*, 68 entries were returned from which a trainer can choose the most relevant or interesting examples to practice with students. Note that there will be different expressions with the similar meaning, not just the obvious options with the verb *danken* [to thank]. Pointing out synonyms and discussing interpreting options of such language formula is also an important step in training which can be optimized by the use of speech corpora. Figure 1 presents a list of the returned items, including variations such as *danke*, *dank*, *bedanken*, and *dankbar*. In addition, the surrounding context is returned as well as the document from which each item was drawn to allow for further analysis based on the surrounding information.

Figure 1: Concordance search for *dank*

		Left context	KWIC	Right context
1	doc#9	er Deutschen Botschaft in Russland möchte ich mich sehr herzlich	**bedanken**	bei allen, die dazu beigetragen haben, dass diese ganz außergew
2	doc#13	unftsgestaltung in Europa.</s><s>Ich wollte mich zunächst einmal	**bedanken**	bei denjenigen, die den Titel so gewählt haben wie er gewählt ist.<
3	doc#0	st von Markus Lüpertz und von seiner Wirkung.</s><s>Herzlichen	**Dank**	, Herr Direktor Tsereteli, für die Organisation der wichtigen Ausstell
4	doc#0	e von Markus Lüpertz hier im Moskauer MOMA.</s><s>In diesem	**Dank**	schließe ich Sie, Frau Schiffer und die Galerie Michael Werner, ein
5	doc#15	<s>Ich danke dem Kammerorchester.</s><s>Und vor allem vielen	**Dank**	Ihnen, Herr Frey.</s><s>Sie engagieren sich seit vielen Jahren für
6	doc#16	k, Liebe Auszubildende, Eltern und Ausbilder, sehr geehrte Gäste,	**Dank**	dem Hausherrn, Mercedes, für die Einladung heute in den beeindr
7	doc#16	r die Einladung heute in den beeindruckenden Showroom.</s><s>	**Dank**	für die gute, enge Zusammenarbeit der Botschaft mit der Kammer
8	doc#4	iese Diskussionsrunde so wichtig.</s><s>Ich bin dafür besonders	**dankbar**	.</s><s>Vielen Dank.</s><s>Einführendes Grußwort von Botscha
9	doc#5	e wir erfahren, auch nach so langer Zeit ein Geschenk, für das wir	**dankbar**	sind.</s><s>Für mich als Deutscher Botschafter ist das Wohlwolle
10	doc#8	r Beitrag für ein friedliches gemeinsames Europa, für das wir sehr	**dankbar**	bleiben.</s><s>So steht dieses Kunstwerk hier in Moskau auch für
11	doc#1	, und auf die Diskussionen in den Arbeitsgruppen.</s><s>Und ich	**danke**	Ihnen Herr Schochin und Herr Harms für die prima Organisation de
12	doc#3	ren gäbe es eine Ausstellung von diesem Kaliber nicht.</s><s>Ich	**danke**	stellvertretend für viele Herrn Windhorst als Hauptsponsor.</s><s>
13	doc#3	es Vorhaben im Deutschlandjahr hier in Russland.</s><s>Und Ich	**danke**	Ihnen auch sehr persönlich für die gute und vertrauensvolle Zusam
14	doc#5	eben unterstützen und von ihren Erinnerungen lernen.</s><s>Ich	**danke**	Ihnen, Frau Nemkowa, dass Sie diese Begegnungen koordinieren.
15	doc#8	ig und er gilt überall: "The World is too small for Walls."</s><s>Ich	**danke**	Ihnen nochmal, Tatjana Ludanek, für dieses Kunstwerk und für Ihr
16	doc#8	nögen als Russin, als Europäerin und als Weltbürgerin.</s><s>Ich	**danke**	den Verantwortlichen des Gorki-Parks der Stadt Moskau für die Un
17	doc#12	ür gute, praktische deutschrussische Zusammenarbeit.</s><s>Ich	**danke**	der GIZ und allen Beteiligten an unseren gemeinsamen Projekten

Note: asterisks denote wildcards

7.5. *Frequency lists*

Another common feature of corpus analysis tools is the generation of frequency lists. In this case, *Sketch Engine* generated a list of all of the terms and how often each occurs in the corpus. Even a superficial analysis of the most frequent lexical items in a corpus may provide valuable insights into what should be included in interpreter training within the given genre and discourse field. For instance, the verb frequency list for ESI-OS cleared from auxiliary and modal verbs demonstrates that constructions with the verb *zeigen* [show] are particularly favored in ambassador's speeches, and together with the next three verbs (*gehen*, *freuen*, *machen*) they account for over 50% of the top ten main and linking verbs. Table 3 shows the various frequencies of the verbs found in the ESI-OS corpus.

The frequency index of *zeigen* [show] is 43, which means that there are 43 ready examples for interpreter training, all of which can then be examined using the concordance tool. To use these features a trainer does not require any technical knowledge in the field of corpus linguistics: the outcomes of such search requests are available automatically via a user-friendly interface.

Noun frequency lists can also be generated from the corpus analysis tool. In an effort to make the noun frequency list more relevant for interpreter training in this case study (Table 4), proper names like *Russland* [Russia] and *Deutschland* [Germany], salutations (*Herr, Frau*), and the noun *Botschafter* [Ambassador] were removed. These terms are unsurprisingly more numerous than any other nouns in most speeches. By using a stop list, trainers can examine corpus data more efficiently and identify other salient examples for potential inclusion in classes.

Table 3: Verb frequency list

Verb	Frequency
zeigen [show]	43
gehen [go]	31
freuen [be pleased]	26
machen [make]	25
sagen [say]	22
geben [give]	22
schaffen [manage]	18
danken [thank]	17
bringen [bring]	16
gelten [be considered]	15

Table 4: Noun frequency list

Noun	Frequency
Jahr [year]	52
Ausstellung [exhibition]	44
Thema [topic]	36
Land [country]	35
Mensch [man]	35
Zeit [time]	31
Veranstaltung [event]	29
Geschichte [history]	27
Tag [day]	27
Kunst [art]	26

A closer look at the concordance lines reveals that the leading position of the word *Jahr* [year] might be explained by the fact that many speeches were held on the occasion of anniversaries. In most cases this word is used in plural form, and constructions like: «75 Jahre Ende des Zweiten Weltkrieges» [75 years after the end of the Second World War] or «100 Jahre Jubiläum» [100 years anniversary] are responsible for almost a third of all entries (29%), presenting a good opportunity for training of such constructions that are rather frequent in the present discourse and hence may optimize their future renditions.

Three nouns with a similar frequency — *Thema* [topic], *Land* [country] and *Mensch* [man] — can be also discussed in the class. For instance, one may comment on the use of words — how is *Land* [land, country] different from *Staat* [state] and why the former is among the most frequent nouns in the opening speeches, whereas the latter is used only four times in the whole corpus, all in plural, two entries being toponyms (*Vereinigte Staaten* [United States] and *Baltische Staaten* [Baltic States]). While these terms may seem basic and therefore unremarkable to interpreter trainers, there are implications of specific language use that ought to be considered in the interpreting classroom. As noted above, translation and interpreting are embedded in a specific sociopolitical context, and the terminology that appears in these speeches may carry a specific valence or connotation that may need to be preserved in the target language. Subtle changes in language with common terminology can shift the result of this specialized type of interpreting. Thus, even a quick corpus search can provide clues into what topics are worth discussing with students and deliver necessary examples for training at the same time.

Another item whose frequency is worth considering are conjunctions. This type of data may provide insights regarding coherence at the sentence level. In the case of ESI-OS we see that the additive conjunction *und* [and] is found in the speeches 502 times while *dass* [that], being a marker of subordination, — only 88 times. In 55 entries the conjunction *und* is used at the beginning of a new sentence which even more underlines its role as a connective not only within sentences, but also between them. Such predominant position of the additive coordinating conjunction as a cohesive device may be a good starting point for a discussion about coherence in diplomatic opening speeches, and why, in this written-to-be-spoken type of text, coordination is probably more preferred than subordination. As with noun and verb frequency lists, the unassuming nature of these words may go unnoticed in training contexts without explicit engagement with textual analysis that reveals patterns of usage. For interpreter training, it may be particularly important to «illustrate how coherence works at a level where it is generally overlooked and never demonstrated, the macro level, i.e., between units larger than the sentence» (Le, 2004, p. 260). These grammatical categories and searches are a starting point to discuss how individual, micro-level decisions can impact the macro-level function of the speeches in which they are embedded.

8. CONCLUSION

In order to create diverse, specialized materials for interpreter training, we have argued that an ad hoc, opportunistic corpus can be used to compile language material suitable for training with regard to specialized interpreting settings. The presented case study of diplomatic speeches provided insights into the macro- and micro-level of a specific genre and illustrated how this type of text analysis can support interpreter trainers and complement their current training practices. Moreover, the case study illustrates how these tools can be leveraged to support research-informed pedagogical practices.

As the brief analysis of the ESI corpus of diplomatic speeches has shown, opening remarks were represented more often than other text types and could be considered a good example of the genre for a class in diplomatic interpreting. The hands-on materials of the ad hoc corpus make it possible to reflect on the situated practice of diplomatic interpreting and provide more practical, language-specific training. The ad hoc corpus also demonstrates the various established rhetorical moves of the given text type, such as opening, expression of gratitude and closing, which can then be incorporated into training exercises according to the principles of skill development-focused practice since ready examples for such exercises are already available in the compiled corpus. Using frequency lists helps to distinguish additional topics for in-class discussion, and subsequent concordance searches in the same or in other speech corpora provide numerous authentic examples for further exercises.

There are clear advantages of corpus use in specialized interpreting courses and workshops, including an increase in the availability of self-study materials, the provision of multiple opportunities for in-class activities, and facilitation of course preparation on the part of trainers. Since interpreter trainers are often practicing conference interpreters who must balance course preparation with their professional responsibilities, this approach enables context-specific materials to be developed without overly burdening these instructors. Another advantage of an ad hoc corpus for specialized interpreter training is that these materials take into account a data-driven approach to teaching and learning (cf. Boulton, 2011) wherein students may explore a corpus independently, thereby becoming more autonomous in their learning. Moreover, the use of an ad hoc specialized corpus does not exclude the possibility of guidance by the trainer, allowing even a small corpus to be leveraged to multiple ends. Both reflective assignments and skill development practice are possible when working with such a corpus. In sum, the compilation, analysis, and use of a specialized ad hoc corpus provides a targeted approach to prepare for future assignments, allowing in-class activities to mirror future professional work, enabling a professionally-driven orientation to specialized interpreting pedagogy.

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Reflective Approach in Teaching Note-Taking[1]

Práctica reflexiva en la enseñanza de la toma de notas

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Abstract: Interpreter training represents a crucial period for discussing one's strengths and weaknesses, introducing new skills, and applying those successfully. Assessment of students has already shifted from being the sole privilege of teachers to emphasising the role of peer assessment and also self-assessment, all kinds being crucial not only for the overall performance but also in learning individual skills. This paper focuses on the role of self-assessment and reflective approach in teaching note-taking. The empirical research was carried out over the course of four semesters with four different groups of students, each comprising approximately twenty students with various backgrounds in note-taking (theoretical knowledge, self-taught, or no experience at all). Students started with taking notes using their own style, then followed a short course introducing the theoretical framework and explaining the principles, which were gradually introduced and practised. After each session, the notes were archived and, with active participation of students, analysed in class. After five sessions, students were asked to analyse their own notes and set their goals. This strategy positively affected their motivation and led to better results. After another five sessions, the students once again carried out self-assessment, this time reflecting on their improvement, contrasting their first and last/

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best notes. This strategy resulted in a boost in motivation and confidence, and overall improvement.

Keywords: self-assessment; consecutive interpreting; note-taking; interpreter training; motivation; reflective approach.

Resumen: El período de formación ofrece un espacio importante para los estudiantes de interpretación para reflexionar sobre sus puntos fuertes y débiles, para introducir habilidades nuevas y aplicarlas. Le evaluación de los estudiantes ha visto una transición desde la evaluación proporcionada de manera exclusiva por el formador hasta un enfoque en la evaluación por pares o incluso autoevaluación; todos estos modos de evaluación tienen un papel importante no solo en la evaluación holística de la interpretación, sino también de la evaluación de las habilidades individuales. Este artículo aborda el papel de la autoevaluación y la práctica reflexiva en la enseñanza de toma de notas para la interpretación consecutiva. La investigación de carácter empírico se desarrolló a lo largo de cuatro semestres con cuatro grupos de estudiantes de aproximadamente 20 estudiantes con un nivel heterogéneo en cuanto al dominio de la toma de notas (estudiantes con conocimiento teórico, autodidactas e incluso estudiantes sin conocimiento ninguno). Al principio del semestre los estudiantes tomaron notas al estilo libre; a continuación se les presentaron los principios teóricos de la toma de notas, que se desarrollaron por práctica sistemática. Después de cada clase, se archivaron las notas tomadas por los estudiantes y se analizaron con la participación activa de los estudiantes en clase. Después de cinco clases, los estudiantes analizaron sus notas y marcaron objetivos individuales, lo que reforzó su motivación y se plasmó en mejores resultados. Después de cinco clases siguientes, los estudiantes volvieron a realizar el autoanálisis de sus notas reflexionando sobre sus avances y comparando sus notas de mejor y peor calidad. Este enfoque didáctico resultó en una motivación y confianza reforzadas y en el mejor rendimiento de los estudiantes a la hora de interpretar.

Palabras clave: autoevaluación; interpretación consecutiva; toma de notas; formación de intérpretes; motivación; práctica reflexiva.

1. INTRODUCTION

The core of education in all disciplines, including interpreter training, is implementing a student-oriented approach, focusing on students' needs as well as their perspective regarding the learning process, or as Lee-Jahnke (2001) mentions, shifting the focus on the student and the process rather than the result. As Setton & Dawrant mention, students must be «active, responsible participants in their own learning» (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p. 27). This emancipation is crucial for continuous lifelong learning after graduation, and the skills should be learned through group learning, collaborative knowledge building, and reflective action (Kiraly, 2000). As Piotrowska states, «it is generally argued in European pedagogy that critical self-reflection enhances personal growth, for which merely experiencing something is not enough» (2012, p. 110). Herring *et al.* (2022) confirm that «a professional who applies a reflective framework is one who allows time for discussion and evaluation about their work to learn from previous experiences. (…) [It] also implies having an open mind or an open climate, if working in groups, to allow for unbiased discussions», which applies to university instruction as well — the students need to learn how to carry out such activities and apply such framework, doing so in an open, safe climate of a seminar group.

Interpreter training research seems to be focusing more on later stages of study, usually master's degree programmes with fewer students, striving to acquire as much theory as possible before they enter the world of professional interpreters and fully start their careers. Such students are usually more aware of the basics; they have better knowledge of the theoretical frameworks and often already have an experience from practice. On the other hand, interpreter training occurs not only at the master's level, there are also bachelor's degree programmes and it is the students of such programme this study focuses on. In contrast with the study groups at the master's level, bachelor's degree interpreting training often faces challenges such as mixed groups of students with various backgrounds, knowledge, experience, potential, and aspiration: they are often unsure about their future specialisation or even profession in general and, at least in the Czech-Slovak environment, often study a double major (see for instance Djovčoš *et al*. 2021, Miketová 2019, or Mraček & Mračková Vavroušová 2021). It aims to provide students with knowledge of the basic concepts and frameworks as well as hands-on experience, both within the practice-oriented seminars and on-site practice. The initial stages of training may be challenging not only for the students but also for the instructor, knowing that their approach forms the base the students will build on, thus emphasising the need for quality training as well as support for a vulnerable group of novices. Such a group needs to be provided with constructive feedback and needs to hear not only about the negative aspects of their performance, but also some positive motivating comment. Learning from the instructor's feedback, they are later capable of providing both constructive peer feedback and self-assessment. Novice interpreters also struggle with the vagueness of some concepts, not being able to put them into practice or relate them to any experience, as Takeda confirms - students would love to get specific solutions for specific problems and get explicit training regarding strategies (Takeda, 2010). It is the role of the instructor to guide them, which might be difficult without any insight into how the students perceive the concepts, the instruction, and the situation. As Takeda (2010, p.38) points out, «student input is a valuable resource to help teachers reflect on their practice and modify it, if necessary, for continuous improvement».

The approach described in this study arose from a round-table discussion with students of the bachelor's degree programme in interpreting at Palacký University Olomouc enrolled in the fall semester of 2020 and approximately 50 graduates of the same programme. One of the burning issues they struggled with the most (more than 30 out of 50 graduates mentioned it) was the concept of note-taking, describing their feelings as «being stuck» due to the vagueness of the phrases used by some instructors such as «*notes are personal; an interpreter should develop their own individual system; do not write too much; do not write too little*». It is more than evident that students are finding it difficult to put theory into practice. This discussion motivated a change in the curriculum and served as the basis for this study, which was conducted over the course of four semester with four different groups of students enrolled in a course in consecutive interpreting focusing on note-taking. The study investigates a corpus of self-assessment reports complemented with notes taken during in-class interpreting. The hypothesis is that this self-reflective approach helps students see their progress in note-taking and increases their motivation to engage in further exercises and interpreting in general.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. *Reflective Approach in Interpreter Training*

Interpreter training has already shifted from a teacher-centred approach, often using a combination of teacher feedback, peer assessment, and self-assessment. A reflective approach involves a process of looking back at previous experiences to gain insight into one's behaviour, value, and knowledge gained (Desjarlais & Smith, 2011, p.3). In the context of translation and interpreting, self-assessment (as Desjarlais & Smith [2011, p. 3] conclude, a more proactive process for analysing one's performance following defined performance criteria identifying one's strengths and weaknesses and gaining insight in order to improve one's performance) is often included within reflective practice, as both processes are essential to produce self-growth and in this case also professional growth, since self-evaluation promotes awareness of student's learning (Russo, 1995).

Herring *et al.* (2022) also see a close connection to deliberate practice, relating to expertise. Working rather with the term *skill development-focused practice*, they also included «learners engaging in self-assessment and reflection» as one of the essential features of such practice (p.84), even though they argue that «*reflective practice* is a professional rather than a training concept» (p. 83). Although the author agrees with Lee (2011) that «self-assessment is not only important during interpreter training, but even more so after students graduate and become professional interpreters» (p. 248), as well as Herring *et al*. in that professionals are capable of performing reflective practice leading to improvement in specific areas using specific techniques, the author also believes that reflective approach can be applied already during interpreting training, thus teaching the students self-awareness and showing them effective techniques.

Researchers comment on all kinds of feedback, teacher, peer, and self-assessment, discussing their positive and negative aspects and mutual influence. As Lee (2018) found out, students perceive teacher assessment as considerably more effective and helpful for improvement than other types of feedback. However, peer assessment usually helps the students see another perspective and offers solutions; «peers, having experienced similar difficulties and challenges, may become more motivated and less inclined to indulge in [negative forms of] self-criticism» (*ibid.*, p. 153), while in self-assessment, the tendency towards self-criticism is very high (both personal experience but see also for instance Djovčoš *et al*., 2021). Feedback and assessment should not be left to the student alone; it is the gradual cooperation with the teacher and peers that leads to the desired results (Lee-Jahnke, 2001). Several studies focus specifically on self-assessment in interpreting, for instance, Tipton & Furmanek (2016), Dean & Pollard (2013), and Bancroft *et al*. (2015); there are also several papers discussing self-assessment as a part of interpreting practice (e.g., Postigo Pinazo 2008 or Schafer 2011), and some are focusing on performance (Riccardi, 2002; Lee, 2011; Lee, 2022; Milcu, 2012). Some works also include note-taking (Čirvinskienė, 2007 or Mraček & Mračková Vavroušová, 2021).

Self-reflection tends to be recorded in oral or written form; in the oral form usually in the form of unstructured or semi-structured interviews; the written form is also known as logbooks or diaries. Although there are several studies using diaries for interpreting, Motta (2013) mentions several drawbacks to their use in instruction, for instance, the efficiency and frequency with which they were used, as well as their confidential nature, the latter, on the other hand, being highly valued by Piotrowska (2012). Arumí and Esteve (2006), working with beginner students in consecutive interpreting, argue that such metacognitive instruments incite the learner's awareness about themselves and their learning process and stimulate the relationships with the teacher and peers. All the findings presented here suggest that an adequately introduced self-reflection carried out in an open and safe environment can bring considerable benefits to all involved in the instruction process.

From this point on, this study works with the term self-assessment as a term covering both self-reflection and self-assessment or self-evaluation.

2.2. *Teaching Note-taking in Consecutive Interpreting*

Setton & Dawrant (2016) propose five stages of progression in consecutive interpreting: Initiation, Coordination, Experimentation, Consolidation and Reality. The subjects of this study should all have passed what Setton & Dawrant call the «necessary preliminary stage» in which they should have become familiar with active listening, remembering, and speaking used as professional tools (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.167), practising them in a variety of exercises. Such exercises are usually followed by practising short consecutive without notes or short dialogue interpreting, mastering the basic

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skills used in professional interpreting. As Setton & Dawrant (*ibid*., p.159) point out, «initiation to interpreting should be stimulating and enjoyable». However, this might not always be the case and students might feel overwhelmed, noticing all the aspects they still need to improve.

The next step leads the students to an introduction to note-taking. As Daniel Gile suggests, consecutive interpreting consists of two phases where in the first (listening and note-taking) phase, note-taking «reduce[s] the [processing] capacity available for the Listening and Analysis Effort» (Gile 1991, p. 178); however, it is not the quantity of notes taken that influence the capacity available, but rather the interpreter's readiness and professional skill in taking notes (Gile 1991, pp. 177-179). Kornakov's opinion — «the instructor's role, to aid self-preparation, is to provide some useful guidelines, strategies and exercises that can be used outside the language laboratory, without an instructor and without sophisticated equipment» (Kornakov, 2002, p. 248) can be used for note-taking as well, and Takeda (2010, p. 42) confirms with her findings that students prefer being introduced to various approaches and techniques, supported by relevant empirical findings to establish their own system instead of following a 'trial-and-error' course without further guidance. The present study follows Setton & Dawrant's approach to «demonstrate and explain the full toolkit of note-taking principles and techniques, then let students try them out, integrating them progressively» (2016, p. 169), shifting from mere what to note to how, when and to what extent when under pressure and find the right balance between all skills necessary for successful interpretation (*ibid.*, p. 178) as the interpreting instruction continues, entering the coordination stage. Setton & Dawrant considered this stage to be crucial regarding students' motivation since the problems that occur at this stage are numerous and lead to students experiencing negative feelings connected with their performance (*ibid.*, p. 180).

This view is supported by Gillies, who states that note-taking has enormous impact on the overall performance and «not knowing how to take notes and the detrimental effect that that will have on [one's] interpreting performance could discourage [the person] from joining the profession before [one] even really get[s] started.» (Gillies 2017, p.7). He also suggests addressing the basics such as public speaking, analysis and consecutive without notes first before learning how to take notes. In his system consisting of several stages, the recommended method is chunking the framework into several stages following each other, each to be practiced and mastered before moving to the next one (Gillies 2017, p.8).

Within his framework of process-oriented translation training system, Gile thinks of novices as students of relevant methods rather than professional producers, and teachers should take a normative approach and ask thought-provoking questions instead of criticising (Gile 1994, p. 108). He also observed that students' interest in the rules and models presented to them corresponds with their acceptance of those, but the rules are often too general for students to implement. A self-reflective method, problem reporting, proved to be (once well-established) an efficient tool; however, only for students whose motivation is strong (Gile 1994).

2.3. *Motivation*

Motivation is crucial not only for students' will to proceed in their studies and engage in further exercises but also specifically for their performance. Without motivation, there is no progression, and even the students who are willing to improve and keen on practising do not reach desired results without being motivated. With motivation, interpreting becomes a «stimulating and enjoyable experience» (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p. 19) when «the tension and adrenalin inherent in this profession [is] harnessed and converted into 'constructive stage-fright'» (*ibid*.). As Herring *et al.* (2022, p. 85) state, «the goal is to support learners (novices) as they develop their skills and become proficient practitioners of interpreting and to prepare them for continuing development throughout their careers». An instructor should be a figure the students can trust, someone they believe will help them improve, someone who creates a safe, open environment and encourages peer feedback as well as self-reflection. For instance, Ericsson (2000) found: «Improvement of performance was uniformly observed when individuals, who were motivated to improve their performance, were given well-defined tasks, were provided with feedback, and had ample opportunities for repetition» (p.193). This paper focuses mainly on the students' motivation to engage in further exercises and interpreting in general.

3. METHODOLOGY

This study was motivated by a round-table discussion with 20 third-year students of the bachelor's degree programme in interpreting at Palacký University Olomouc enrolled in the fall semester of 2020 and approximately 50 graduates of the same programme. At the beginning of the semester, the then current students confessed that due to COVID-19 restrictions[2] they lack some knowledge they should already possess and asked for more practice in and insight into their note-taking even though they were enrolled in a successive course in consecutive interpreting, focusing on the experimentation and consolidation stages of progress in consecutive interpreting, working with a wide range of authentic speeches of longer duration. Consequently, a specific course in note-taking was implemented and complemented by a self-assessment exercise. This self-assessment and the overall form of the course thus served as a pilot test for this study, which was conducted in the following semesters. In their reports, the

2. At the beginning of the pandemic the government completely closed universities down and the students had only home assignments and online consultations for some time before some form of online instruction was provided. The initial chaos may have led to some problems mentioned in the text. Starting from spring semester 2021, online instruction was standardized and since fall 2021, offline form of instruction was the standard again.

students indicated their frustration that they did not have such a course earlier — their recommendation was followed and the content was moved to a seminar most students undergo in their second year of study and after careful analysis of the students' reports, an additional exercise of home assignment note-taking and a comparison with in-class notes was introduced in the final study to help students with a mid-semester self-assessment exercise, described later in this section.

The hypothesis behind this study was that the self-reflective approach used in teaching note-taking helps the students see their progress in learning how to take notes and increases their motivation. The study itself was not purely research-oriented; it rather aimed at helping the students while answering the following questions: (1) *Does the use of self-assessment in instruction improve the students' performance?* (2) *Does the use of self-assessment in instruction improve the students' overall impression of their performance during and after the course?* (3) *Does the self-reflective approach increase the students' motivation to engage in further exercises and interpreting in general?* The answers could likely lead to a boost in students' motivation and tailoring the instruction to their needs.

3.1. *Research sample*

The study investigates a corpus of self-assessment reports complemented with notes taken during in-class interpreting of students enrolled in a course called Interpreting seminar 3 under the bachelor's degree programme in English for Translation and Interpreting at Palacký University Olomouc, Czech Republic. The programme is designed as a three-year curriculum focusing on translation and community interpreting, including a variety of subjects related to contrastive linguistics, cultural studies, and literature. This programme can also be studied as a double major. The design of the interpreting curriculum for this programme and the individual seminars follows the five stages of progression in consecutive interpreting, i.e., initiation, coordination, experimentation, consolidation, and reality (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p. 78). In the first two semesters, students usually go through the initiation and coordination stages, practising active listening, doing memory exercises, enhancing their vocabulary, practising dialogue interpreting and sight translation. In the second year, the initiation stage focuses on more specific skills — note-taking in consecutive and speaking while listening and other skills and exercises in simultaneous interpreting (two separate seminars), continuing through coordination stages to experimentation and partly consolidation through on-site practice. The last two semesters focus on the last two stages, consolidation and reality.

The material for this study was collected over the course of four semesters (from February 2021 to December 2022) with four different groups of students, each comprising approximately twenty students. For most of them, the Interpreting seminar 3 is a compulsory subject; however, students of double major can choose whether they want to enrol, and it is also included in the curriculum of the master's degree programme

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English for Translation and Interpreting for students coming from non-interpreting programmes as a mandatory subject. The data used in the present study are derived from a corpus of 150 self-assessment reports and notes of 75 students (58 female and 17 male) whose mother tongue was Czech, 45 enrolled in the English for Translation and Community Interpreting bachelor's degree programme, 6 enrolled in the English for Translation and Interpreting master's degree programme, and 24 enrolled in English for Translation and Community Interpreting bachelor's degree programme under double major studies, in combination mostly with other linguistic programmes, but also other programmes (see Table 1).

Study programme	Programme combination	Number of students
Master's degree English for Translation and Interpreting	--	6
Bachelor's degree English for Translation and Interpreting (ATP)	--	45
ATP + linguistic programme	General linguistics and Communication Theory	3
	German for Translators and Interpreters	3
	Czech Philology	3
	Spanish Philology	3
	French Philology	1
	Chinese Studies	1
	Jewish and Israeli studies	1
ATP + non-linguistic programme	International Relations and Security	3
	Journalism	2
	Film Studies	1
	Economic and Managerial Studies	1
	Musicology	1
	Sociology	1
Total number		**75**

Table 1: Sample characteristics regarding general background.

Most of the students take the course in the second year of their studies; however, the number of students interested in this course is higher than the capacity of the seminar (as well as the room), and Erasmus+ programmes are most often pursued in the second year of studies, therefore some students might take the course later in their studies, i.e., third year, and for the master's degree students it is usually their first year of studies. Since the curriculum is flexible and there is a wide variety of students who can and do enrol in this course, they usually have a varying background of courses passed. However, generally, they all have passed the introductory practical course into interpreting, community interpreting class and introduction to theory and methods in interpreting.

Study group	Number of students		Year of study				Basic courses passed		
	M	F	BA 2nd	BA 3rd	MA 1st	MA 2nd	Introductory practical interpreting	Introduction to theory & methods	Community interpreting
SS 2021	3	17	17	0	3	0	20	20	17
FS 2021	5	13	5	12	1	0	16	18	17
SS 2022	6	15	17	4	0	0	13	14	21
FS 2022	3	13	13	1	0	2	16	16	14
Total	**17**	**58**	**52**	**17**	**4**	**2**	**65**	**68**	**69**

Table 2: Sample characteristics regarding instructional background.

3.2. *Course description*

The seminar in question, in which the material was collected, focuses on consecutive interpreting and note-taking; the first session started with a group discussion focusing on students' expectations, discussing what they expect to learn and do in the course. Next, due to the varying background (theoretical knowledge of note-taking, self-taught, no experience at all) caused by the factors mentioned above, a short course on theory, methodology and good practice in note-taking was conducted within the first three sessions of the course. The short course made the cohort more comparable since they were all provided with the same basics. From the beginning, following the short introductory course, the students practised the main features of the note-taking techniques, including simplification, abbreviations, use of symbols, and structure, by noting down structured speeches in each of the sessions (starting with shorter recordings of approximately 3 minutes and gradually moving to longer ones, up to 15 minutes, with pauses for interpreting varying as the course progressed, starting at after ca. 30 and leading up to after 120 seconds), including the first session where students started with taking notes using purely their own style. The students agreed to collecting, storing, and examining the data. After each session, the notes they made were collected and archived and then commented on, providing feedback with active participation in class, i.e., specific segments from anonymised notes were commented on and discussed, providing not only feedback from the instructor but also peer-feedback and a form of self-reflection. The in-class discussion brought objectivity and a detached

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Study group	Material collected		
	Notes and recordings (number of files)	Self-assessment (number of comments)	
		Mid-semester	Final
SS 2021	175	153	399
FS 2021	144	96	325
SS 2022	188	128	338
FS 2022	143	148	363
Total	**650**	**525**	**1425**

Table 3: Material collected.

view, and through peer feedback combined with discussion and instructor's feedback, the students better understood what the «do's and don'ts» are and how to make the note-taking system work. They also gained better insight into note-taking techniques and improved in self-evaluation.

After four sessions, the students were assigned to make notes at home using a transcript of a speech as if they were to use it for interpreting, applying all the principles discussed in class. In the following class (mid-semester), the students interpreted the exact speech (without knowing it would be the same speech), making in-class notes. As a follow-up home assignment, they were asked to compare the notes they made at home with those made in class, determining the differences as well as weak areas in general and setting a goal. The course then continued with more practice in interpreting and note-taking, as well as in-class discussions and feedback. After another five sessions, the students were again assigned to carry out self-assessments, this time reflecting on their improvement, contrasting their first and last/best notes[3].

Both the self-assessment assignments were a simple Microsoft Word document written in Czech[4] as the students' mother tongue. The students were asked to be open and write what came to their minds; however, they were also given some supporting questions to make use of. Those were related to the differences, the goal, and the progress (*In what aspects do the notes (taken at home and in class/first and last ones) differ? Do you see any weak areas? What do you perceive as your strong or least prob-*

3. Last notes are the last notes students took in class; best notes mean the ones they found to be the best ones to interpret from. The majority of students chose last notes, and those who missed the last class compared the ones from the previous session, therefore not all «last notes» were taken during the last session. Only two students chose to analyse other than their last notes, and those were the notes taken during the lesson just before the last one, because they considered their **interpretation** of that speech the best and because the speech's topic and/or tone/structure was closer to them than in the last recording.

4. All direct quotations used for illustration will be translated into English.

lematic area? What would you set as your personal goal?; for the final self-assessment *What techniques did you use?* and *How did those work?* were added).

The analysis was based on individual comments, defined as a clause commenting on one specific relevant aspect. The sample comprised 525 comments collected from the first self-assessment assignment and 1,425 comments collected from the final assignment.

The comments were grouped according to the respective areas they focused on, namely *Overall Feelings, Techniques Used, Cause of Failure, Further Use, Room for Improvement, Setting a Goal, Progress,* and *Motivation*. Both *Techniques Used* and *Further Use* are comments focusing on specific techniques used in note-taking such as a specific approach to abbreviations, use of symbols, specific structure, verticality, etc., as described in Gillies (2019). The first category comprises comments mentioning the use of those, the latter consists of comments regarding the future use of those. The comments in each area were counted to see what areas were commented on mid-semester and at the end of semester. The main findings will be presented on the following pages.

Lastly, there were also recordings collected and archived from each session; these were considered briefly as part of the improvement assessment procedure but only as supportive evidence to see whether improvement in note-taking corresponds with improvement in overall performance.

Each student has been assigned a specific code consisting of a letter and number indicating the semester and year of the group and a number (e.g. 21S01) to anonymise the reports and the notes but to be able to link them to one another as well. The recordings were collected automatically under students' names and shared directly with the specific student (to be able to comment on their performance) and renamed for the purpose of this study to match the written input as well; however, these were not discussed publicly in class. Both students' reports and notes were submitted electronically in a slot on the course's university system website Moodle. Notes were taken during classes, online in spring semester 2021 and offline in the following semesters under similar conditions, both reports were home-assignments in all the semesters. Students' reports were analysed for their perception of progress, motivation and overall experience, and notes were examined for (peer-)feedback, in-class discussion, and overall improvement.

4. RESULTS

The analysis focused mainly on the students' reports, their approach towards the task and their perception of progress and motivation, i.e., whether students found motivation to engage in further exercises and in interpreting in general, not taking it only because they must. The content of the reports was analysed and comments (i.e.,

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clauses commenting on one relevant particular aspect) were grouped into individual areas they focused on. The analysis focused on whether and how the students commented on the specific areas mentioned above and whether there was a difference in their first mid-semester report and the final one. The quantitative analysis showed what areas students tended to comment on and whether they mention any motivation or perception of progress at all. The qualitative analysis of the content of these comments focused mainly on how the students viewed themselves and their performance and how it was reflected in their reports, the motivation to engage in more exercises both in-class and on their own, or in more seminars, and their perception of progress. The students' notes were considered only briefly to see whether they showed an improvement in the students' note-taking.

4.1. *Students' Openness and Willingness to Cooperate*

Before discussing the individual areas, a brief note on students' willingness to cooperate and overall attitude should be made. As mentioned above, the cohort comprised mainly students of bachelor's degree programme and some students of master's degree programme coming from non-interpreting programmes, both studying programmes focusing on interpreting and also translation, thus not having all interpreting courses as obligatory. This was partly reflected also in the first mid-semester report in which some students did not write more than just three comments (the average number of comments in the first self-assessment assignment was 6 comments per person). However, in the final report, even those students commented more, although they were still the ones with the least comments (the average number of comments in the final self-assessment assignment was 19 comments per person, the highest number being 35, the lowest 5 comments). Nevertheless, the openness of all students was highly appreciated as it showed their trust towards the instructor (e.g. 22F12 mentioned she «was disgusted with [her] notes at first and felt like a complete idiot», and 21F05 confessed, «I thought you'd fail me at first because I suck, but I actually managed to improve at least a bit but I don't think I'll interpret ever again after I graduate»).

4.2. *Students' Expectations and Involvement*

The course started with a group discussion regarding the students' expectations. Students were asked to think about their answers to the presented questions, which were consequently written on a whiteboard and commented on in a group discussion. The first question was aimed more at the students in double major studies, however the answers to *Why did you enrol in this course?* were rather pragmatic, students mentioned reasons such as «because these should be the basics; I need one more course to have enough credits in this module; this course is obligatory for me; to improve my skills», which was not very surprising, but showed almost zero motivation. The most frequent answers to *What do you expect to learn in the course? What do you expect us to do in this course?* were:

- to get better at interpreting
- to learn how to write notes
- to learn specific strategies for note-taking
- to improve my memory
- to practice consecutive
- «… because I do not know how to do that/I am not good at it».

Even though the answers were rather vague and general, the course, in general, focused on consecutive with note-taking, therefore the students' expectations were met. Nevertheless, the more important outcome from the group discussion is the finding that students have a vague idea about what it means to take notes and do not form any specific requirements, set specific goals, or identify specific areas for improvement.

Through the self-assessment assignments, the students again gained a more detached view. This is reflected not only in the number of comments but also in what areas were commented on in the mid-semester and the final report (see Figure 1).

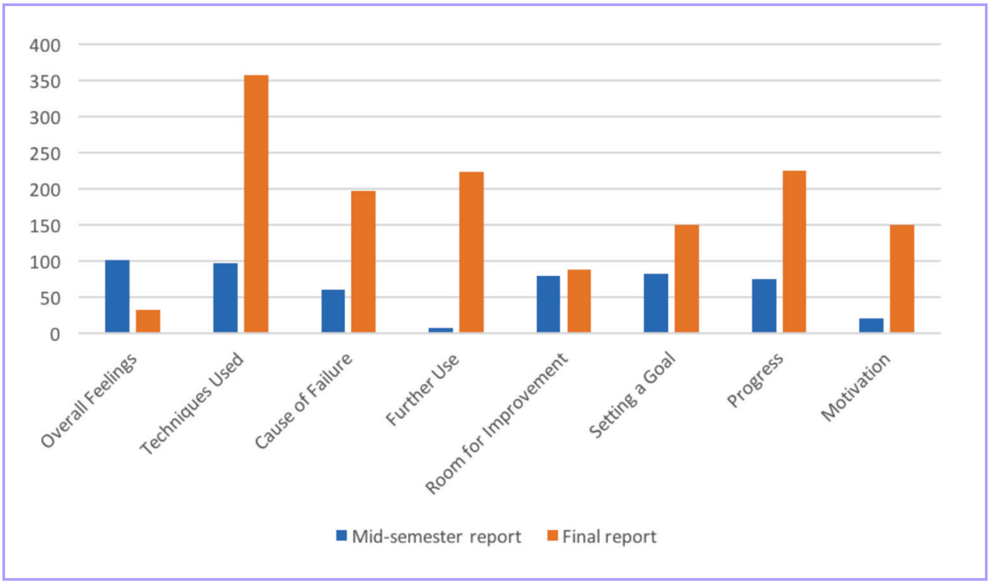

Figure 1: Number of comments in individual areas in the mid-semester report and final report.

The first area, *Overall Feelings*, relates to the students' openness discussed above; those were the comments mentioning, mostly negative, students' feelings towards note-taking, either in general or with regard to the specific notes taken. The overall feelings appeared more in the mid-semester report (102 comments mentioning overall feelings), even though some comments towards this area were also included in the final report (32 in total, see the examples given in the section *Student's Openness and Willingness to Cooperate)*. The higher number of comments in this area in the mid-semester report might be caused by zero experience with writing self-assessments and focusing more on the emotional self-reflective part. In the final report, students mentioned some overall feelings as well, but more prominent was motivation to engage in more exercises and continue with interpreter training, which was put in a separate area and will be discussed later.

4.3. *Techniques Used and Cause of Failure*

It is not surprising that *Techniques Used* are the area that was commented on the most (with 98 comments mid-term and 358 comments in the final report) since the students were instructed to comment on what they tried and, in the final report, literally asked to describe what techniques they used. The difference between the mid-semester and final reports shows mainly the fact that by the end of the semester, students naturally tried more techniques than they had room for within the first five sessions.

Far more interesting is the *Cause of Failure* area. In the mid-semester report, students mainly mentioned that the technique did not work or that they failed using a technique due to lack of practice (21F10 «I wasn't really used to it»; 22F03 «the left margin didn't seem natural to me»), both regarding the in-class notes and those taken at home — these were taken after four weeks of the semester and after one session following the end of the crash course in theory, methodology and best practice, the students were still in training. Some students mentioned a cause (21S02 «I forgot the symbol I wanted to use and then couldn't remember what I meant»; 22S10 «as always, I tried to note down everything in class and then I couldn't read it»), but quite often they did not mention any specific cause or wrote down that they «don't know why, I just can't do it, interpreting isn't for me».

The higher number in this area for the final report, 198 comments, corresponds, of course, with the high number in *Techniques Used*, but it is evident that by the end of the semester, students were more aware of the cause that led them to try various techniques or improve the ones used. They were also far more specific in their comments, indicating the reason standing behind the changes and the cause of failure (e.g. 22S01 «I started using X for negation. I was using NO, but because I often confused NO for an acronym, I won't use that anymore.» 21F04 «First I noted negation in the form of crossing the word. But I scribble a lot and some words are just illegible — I don't know whether I crossed them for negation or because I changed my mind or noted it wrongly. I also use a lot of arrows and lines and then it's just a mess»).

4.4. *Further Use*

As Figure 1 shows, *Further Use* was the area with the most significant difference in the number of comments in the mid-semester and final report, 7 and 223, respectively. The high number of comments in the final report again corresponds with the high numbers in the two previous areas, but it can also be linked to the students' raised awareness of what they do. The students are not yet sure about the techniques that suit them, and they did not have that many opportunities to try various ones by mid-semester, and they practically do not have any idea whether they will use those or not, with only a few exceptions (e.g. 21F04 «I won't try using the left margin anymore. I don't like it.»).

In the final report, students commented on further use far more, and some (30 comments in total) also included a comment about finding their style:

> 22S07: «I tried using the left margin for links, but I dropped it. I switched to noting them in capitals in the text and use the left margin for recurring key information instead — the links in there confused me and now they stand out. That is much more convenient for me.»
>
> 21F16: «I struggled with note-taking a lot, oscillating between the notes being too verbal and full of symbols. Now I completely changed my course, I rely more on memory and use rather abbreviations and symbols in form of acronyms, accompanied by lines and arrows and brackets. I guess that is my style.»
>
> 22F08: «I tried both NO and X for negation, but I ended up using a small minus in front of the word. It really works for me, I finally found something useful for me.»

This reflects a more mature, experienced approach and indicates conscious, deliberate choice. Unless students analyse their notes, these realisations might never occur.

4.5. *Room for Improvement and Setting a Goal*

These two areas were comparable, looking at the number of comments for the mid-semester and the final report, with 80 and 89 comments regarding *Room for Improvement* and 82 and 150 comments about *Setting a Goal*. The area *Room for Improvement* is closely linked with the previous one; however, after thorough analysis, comments identifying and mentioning specifically a room for improvement were put into a separate group. That included comments such as «I still note quite a lot of words, not always necessary though.» (21S02) or «The structure is still messy; I can do better I hope» (22S13).

Since the students were explicitly asked to set a goal, finding a number of those occurring in the reports was predictable. Students fulfilled the task and all set a goal in the mid-semester report, but in the final reports, they were much more specific regarding the goals and commented on that more. Compare:

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21S12 (mid-semester): «I would like to improve the structure a bit more.»

21F03 (final): «I am still not happy with the structure. I started using the left margin, I am still not fully used to it, but I want to give it more time. I also want to focus more on how I use the space on the page, having the left margin, leaving bigger gaps, not scribbling just to fit it on the same line and rather move it.»

21F05 (mid-semester): «I write a lot of words, should change that probably.»

22F14 (final): «I still tend to use a lot of words, long words, in their full form. I want to develop and use a system of abbreviations I could follow.»

Again, more experience and deliberate reflection on their notes and the system practised brought more specific insight.

4.6. *Progress and Motivation*

The most prominent areas in this research were the last two, *Progress* and *Motivation*. Looking at the number of comments in mid-semester and final reports, 75 and 225 regarding *Progress* and 21 and 150 concerning *Motivation*, the results are very promising. The group discussion at the very beginning of the semester showed almost zero motivation to engage in (especially additional) exercises and sometimes even generally in interpreting and mainly negative feelings were shared. The mid-semester report brought some negative overall feelings as well, but some comments mentioning students' motivation (21) were detected already after five sessions, and some students (75 comments in total) noticed some progress made, which, compared to none at the beginning, might be viewed as a promising outcome. The final report's outcome is even more positive, identifying 225 comments on the progress made and 150 on students' motivation.

22F09: «I was sceptical because I still think my notes are not good enough. But then I saw where I started and I was amazed how much my notes changed. I mean, wow, I never thought I could do better. Seeing this progress made me look forward to the next seminar and more interpreting.»

21S11: «There really is a big difference between the first notes and the last ones. I didn't even notice that I changed so many things. My notes finally look a bit professional, not as random words or sentences jotted down. I don't feel so dumb, yay me. This is so motivating.»

22S02: «Starting the master's seemed like an awful idea at the beginning of the semester. I feared every interpreting class. But it looks like I improved somehow, both in interpreting and note-taking. If you told me in September, I'd never believe you. I still don't feel like interpreting is going to be my future job, but I quite enjoy it and it changed from a dreadful activity into an interesting one. I might take another seminar next year.»

Such comments represent a positive outcome of this study, gaining motivated students instead of having a class of unmotivated students.

4.7. *Shift in students' self-assessment*

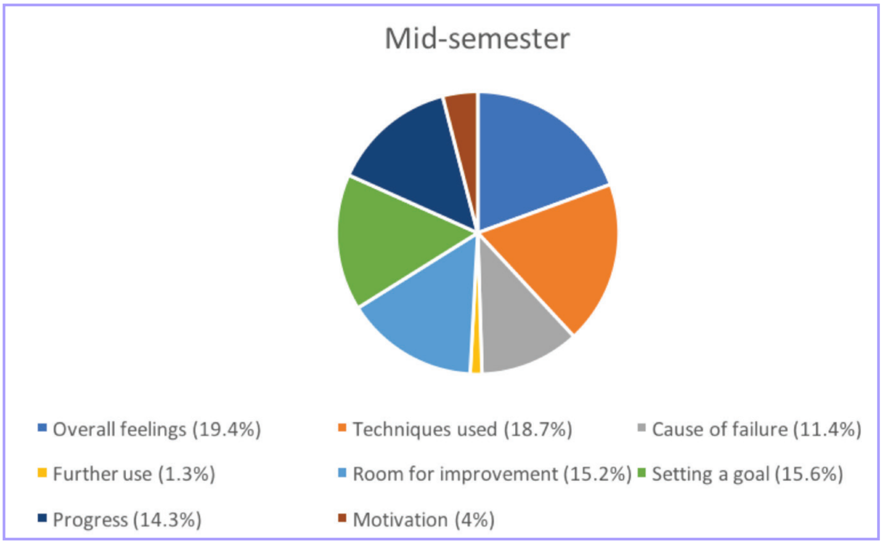

Figure 2: Proportion of comments in individual areas in the mid-semester report.

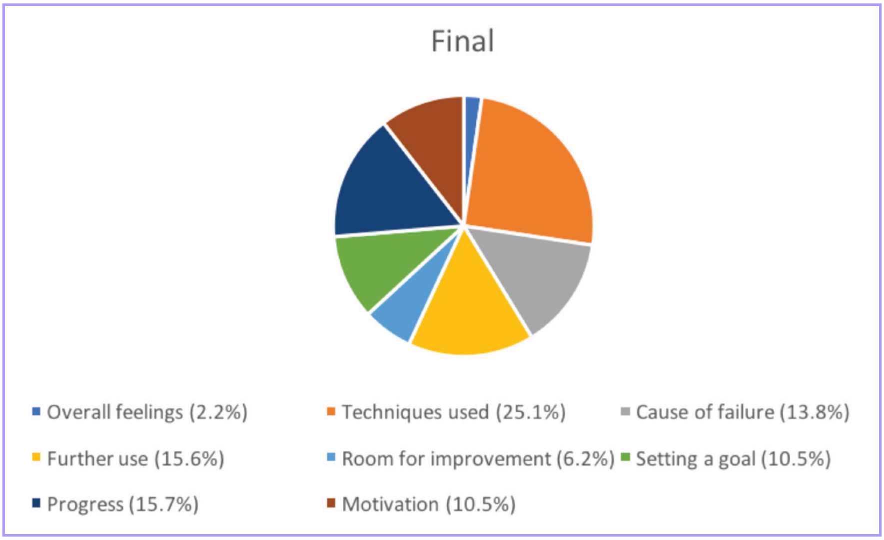

Figure 3: Proportion of comments in individual areas in the final report.

Figure 2 and Figure 3 show the changes in students' self-assessment. In mid-semester reports, the most significant portion was dedicated to *Overall Feelings* (19.4%), included by the students without specific instruction, very closely followed by the *Techniques Used* (18.7%). The number of comments on techniques used was nearly the same as the number of comments regarding *Progress* (14.3%) and *Motivation* (4%) together — these were not so prominent in the mid-semester reports. Besides feelings and techniques, very prominent were also the remaining areas the students were specifically asked to comment on — *Room for Improvement* (15.2%) and *Setting a Goal* (15.6%). In the final reports, the most significant portion was dedicated to *Techniques Used* (25%), which was predictable and, again, comparable to the number of comments regarding *Progress* (15.8%) and *Motivation* (10,5%), which became more prominent compared to the mid-semester reports and accounted for the same number of comments as *Setting a Goal* (10.5%), making it less prominent than in mid-semester reports. Besides techniques and progress, *Further use* was also prominent (15.6%), which rapidly changed compared to mid-semester (1.3%). What decreased was the prominence of *Overall Feelings*, the comments on which accounted only for 2.2% in the final reports. This comparison shows a shift from commenting on what the instructor asked the students to a more self-aware practice-oriented approach.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The study collected a considerable amount of various data, and it is not surprising that the reports varied in the number of comments as well as content, specificity and personal nature. Nevertheless, the results show that the students used this opportunity to their advantage and put serious effort into their tasks. Several limitations arose from this study. Firstly, the group discussion at the beginning of the semester confirmed Takeda's (2010) findings, but since there was no detailed record of the discussion, it could not be analysed in-depth. For further research, obtaining a detailed record would be recommended. The design of the reports can also be seen as one of the limitations to the present study as it provided quite specific questions but also very vague instructions for some parts, and the area of overall feelings might have been more specified, for instance by using a specific question for this area.

The main findings of the present study led to the following conclusions. The hypothesis that *Self-reflective approach used in teaching note-taking helps the student see their progress and find motivation* was confirmed, proved by the high number of comments, starting essentially from zero at the beginning of the semester, which also answers research question (3), *Does the self-reflective approach increase the students' motivation?* — the author can safely state that the students found motivation and consider even self-assessment as a valuable source of feedback and tool for improvement.

The analysis of both the reports and students' notes positively answered also research question (1), *Does the use of self-assessment in instruction improve the performance of the students?* The students' notes and note-taking systems improved significantly, based on the analysis of the reports, it was caused both by sharing tips, practising the notes, and having feedback discussions but also by the self-assessment reports assigned, which allowed the students a more detached view, noticing both strong and weak areas and room for improvement but also progress made, enabling the students to set a specific goal. Setting a goal proved very important; at the beginning, students enumerated mainly very general goals in the group discussion. In their reports, the number of comments again shows that students realise what their needs are. This skill is essential not only during their studies but also in their future careers, where self-assessment and self-reflection will be the two keystones they can rely on.

The *Further Use* area confirms the increase in students' ability to self-evaluate and identify their needs. Being able to discuss the techniques used, the success in their use, and room for improvement or further use shows an increased level of self-awareness, which, as Piotrowska (2012, p. 112) states, is of particular value for professional advancement, even if for some it might mean leaving this career path.

Using a reflective approach, students became more aware not only of their learning but also of their progress, as confirmed by the comments. Being able to notice their progress by themselves, students' motivation increased, even in those students who are not even considering a career in interpreting. The number of comments regarding the *Progress* and *Motivation* area as well as the shift in *Overall feelings* also gives an answer to the last research question, (2), *Does the use of self-assessment in instruction improve the students' overall impression of their performance during and after the course*? This brings satisfaction and optimism not only to the students but also to the instructor.

Students' self-reflection and self-assessment also bring benefit to the instructor, not only in the form of reassurance but also in giving feedback regarding what is useful and what should be altered. As Mraček & Mračková Vavroušová (2021, p. 244) conclude, «it can be argued that teachers become more empowered by knowing more about their students' needs, emotions and learning potential» and «it is reassuring (…) that even those trainees who have concluded by this stage of their training that interpreting is incompatible with their personality do appreciate a gradual improvement of the different sub-skills involved». Such self-reflective approach also enhances mutual interaction between the instructor and their students, which is not limited only to the classroom (Arumí & Esteve, 2006, p. 184). Such an atmosphere of mutual partnership is in line with the current trend in interpreting training, yet it is still not much common in Central Europe, where teacher-centred approaches traditionally prevail in education in general. Self-reflective tasks may help students with their confidence by giving them a voice, a voice that is being heard.

This study arose from the author's direct teaching experience. It has its limitations and proposes several areas that might be studied, such as in-depth analysis of group discussions, more specific self-assessment reports or studying self-reflective reports and self-assessments separately. Nevertheless, the present study's findings may be applicable to interpreters' instruction and how note-taking instruction may be enhanced. The self-reflective approach not only brings data for research but, more importantly, motivates students and enhances self-awareness and self-reflective and self-assessment skills, which the students can utilise later in their studies and their professional life. Once an interpreter starts their professional career, they can rely primarily on self-reflection and self-assessment, sometimes peer feedback. Such skills will be useful also to those not pursuing this career path.

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Docencia de Interpretación en alemán-español: propuesta de metodología interactiva y situada con elementos de gamificación[1]

Teaching Interpreting in German-Spanish: Proposal of an Interactive and Situated Methodology with Elements of Gamification

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Resumen: Para la eficaz preparación de los futuros profesionales de traducción/interpretación es necesario, además de dominar idiomas extranjeros y poseer fluidez oral, conocer también estrategias y tendencias avanzadas en traducción adaptadas a los desafíos profesionales actuales. Dado que la tarea del intérprete social asume cada vez mayor parte del papel del mediador intercultural, se requiere también desarrollar competencias sociales adicionales con elementos de empatía, control emocional e intervención propia en condiciones de mucha presión. Estas competencias resultan

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ser de vital importancia, sobre todo en casos de interpretación en situaciones de emergencia social (hospitales, clínicas psiquiátricas, instituciones penitenciarias, atención a refugiados, a víctimas de violencia de género, etc.). El entrenamiento práctico anticipado es más eficaz si la situación y el entorno de aprendizaje de las lenguas extranjeras e interpretación se acercan lo máximo posible a la situación real, por ejemplo durante juegos de rol con atributos teatrales, efectos especiales, transmisión de experiencia propia y puestas en escena. La base de dicha propuesta didáctica interactiva con elementos de gamificación parte de los últimos avances en las Ciencias Cognitivas y la Neurodidáctica, que abogan por el *embodied learning* (Shapiro & Stolz 2019) como metodología motivadora de aprendizaje corporeizado (Grein 2021). Este enfoque consiste en ofrecer a los alumnos la experiencia práctica: *selfexperience, being-in-the-real-world*. Ello va en línea con la teoría de la simulación situada (Barsalou 2020) y la necesidad del aprendizaje inserto en un contexto próximo al real para alcanzar la fluidez conceptual (Danesi 2017) y para facilitar, a su vez, la gestión terminológica eficaz (Faber 2022) necesaria para la tarea de la interpretación. Partiendo de la experiencia previa como intérprete profesional y docente, se puede afirmar que la metodología propuesta acelera el desarrollo de las competencias lingüísticas, sociales, terminológicas, empáticas y de control emocional necesarias para los futuros intérpretes. Se trata de una metodología interactiva y práctica, eficaz, orientada a la acción y al fomento de las nuevas competencias de la Interpretación, que representa un proceso holístico haciendo uso de los postulados de la didáctica estética e interpretación ecológica.

Palabras clave: Estudios de Interpretación; aprendizaje corporeizado y situado; empatía; didáctica estética; interpretación ecológica.

Abstract: For the effective preparation of future translation/interpreting professionals it is necessary not only to have a good domain of foreign languages and oral fluency, but also to know advanced translation strategies and trends adapted to current professional challenges. As the task of the social interpreter increasingly takes over the role of intercultural mediator, it is also necessary to develop additional social competences with elements of empathy, emotional control and self-intervention in high-pressure conditions. These skills prove to be of vital importance especially in cases of interpreting in social emergency situations (hospitals, psychiatric clinics, care of refugees, victims of gender-based violence, in penitentiary institutions, etc.). Advance practical training is most effective if the situation and the environment for learning foreign languages and interpreting are as close as possible to the real situation, e.g. during role-plays with theatrical attributes, special effects, transmission of one's own experience and in staging. The fundament of such an interactive didactic approach with gamification elements is based on the latest developments in cognitive science and neurodidactics, which advocate embodied learning (Shapiro & Stolz 2019) as a motivating methodology (Grein 2021). This approach consists in offering learners practical experience: self-experience, being-in-the-real-world. This is in line with the theory of situated simulation (Barsalou 2020) and the need for learning embedded in the close-to-real context to achieve conceptual fluency (Danesi 2017). It also facilitates the effective terminology management (Faber 2022) necessary for the task of interpreting. After previous experience as a professional interpreter and teacher, it can be affirmed that the proposed methodology accelerates the development of the linguistic, social, terminological, empathic and emotional control skills necessary for future interpreters. It is an effective interactive and practical methodology oriented towards action and the promotion of new interpreting skills that represents a holistic process making use of the postulates of aesthetic didactics and ecological interpreting.

Keywords: Interpreting Studies; embodied and situated learning; empathy; aesthetic didactics; ecological interpretation.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

La creciente globalización y las necesidades de comunicación multilingüe hacen que el valor de la profesión del traductor o intérprete[2] esté en auge. La compleja situación política y los movimientos migratorios en considerable aumento en los últimos años representan un notable desafío para los profesionales del campo de la atención social e interlingüística. El presente panorama requiere nuevas habilidades y competencias de los profesionales en estos sectores.

A modo de ejemplo, en el año 2023, el 12,9 % de la población de España eran inmigrantes (INE), mientras que Alemania, con sus 84,3 millones de habitantes, tiene el 28,7 % de personas con raíces migratorias o extranjeros (*Das Statistische Bundesamt — Instituto Federal de Estadística alemán*). Llama especialmente la atención que solo en el primer semestre del año 2022 Alemania también experimentara un repentino crecimiento de su población en un 1 % versus el crecimiento total del año 2020 de +0,1 %. Estos números ponen de manifiesto los cambios demográficos acelerados que experimentan muchos países hoy día, entre ellos España y Alemania, donde las sociedades modernas están cada vez más marcadas por una mezcla de lenguas y culturas.

Igualmente, la relevancia económica del sector del turismo extranjero en España y Alemania requiere personal cualificado y representa un ámbito de trabajo en expansión muy atractivo para los futuros profesionales. No obstante, según la encuesta efectuada por el periódico *La Vanguardia* (2020), al 90 % de los españoles les da miedo hablar en una lengua extranjera y asocian este acto con emociones negativas. Todos estos hechos ponen de manifiesto la necesidad de desarrollar nuevos métodos para formar expertos en competencias lingüísticas e interculturales y en lenguas extranjeras para propósitos específicos, concretamente para el ámbito de la Traducción e Interpretación en español y alemán. El *Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas: aprendizaje, enseñanza y evaluación* (MCERL) establece 6 competencias lingüísticas,

2. A partir de aquí el género masculino se utiliza de forma inclusiva.

sin las cuales es imposible usar correctamente una lengua extranjera (Instituto Cervantes). Se trata de la parte gramatical, la comprensión escrita, auditiva, la expresión escrita y la expresión oral, al igual que la mediación oral y escrita. Esta última competencia fue añadida *a posteriori* y comprende la capacidad de acción en el entorno intercultural como intermediarios, poniendo en comunicación a dos o a más hablantes que no se comunican directamente, debido a la barrera lingüística. Según la Asociación Federal de Mediación de Alemania (*Bundesverband Mediation*), la mediación comprende la apertura hacia el resultado, ser multipartidario, independiente, resolutivo y constructivo en los conflictos. Esta nueva faceta del profesional interlingüístico hace que este pase de ser una figura invisible o un mero canal de transmisión del mensaje a ser un participante del acto comunicativo más activo e implicado.

Las necesidades de integración en la comunidad receptora de la población proveniente de fuera y la atención social y educativa de los migrantes ponen bajo mayor presión a las sociedades, cada vez más multilingües y multiculturales (Ramasco Gutiérrez, Giménez Romero & Marchioni 2020). Un profesional de mediación interlingüística y cultural, como lo es cada vez más un traductor o intérprete (Koreneva 2020), debe conocer a la perfección la situación actual de los países con cuyas lenguas está trabajando, saber ejercer la tolerancia, la diplomacia y la imparcialidad. Pero también debe experimentar la empatía y saber actuar dependiendo de las situaciones determinadas. Por lo cual, para establecer determinadas estrategias de acción, un profesional interlingüístico debe tener capacidad de evaluar la situación, poseer competencias comunicativas y sociales especiales orientadas a la acción. Existen muchos estudios que demuestran que, en el campo de trabajo de los intérpretes, donde se requieren altas exigencias lingüísticas y cognitivas, es importante ejercer y desarrollar de forma temprana y práctica sus competencias profesionales, ya durante la fase de la adquisición de las lenguas extranjeras (Limbach 2017; Padilla 2002).

El veloz desarrollo tecnológico afecta de forma adicional al mercado laboral de la interpretación. La reciente pandemia del Covid-19 fomentó la extensión de la modalidad de interpretación remota, que son las interpretaciones telefónicas o por videoconferencia. Ello transforma la profesión y hace más eficaz la aplicación de la mediación interlingüística a distancia en ámbitos como la interpretación social para los servicios públicos (Hale, 2007), o sea en situaciones de emergencia social, médica, psiquiátrica, policial, de atención a víctimas de violencia de género, refugiados o presos en instituciones penitenciarias. Dicha tendencia también conlleva una carga cognitiva mayor y se convierte en un mayor desafío: trabajo basado solo en la comprensión auditiva, falta de presencia física, resistencia al estrés y presión psicológica, a menudo falta de contacto visual y posibles interferencias físicas y técnicas. La interpretación remota presupone el buen manejo de los medios técnicos comunicativos correspondientes, sin olvidarse de garantizar la fluidez verbal, la competencia metafórica (Danesi 2017) y la gestión terminológica adecuada (Faber 2022). Hay que señalar que las situaciones de emergencia social requieren habilidades especiales, como son la espontaneidad, la necesidad de improvisación por falta de tiempo, la intervención propia, el control de las emociones en momentos de carga psicológica elevada y la competencia social empática a nivel intercultural.

Todas estas exigencias mencionadas arriba representan un gran desafío para la comunicación multilingüe global y convierten los Estudios de Traducción e Interpretación en un proceso educativo complejo con necesidad de un enfoque holístico. Dicho enfoque obliga a los docentes a incorporar los últimos avances en didáctica y a innovar constantemente. En el presente trabajo se destaca la utilidad para la enseñanza de los recientes progresos en las Ciencias Cognitivas y la Neurodidáctica reflejados en la traducción/interpretación ecológica y en la didáctica estética orientada a la acción prosocial, el control emocional y la comunicación empática. Se demuestra que, en caso de un aprendizaje vinculado a mecanismos cognitivos, lingüísticos y comunicativos de gran complejidad, este debe plantearse como un proceso de aprendizaje interactivo, donde destaca un enfoque práctico inserto en contextos que incorporan elementos de gamificación para mayor autenticidad (Koreneva 2020). La gamificación puede ser definida como el uso de estrategias, elementos y diseño de juegos en un contexto no lúdico (Kapp 2012).

2. BASES TEÓRICAS DEL PRESENTE TRABAJO

Son muchos los recursos lingüísticos y las teorías didácticas y comunicativas que tenemos a nuestro alcance los docentes hoy día. Pero para que el planteamiento de la formación de futuros profesionales en el campo de la interpretación sea eficaz, se debe partir del conocimiento de los procesos cognitivos subyacentes a esta tarea. Uno de los mecanismos complejos representa el control de los *switching costs* (Gambi y Hartsuiker, 2016), o sea el esfuerzo mental para cambiar de una lengua de trabajo a otra. En el caso de los intérpretes, esta tarea debe ser efectuada en un tiempo récord. Se conoce que la memoria de trabajo y el control ejecutivo asumen dichas funciones, además de encargarse de elegir estrategias de traducción adecuadas y retener la información a corto plazo (Padilla 2002). Numerosos estudios experimentales reclaman el entrenamiento de estos mecanismos y de la memoria en general desde una fase muy temprana de la formación de los futuros intérpretes (por ejemplo: Morales *et al.* 2015; Yudes, Macizo, Morales y Bajo 2011). Al mismo tiempo, estos estudios muestran que las competencias lingüísticas y culturales no son los únicos factores determinantes para asegurar la calidad del trabajo en el campo de la interpretación.

Varios estudios psicolingüísticos empíricos arrojan luz sobre otros mecanismos subyacentes a estas tareas. Algunos autores demuestran que el mismo aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera desde la fase inicial incorpora una traducción automática literal efectuada por el cerebro del ser humano (Ibáñez, Macizo & Bajo 2010; Macizo & Bajo 2006). Ello indica que se debe enfocar la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para fines de interpretación especializada, aprovechando este mecanismo cognitivo innato para orientarlo a las tareas específicas en los estudiantes de la carrera de Traducción e Interpretación. Además, la larga experiencia profesional propia ha demostrado que la actividad mental durante el trabajo del intérprete para propósitos específicos requiere habilidades y competencias especiales. Estas deben considerarse ya en la fase inicial de la enseñanza de una lengua extranjera con dicho propósito profesional y entrenarse también durante su perfeccionamiento. Así, según el enfoque psicolingüístico, un intérprete necesita desarrollar la capacidad de construir la representación mental en función al discurso y considerar los correspondientes procesos lingüísticos. Ello comprende la activación léxico-semántica, el procesamiento sintáctico, el análisis proposicional, el correcto juicio sobre la situación y los problemas para su resolución, además de la negociación de significados y la adaptación del mensaje escrito al oral, que requiere la estructuración y la síntesis de la información. Dicha representación mental es necesaria para planificar las estrategias traductoras y conseguir una comunicación eficaz reformulando de forma equivalente el mensaje de origen en la lengua meta. Desde hace tiempo se conoce que, si para la producción verbal un intérprete emplea un 20 % de los recursos cognitivos, para la tarea de comprensión, verbalización y reformulación, además de elegir la estrategia traductora válida, necesita el 80 % de los recursos cognitivos (Padilla 2002). Gracias al control atencional altamente activado dichas funciones pueden y deben ser efectuadas casi simultáneamente, con el manejo constante de los *switching costs* entre las lenguas de trabajo y a menudo bajo mucha presión. Resulta evidente que durante la formación profesional se debe hacer hincapié en optimizar este 80 % de recursos cognitivos.

2.1. *Aprendizaje corporeizado y cognición situada*

Una de las principales claves de éxito en el empleo de los recursos cognitivos durante la tarea de la interpretación reside en la puesta en contexto y en la eficaz construcción de la representación mental. De ello depende la elección de la estrategia de traducción adecuada, la fluidez conceptual y verbal del intérprete y la adopción de la técnica comunicativa apropiada. Con el empleo de los últimos avances en Neurotecnología y en las Ciencias Cognitivas, se reclama y se consigue un enfoque interdisciplinar en la enseñanza y el perfeccionamiento de las técnicas de interpretación. Sobre todo, la interpretación para propósitos específicos o en situaciones de emergencia, tales como la interpretación social, médica, psiquiátrica, policial, en atención social a los refugiados, víctimas de violencia o en instituciones penitenciarias está estrechamente ligada a un contexto determinado, que desempeña un papel decisivo a la hora de la actuación de los intérpretes. Aquí llega a acertar de pleno la nueva competencia lingüística incluida por el MCRL, que es la de la mediación interlingüística e intercultural.

Hay que subrayar que el empleo de la reciente corriente neurodidáctica (Grein 2021) y el aprendizaje corporeizado (*embodied learning/being-in-the-world*) (Lebois *et al.* 2020; Barsalou 2020; Shapiro & Stolz 2019) no solo resulta ser eficaz en la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras, sino que también sirve como entrenamiento temprano de tareas orientadas a la acción y comunicación, como lo es la tarea de la interpretación.

Bryant y Zepter (2022) apuntan a que todos nuestros procesos cognitivos y del pensamiento están dirigidos por el complejo conjunto del espíritu, cerebro y cuerpo interactuando con el entorno. En definitiva, la cognición corporeizada (*embodiment*) está constituida por la estrecha unión entre lo psíquico y físico y hay que tratarlo de forma conjunta.

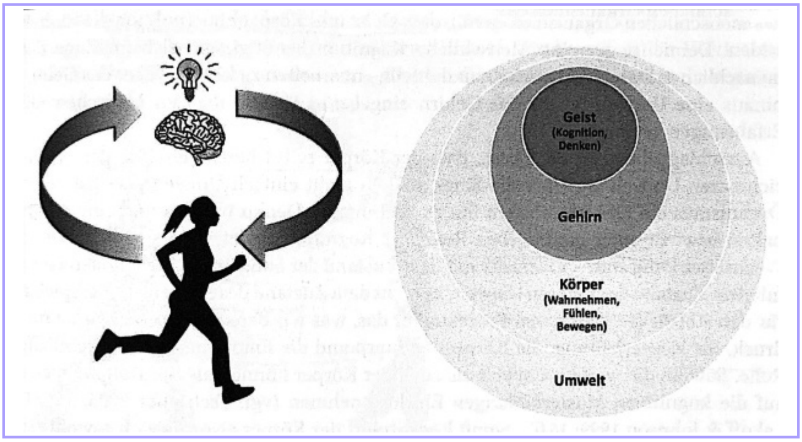

Imagen 1: Embodiment (Bryant & Zepter, 2022: 49).

También Shapiro y Stolz (2019) sostienen que la acción y la experiencia práctica son bases sólidas para la adquisición de cualquier habilidad, ya que la cognición o el aprendizaje corporeizado representa un conjunto que forman el cuerpo y la mente, involucrando la interacción con los demás individuos y su entorno. Por lo cual, para intensificar y asegurar el éxito de cualquier aprendizaje es necesario que este adopte un enfoque práctico con simulaciones motoras (Chrysikou, Casasanto y Thompson-Schill 2017). La activación de todos los mecanismos cognitivos mencionados desemboca en una experiencia física puesta en contexto con sus correspondientes representaciones mentales, que aseguran la adecuada percepción de la realidad y de la situación comunicativa, garantiza la fluidez y el entendimiento a nivel conceptual (Danesi 2017) necesarios para la comunicación exitosa.

Esta aproximación resulta aún más útil teniendo en cuenta que la parte intercultural es un concepto abstracto y que necesita un soporte físico para su mejor consolidación en la memoria e incorporación en el discurso. Varios estudios y experimentos demuestran que, mientras más abstractos y especializados sean los conceptos objeto de comunicación, más elementos de introspección están presentes en su percepción. Barsalou (2020) reveló en sus experimentos que la abstracción obliga a la mente humana a recurrir a tales mecanismos de retención más personalizados, como la memoria episódica autobiográfica, opiniones, creencias propias, valores, vivencias personales y emociones. De esta forma se hace evidente que la cognición corporeizada o la acción situada, o sea la puesta en escena o contexto concreto mediante la simulación de realidad orientada a un producto de acción, son imprescindibles para el proceso de aprendizaje de competencias prácticas. Gracias al empleo de estos postulados se consigue la creación de las imágenes mentales necesarias para la construcción de los significados y la determinación de las estrategias adecuadas para la interpretación o mediación intercultural válida.

2.2. *Educación estético-performativa*

Los planteamientos arriba expuestos van en línea con las tendencias de la educación performativa o estética (Rozenberg 2022; Bernstein y Lerchner 2014), que se basa en que la cognición consiste en el empleo del cuerpo, la presencia, la voz, el ambiente, anclándose en un evento concreto (Barsalou 2020). Esta pedagogía se remonta a los comienzos de la metodología Waldorf del antroposofista Rudolf Steiner (1861-1925), vigente todavía hoy día en varios países. Dentro de esta disciplina se genera un potencial transformativo conmovedor mediante las situaciones auténticas, cambiando la perspectiva del participante recurriendo al juego de rol y contribuyendo a la disminución del miedo a hablar. En conjunto con los principios neurodidácticos, se intentan emplear todos los sentidos, la empatía, las emociones y la atención como elementos adicionales para desarrollar la competencia comunicativa o de acción (*Kommunikations- und Handlungskompetenz* — Waldhaus 2021). Bryant y Zepter (2022) aportan evidencias empíricas de la eficacia del enfoque performativo en la enseñanza, donde el cuerpo se convierte en «recurso» cognitivo. Las autoras subrayan que en el proceso de aprendizaje interactivo se debe emplear los movimientos del cuerpo (la forma de andar, los gestos, la mímica), todos los sentidos (tacto, gusto, olfato) y las emociones (alegría, sorpresa, admiración, curiosidad, susto, etc.). Resulta evidente que la educación estético-performativa representa el aprendizaje práctico, recurriendo a la simulación orientada a la acción marcada por la reproducción lingüística consciente y reflexiva (estética). De esta forma, los futuros profesionales de interpretación no solo podrán comunicarse en el contexto de cultura y lengua extranjera, sino también interactuar con su entorno (Shapiro y Stolz 2019), lo que requiere el papel del intérprete como mediador intercultural. Dichas habilidades y competencias deben ir de la mano desde la primera fase del aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera enfocada de forma anticipada en el futuro laboral.

El mercado laboral de interpretación actual presenta nuevos desafíos en forma de la presión psicológica y la necesidad de control de las emociones o del empleo de la empatía en los ámbitos de la interpretación social en situaciones de emergencia. Este hecho requiere del intérprete nuevas habilidades artísticas y de improvisación. Tanto el aprendizaje corporeizado como la educación estética fomentan la percepción más perspicaz de la realidad, el poder imaginativo, y crean la unión dinámica entre los procesos cognitivos y emocionales durante el aprendizaje. Los docentes siempre fueron concebidos como una especie de actores que actúan delante de los alumnos, atrayendo su atención y despertando su interés (Fleiner 2014) transmitiéndoles la naturalidad de una lengua extranjera y de la comunicación en ella. En el caso de la *Dramapädagogik* (pedagogía de artes dramáticas) aplicada a la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras y de otras materias se unen la ciencia, la estética (el arte) y la semántica (Even 2014). Estos son muy importantes para la interpretación, ya que no solo se trata de transmitir el mensaje, sino también pensar si lo que se dice tiene sentido y es correcto, descodificarlo, además de intervenir de forma conveniente en un momento de necesidad.

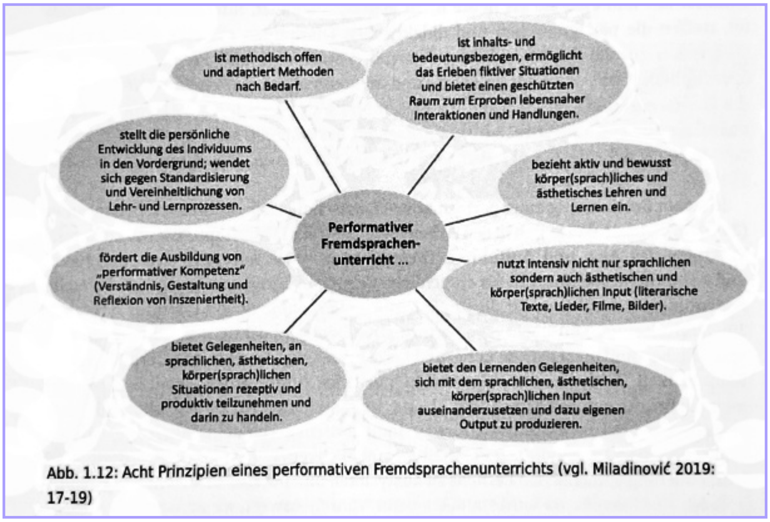

Imagen 2: Principios de la enseñanza performativa de lenguas extranjeras de Miladinović (2019 en Bryant y Zepter 2022: 42).

Miladinović (2019: 17-19 en Bryant y Zapter 2022) ofrece una vista global de 8 principios performativos para las clases de lenguas extranjeras. Las ventajas de dicha metodología consisten en: 1) la apertura del método y su flexible adaptación según la necesidad en el aula; 2) la relación con el significado, que ofrecen las vivencias de situaciones ficticias y un espacio protegido para experimentar las interacciones fieles a la realidad; 3) la enseñanza y el aprendizaje activo y consciente de las materias lingüísticas, recurriendo al lenguaje corporal y enfoque estético; 4) el uso intensivo no solo de los inputs lingüísticos, sino también artísticos y los del lenguaje corporal (textos literarios, canciones, cine, pintura); 5) ofrece a los alumnos oportunidades para tratar los inputs lingüísticos, pero también artísticos y los del lenguaje corporal y producir su propio output como respuesta a ellos; 6) ofrece oportunidades de participar en las situaciones lingüísticas, pero también artísticas y las del lenguaje corporal de forma receptiva y productiva y actuar dentro de ellas; 7) la promoción de la formación en competencias performativas (artísticas), al igual que la comprensión, el diseño y la reflexión sobre las puestas en escena; 8) pone en primer plano el desarrollo personal del individuo y va en contra de la estandarización y la unificación de los procesos de aprendizaje y enseñanza. Como se puede ver en la imagen 2, los principios señalados engloban todos los aspectos necesarios para el eficaz desempeño de las futuras tareas de un intérprete y mediador.

La importancia de las emociones y de su control en el proceso de la interpretación queda mejor ilustrada en los resultados de los estudios psicolingüísticos experimentales recientes. Así, se investigó la distancia emocional entre la lengua materna y la extranjera en cuanto a la respuesta psicofisiológica a diferentes estímulos (García-Palacios *et al.* 2018). Los investigadores demostraron la evidencia de que la condición verbal y la toma de decisiones éticas en situaciones de carga emocional elevada se ven afectadas por el contexto de la lengua y por su paradigma, lo que debe tenerse en cuenta en las estrategias comunicativas durante la interpretación y la mediación interlingüística. Pavlenko (2012) también habló a su vez en este contexto de *desembodied cognition*, que, en un momento dado, nos puede ayudar a disociar o distanciarnos de los episodios psicológicamente dañinos y proteger nuestra salud mental en situaciones de emergencia.

También otros recursos ofrecidos por la educación estético-performativa, tales como el teatro, el cine, la música, la literatura, etc. contribuyen al desarrollo del pensamiento crítico, la percepción más acertada de la realidad, fomentan la competencia y la transparencia mediática y comunicativa. Todo ello sigue en la línea de la percepción corporeizada y la situacionalidad en la enseñanza, sin mencionar la contribución a la creación de una enseñanza más emotiva y amena llena de suspense y efecto sorpresa que aumenta la motivación gracias al aprendizaje orientado a la práctica y la funcionalidad de la lengua. Según Danesi (2017), el mejor aprendizaje de una lengua es el que hacemos de niños, cuando el proceso fluye de forma natural y entretenida. De allí surge la necesidad de la incorporación de la gamificación, que consiste en utilizar las mecánicas y dinámicas de los juegos, estética y pensamiento de juego (*game thinking*), para que los alumnos se involucren, para motivar acciones, estimular el aprendizaje y resolver problemas. Los juegos presentan una realidad abstracta, porque se pueden simplificar conceptos. Esto hace más fácil establecer relaciones de causa y efecto de forma inmediata (y no de forma extendida como ocurre en el mundo real). En esta forma esquemática de presentar el mundo, es más fácil establecer conexiones entre eventos (Kapp 2012).

2.3. *Empatía*

Aquí es preciso explicar el papel de la empatía y la necesidad de la intervención activa del intérprete en la comunicación. Su importancia resulta ser bastante evidente en las situaciones de emergencia y desamparo social. La incorporación de la competencia mediadora en la labor interlingüística cuestiona el rol del intérprete como una figura invisible, tal como se concebía antiguamente (Bertone, 1989). Partiendo de la experiencia propia, un intérprete a veces se ve obligado a intervenir de forma activa, hacer comentarios propios, aportar juicios personales, empatía o contribuir a la construcción de la relación de confianza evitando o suavizando la confrontación. Dichas tareas deberían teóricamente recaer en trabajadores de la atención social: médico o sanitario, personal social, consultor psicológico, agente de policía, etc. Sin embargo, a menudo surgen situaciones de fuerza mayor o sobrevenidas que lo impiden: así, debido al agotamiento del personal sanitario durante la pandemia del Covid-19 o de los trabajadores sociales en atención a refugiados durante las guerras, en turnos nocturnos y por causas puntuales, por ejemplo, por el malestar de los interlocutores.

Para que la comunicación funcione, no basta con la contraposición de los sistemas lingüísticos diferentes y la comparación de los contenidos explícitos e implícitos, sino que también se necesita la interpretación de las señales de entendimiento y confianza a nivel fático, somático y emotivo, como un valor adicional cognitivo de los sistemas de referencia y relevancia de los comunicantes (Konerding 2020). Por consiguiente, la empatía va más allá de la simple puesta en el lugar del otro. Liebert (2020) afirma que la empatía es la inmersión en el mundo del otro, la experiencia corpórea de su mundo y la experiencia propia en él (*selfexperience*, *Sich-Selbst-Erleben*).

La comunicación empática no solo crea una comunicación situada y mejora la verbalidad, sino que produce en los participantes una reflexión sobre la propia visión del mundo y la hace coincidir con las expectativas y condiciones percibidas por el receptor del mensaje, recurriendo a los patrones del discurso de la cultura correspondiente. La empatía siempre está presente en mayor o menor medida en cualquier comunicación, surge de la interacción y forma parte central de cualquier discurso intercultural. Se trata de una competencia cognitiva más (Kilian y Marx 2020), que consiste en la observación y la escucha activa y atenta. Su consideración es importante para el desarrollo de la consciencia lingüística y es de imprescindible incorporación a la formación de los profesionales en muchos campos, por ejemplo, el de los psicólogos, docentes, médicos, actores, mediadores, etc. (Jacob *et al.* 2020). Dado que la interpretación en emergencia social se desenvuelve en estos ámbitos, la confianza y la empatía entre los participantes en el acto comunicativo es decisiva para que la información fluya y tenga éxito.

El entendimiento mediante gestos, mímica u otros mecanismos del lenguaje corporal es un elemento adicional importante de la resonancia empática y representa *embodiment* de la comunicación humana (Staemmler 2020).

Además, según los nuevos hallazgos de la psicología emotiva, las emociones impulsan de forma implícita los procesos cognitivos y el pensamiento; también participan en los procesos de toma de decisiones y forman parte de la inteligencia social. El manejo cultivado socialmente y consciente de las emociones garantiza el trato cooperativo con las personas de nuestro entorno y ayuda en la solución prosocial y constructiva de los conflictos. En este punto emerge el concepto de la inteligencia emocional con sus capacidades de registrar de forma anticipada las emociones propias y las que surgen en los otros participantes de la interacción en base a las señales multimodales y corporales. También entiende la demostración consciente de sus propios sentimientos adecuados a la situación y los controla. Ello es esencial para una conducta social de éxito, como lo es también el acto de la interpretación interlingüística y de la mediación intercultural. Llegados a este punto, Konerding (2020) indica la existencia de las emociones sin la representación mental al igual que la empatía bloqueada, que son más difícil de controlar o manejar y lo que hace su conocimiento más importante para la tarea profesional.

La comunicación intercultural hace necesaria la presencia de la empatía especialmente en la labor del intérprete y mediador, donde la comprensión y la comunicación está dificultada por los trasfondos culturales diferentes y se debe experimentar la solidaridad transcultural reconociendo, respetando y representando diferentes perspectivas. Las acciones formativas avanzadas deben preparar a los futuros profesionales para el máximo número de situaciones posibles que puedan surgir en su vida laboral, desarrollando la capacidad de acción prosocial y reacción espontánea, la toma de decisiones urgentes y bajo presión.

2.4. *Ecointerpretación y pedagogía emotiva*

El factor empático de la interpretación la convierte en *ecointerpretación*, donde el protagonismo ya no reside en el mensaje, sino que pasa a los participantes en la comunicación (Tejada Caller, 2016), tal y como hemos visto también en la educación performativa orientada al usuario. Igualmente, se produce una sensibilización hacia el escenario y su adaptación a los esquemas culturales de la sociedad, donde se efectúa la remodelación del discurso conforme a los nuevos valores naturales y ecológicos (orientados al individuo). Dentro de las premisas de la ecointerpretación se recalca la tendencia que aleja al intérprete de la figura invisible, se produce el cambio de foco y se le permite la lectura individual del mensaje y el uso de técnicas verbales distintas recurriendo a los principios psicológicos. Dentro de la técnica comunicativa se pasa de la confrontación a la conciliación, de la crítica a la satisfacción, de lo objetivo a lo subjetivo. La voz del intérprete puede ser más o menos ecológica y puede guiar la comunicación. El enfoque ecológico convierte el acto comunicativo de la interpretación en un proceso holístico destacando el espíritu del equipo de sus participantes (Badenes y Coisson, 2010).

Como hemos podido ver arriba, el enfoque corporeizado da importancia a las emociones como la percepción subjetiva de la realidad, que contribuye a la construcción de las imágenes mentales situadas. Otra herramienta emotiva que no debe despreciarse es el humor, que resulta ser una herramienta muy poderosa para abrir una puerta hacia la cognición. A mediados del siglo XX, el psiquiatra William Fry acuñó el término de *gelotología* para designar la ciencia que estudia los efectos de la risa dentro

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de la biología, neurología y psicología, entre otras áreas. La risa es un fenómeno biológico, pero también psicológico, social y cultural. La pedagogía del humor (*humorvolle Pädagogie* - Theis 2021/Goethe Institut) tiene cada vez más éxito en la docencia. La risa activa el sistema límbico, reduce las hormonas del estrés (adrenalina), aumenta las hormonas de la felicidad (la dopamina y la serotonina). No se debe infravalorar el papel del humor en la interpretación. La estrategia del humor también debe formar parte de la «caja de herramientas» de un intérprete moderno, tanto para poder buscarle un equivalente válido para un chiste, romper el hielo, construir puentes entre los comunicantes o para una intervención propia como un medio de descargar la presión en caso de conflictos. También un buen humor produce vibraciones positivas, aporta serenidad, optimismo y confianza durante la comunicación (Schulze-Krüdener 2015). Un enfoque humorístico crea un ambiente relajado también en el aula y fomenta la espontaneidad, soltura e improvisación, tan necesarios a la hora de la adquisición y uso de una lengua extranjera para conseguir la fluidez conceptual y verbal.

Cabe mencionar la existencia del Instituto de Humor en Alemania (*Humorinstitut*), cuyos investigadores contemplan el humor como una herramienta más en la comunicación, que fomenta la concentración y el rendimiento de cualquier actividad.

3. EXPERIENCIA PRÁCTICA EN EL AULA

Resulta lógico que la inmersión lingüística es un método más eficaz para el aprendizaje efectivo de una lengua extranjera. Del mismo modo, la máxima aproximación a la situación auténtica y la puesta en contexto, propia del campo de la interpretación, representa un escenario idóneo para desarrollar de forma anticipada las competencias necesarias para ser un buen intérprete en el futuro. Ambos procesos pueden y deben ir de la mano desde la fase inicial de la carrera en Traducción e Interpretación.

Ya que el objetivo del presente trabajo es demostrar la utilidad del enfoque cognitivo corporeizado y estético-performativo basado en emociones, de poco serviría si no ofreciéramos ejemplos lo suficientemente ilustrativos que situaran al lector en su contexto de forma adecuada. Mediante las imágenes obtenidas de la experiencia práctica se pretende trasladar al escenario, objeto de nuestro estudio.

En el sentido de la educación estético-performativa resulta muy eficaz recurrir a las artes dramáticas: los juegos de rol, la recreación de situaciones y escenarios emocionales, la literatura y la poesía, la concepción de diálogos creativos y discursos libres, llenos de efectos sorpresa como catalizadores cognitivos (audio, podcast *Radio Wunderbar*, Feb. 22, en prensa).

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Como se puede comprobar en el presente audio, el toque humorístico relaja el ambiente en el aula y el enfoque creativo y libre en la reproducción de textos construidos por los propios alumnos mejora la fluidez verbal, desarrolla la espontaneidad y la improvisación del discurso en alemán.

La actuación, los diálogos estéticamente artísticos y auténticos, la recitación de forma emotiva (ya sea con efecto simpático o dramático) de obras literarias en alemán con elementos de gamificación y efectos especiales a cargo del docente o de los alumnos, a través de las emociones *selfexperience* (Barsalou 2020), abre de par en par una puerta hacia la cognición en el proceso educativo.

(«Erlkönig»/Goethe, «Lorelei»/Heine – Nov. 22, podcast Radio Wunderbar: https://upotv.upo.es/video/6384bd49abe3c6e7368b456c).

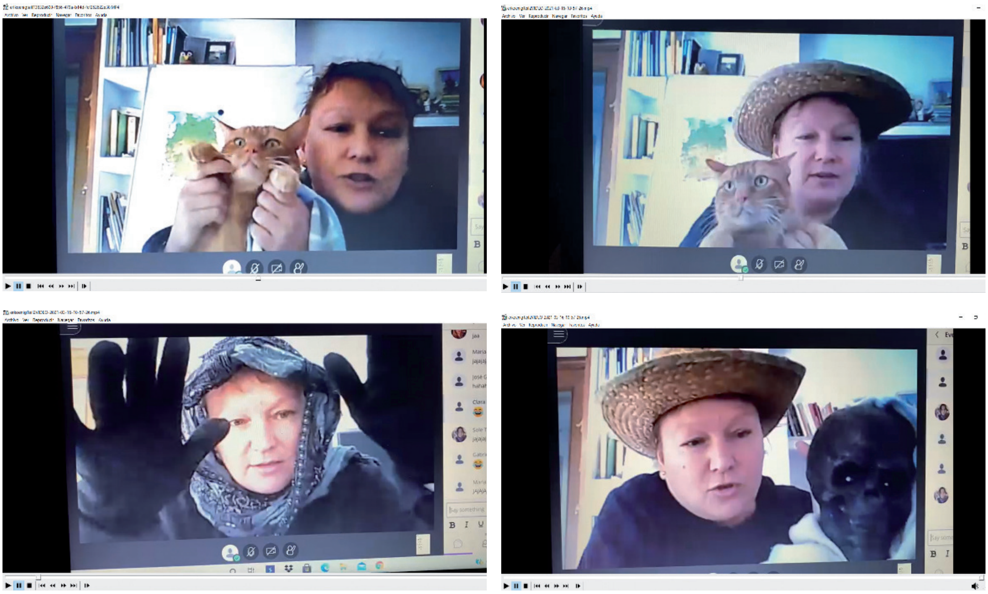

Imagen 3: «Erlkönig» de Goethe, recitado por la autora del presente trabajo durante la pandemia del Covid-19 en las clases online[3].

3. A partir de aquí se ofrecen imágenes de elaboración propia con el consentimiento expreso de las personas visibles o indicando el copyright; el resto aparece pixelado.

No cabe duda de que las imágenes, a pesar de ser estáticas, transmiten el dinamismo, el dramatismo, la carga emotiva y los elementos artísticos creativos (el gato, la calavera, el vestuario, cuatro personajes en uno). De hecho, en el chat que se visualiza en la imagen 3, se ven claramente las reacciones de los alumnos (los emoticonos, expresiones, etc.), lo que demuestra lo ameno y motivador que les resulta la clase de alemán, concretamente la recitación de la poesía, un género algo abandonado por los jóvenes hoy día. Ello demuestra el empleo eficaz de la *Dramapädagogik* (Even, 2014).

Otro ejemplo de la utilidad de recurrir a la *selfexperience* (Barsalou, 2020) es la puesta en contextos reales, referencias de aplicación práctica de cada tema, acompañados por ejercicios motivadores, como pueden ser entrevistas por parte de los alumnos a los profesionales de su futura profesión, escritores alemanes y expertos en la materia.

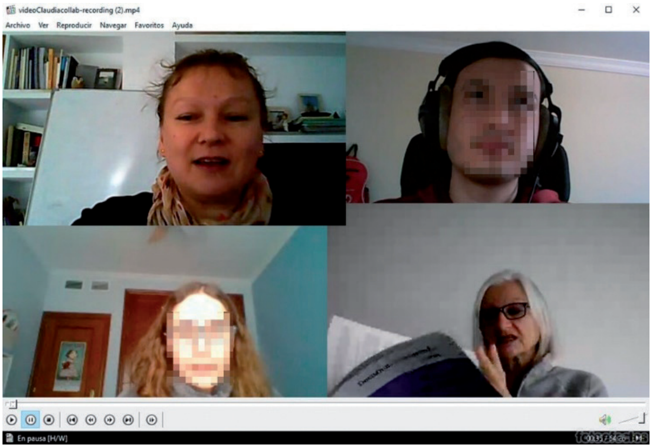

Imagen 4. Entrevista a la autora de libros alemanes Claudia Peter (Universidad de Alicante) por parte de los alumnos de la Universidad Pablo de Olavide para el podcast alemán Radio Wunderbar.

El podcast alemán *Radio Wunderbar*[4] es otra puesta en práctica de la verbalidad del discurso en un entorno real de una red social (Danesi, 2017). Los alumnos se convierten en entrevistadores, periodistas y moderadores *ad hoc*.

Como ya se ha explicado en los apartados anteriores, las referencias culturales suelen ser muy abstractas y complicadas de memorizar dada la difícil reconstrucción de su imagen mental sin soporte físico. El mejor método para este caso es recurrir a todo tipo de «herramientas corporales» y visuales, como son los bailes, canciones, juegos, vídeos. Así, resulta curioso el verbo alemán *schunkeln*, que no existe en español

4. RadiOlavide https://radiolavide.org/categoria-audio/radio-wunderbar/

y viene a significar algo así como: 'balancearse rítmicamente cogidos del brazo'[5]. Además, existen otras muchas canciones alemanas con la ayuda de las cuales se puede practicar de forma interactiva un determinado vocabulario o reglas gramaticales y también la verbalidad de forma vivencial y emotiva (ver imágenes 5 y 6). Todo ello garantiza su mejor retención en la memoria (Grein, 2020).

Imagen 5. Schunkeln Imagen 6. Fliegerlied (So ein schöner Tag).

Un docente puede hacer uso de la vestimenta para sus clases (ya sean camisetas con imprenta en alemán o zapatos de marcas típicas, como *Birkenstock*), que va en línea con la educación estética que concibe al docente como actor con su vestuario artístico correspondiente. Así lo hace Berta Tenorio con sus clases de *Divertideutsch*[6]. Son muy conocidas sus marionetas, que resultan divertidas y educativas tanto para los niños como para los adultos.

Imagen 7. Berta con la canción «Was ist an meinem Kopf?».

5. Pons.eu: https://es.pons.com/traducci%C3%B3n/alem%C3%A1n-espa%C3%B1ol/schunkeln
6. https://divertideutsch.com/

Imagen 8. Berta en clase con sus marionetas.

En la misma línea van los juegos divertidos para practicar en clase los temas gramaticales complejos, donde se incorporan movimientos y el trabajo en equipo. Conociendo la pedagogía del humor (Annette Theis, Workshop: *Gedacht-Gelacht-Gelernt/ Lo pienso, me río, lo aprendo*, 2022) y la importancia del mecanismo psicomotor durante el aprendizaje de nociones teóricas, se pueden plantear un sinfín de actividades cognitivas colaborativas que estimulan la memoria y fomentan la motivación de los alumnos.


Imagen 9 y 10. Curso del Goethe Institut con Annette Theis (2022) (Copyright Bettina Schätzle), como póster andante para anotar en su espalda palabras claves o ejemplos para un tema determinado y con los participantes en activo.

Celebrar juntos las fiestas da otro toque emotivo y animado y aporta diversidad, tanto al conocimiento de la cultura como al propio vocabulario, y además contribuye a la soltura y a la emotividad de la lengua o cualquier materia de estudio. Representa otra experiencia corpórea en grupo (Shapiro y Stolz 2019).

Imagen 11 y 12. Halloween en la clase de alemán.

Imagen 13. Carnaval alemán con «Polonäse Blankenese» (estilo baile la conga).

Imagen 14. Clases en el campus de la Universidad Pablo de Olavide (Sevilla, primavera del 2019).

Nuestra interacción con el entorno forma parte de la cognición corporeizada. Por lo cual, cambiar de escenario también ayuda a romper con la rutina y representa un nuevo impulso cognitivo productivo y constructivo con emotivo efecto sorpresa para la mente.

Para completar el uso de todos los sentidos, se pueden abordar y ofrecer (para probar en clase o en actividades extraordinarias) la comida y la bebida típicas del país, por ejemplo: *Traubenzucker* (caramelos de fructosa), *Plätzchen* (galletas típicas navideñas alemanas), *Lebkuchen* (galletas navideñas de jengibre), *Brezel* (pan con sal típico en forma de rosca), etc.

Igualmente, es imprescindible reconstruir situaciones más próximas a las reales gracias a los juegos de rol con atributos teatrales acordes a la experiencia profesional de los docentes. Dichas actividades prácticas, a veces con un toque de humor y sin quitarles su dramatismo, hacen a los alumnos meterse de pleno en el rol de su futura profesión, de acuerdo con el enfoque estético-performativo (Bryant y Zepter 2022). De este modo les es posible vislumbrar los beneficios de su posible trabajo, sus oportunidades, posibles dificultades, desafíos, pero también experimentar vivencias en equipo muy gratificantes y enriquecedoras, fomentando la cognición (Grein, 2020).


Imagen 15 y 16. Curso de Interpretación médica y mediación cultural en Santander (07/2022).

Las imágenes anteriores provienen del pasado curso avanzado (2ª edición) de Interpretación médica y mediación cultural, módulo de interpretación en situaciones de emergencia social. El curso fue organizado por la Universidad Internacional Menéndez Pelayo de Santander con la participación de la autora del presente trabajo y del médico intensivista Fernando Segura González (Hospital de Málaga, unidad de trasplantes). En las fotos (ofrecidas con el consentimiento de los protagonistas visibles) se pueden visualizar las emociones de agrado, el buen humor y la motivación del alumnado.

En este curso de perfeccionamiento en interpretación profesional se aplicó el enfoque interactivo práctico con elementos de gamificación. Se propusieron simulaciones de interpretación en situaciones próximas a las reales con efectos especiales inesperados para mayor autenticidad, que permitieron hacer fructíferas discusiones sobre las estrategias de interpretación a adoptar, aportar valiosas observaciones en clase, intercambiar impresiones, etc. El material del curso se basaba en su mayoría en casos muy emotivos de emergencia social y con carga psicológica elevada para una mejor puesta en escena y la preparación de los futuros profesionales a los futuros desafíos. También se practicaba la solidaridad transcultural y la empatía, el ponerse en el lugar de la persona interpretada (usando disfraces, colocando unas esposas a la alumna voluntaria que hacía de presa en una cárcel, etc.). Se pretendió entrenar el control emocional mediante el traslado a las situaciones inesperadas, practicar la resistencia a diferentes interferencias durante la comunicación y en episodios con efecto sorpresa (sin y con contacto visual de los participantes en el acto comunicativo). De esta forma se ejemplificaba la diferencia en el trabajo como intérprete telefónico *vs*. de videoconferencia. Igualmente, se les exponía a los alumnos a las situaciones donde se requiere una intervención propia del intérprete, su protagonismo. Se buscaba, por ejemplo, mostrar la compasión hacia los pacientes en situación de emergencia sanitaria con el personal médico agotado y la capacidad de resolver conflictos y suavizar confrontaciones durante la comunicación en casos de sobrecarga de trabajadores sociales en sitios de acogida de refugiados. Todo ello siguiendo la línea de la ecointerpretación (Tejada Caller, 2016), poniendo el mayor valor en la persona (Waldhaus, 2021; Liebert, 2020).

Tal y como lo hemos planteado antes, se intentó conseguir que el proceso de enseñanza fuera una experiencia lo más completa y corpórea posible, involucrando todos los sentidos del ser humano, activando sus emociones, abriendo la mente, incentivando la acción y el uso de entornos, contextos y ambientes diferentes, como sucede en la vida real. Como se ha podido ver, todos los recursos de aprendizaje interactivo ejemplificados van unidos a las emociones, incorporan elementos de gamificación, representan una experiencia corporeizada en primera persona, diversifican la metodología docente y contribuyen a la motivación de sus participantes, tanto alumnos como docentes. Debemos tener en cuenta que, sobre todo los niños, los adolescentes y la gente joven están siempre en movimiento y llenos de inquietudes. Pero también cualquier tipo de alumnado siempre agradece un proceso de aprendizaje diversificado, flexible, ameno, creativo y práctico. Así, por ejemplo, la música y el canto representan un recurso muy valioso para sintonizar con otra lengua y completar una experiencia física.

Imagen 17. Cantando la canción de Nicole Hohloch «Ein bisschen Frieden» con la autora del artículo.

Son múltiples los recursos emotivos, humorísticos y motivadores que se pueden emplear en las clases; son los que contiene, a modo de ejemplo, el podcast *Radio Wunderbar*: chistes, metáforas, dichos típicos para una lengua, buscar sus equivalentes, trabalenguas, cancioncilla para elegir a algo o a alguien, p. ej. «Pinto, pinto, *gorgorito*...» en una lengua extranjera. Todas ellas, además de representar referencias culturales, forman parte del lenguaje metafórico y figurativo que debe dominar y saber reconocer el futuro intérprete. Este conocimiento garantiza la fluidez y calidad de su discurso y debe practicarse de forma anticipada combatiendo el miedo a hablar en público.

5. CONCLUSIONES

Nuestra experiencia docente en los estudios de Traducción e Interpretación expuesta en el apartado anterior representa la aplicación práctica de los últimos avances en las Ciencias Cognitivas, la Neurociencia y la Didáctica. Teniendo en cuenta la complejidad de la tarea de la interpretación y los actuales desafíos del mercado, es necesario entrenar las competencias imprescindibles para el futuro desempeño de sus tareas como profesionales desde la fase inicial de la carrera (Limbach 2017; Padilla 2002). Por consiguiente, este entrenamiento debe iniciarse en paralelo con la adquisición de las lenguas extranjeras porque son procesos afines, interconectados, que se completan y solapan entre sí.

Como se ha podido ver, dentro de dicho enfoque educativo práctico y corporeizado, el proceso de aprendizaje se organiza de forma interactiva, completa y anticipada, en base a la experiencia física, emotiva y empática orientada a la acción profesional. La metodología presentada no solo ayuda a desarrollar mejores habilidades lingüísticas, sino que enseña a los futuros intérpretes y mediadores interculturales a comunicarse y actuar en el ámbito intercultural (Shapiro y Stolz 2019). Gracias a las premisas de la cognición corporeizada y situada y a la metodología de la educación estético-performativa (Bryant y Zepter 2022) con sus elementos de gamificación, las referencias culturales abstractas y otras nociones sin soporte físico adquieren una base corpórea sólida. Mediante su puesta práctica en contexto a través de simulaciones (Barsalou 2020) se consolidan mejor en la memoria humana, ayudando a desarrollar las estrategias de interpretación adecuadas. El enfoque presentado prepara al futuro intérprete para los desafíos de su trabajo y fomenta el desarrollo temprano de las competencias necesarias para desempeñar sus tareas. También los forma para la labor de mediador intercultural en situaciones de emergencia o conflictos sociales, que van en aumento y requieren saber ejercer el control emocional y trabajar de forma resolutiva y prosocial bajo presión.

El presente trabajo demuestra una vez más que existe una multitud de recursos didácticos a nuestro alcance para abrir las puertas de la cognición humana y ofrecer un aprendizaje más eficaz. Todo ello es posible gracias a la incorporación de los últimos avances y las nuevas tendencias didácticas en las Ciencias Cognitivas, orientadas a la enseñanza práctica e interactiva de las lenguas para propósitos específicos. Se ha podido ver la utilidad de la aplicación práctica de postulados y las prácticas de la pedagogía humorística (Theis 2022), que hacen que el proceso de aprendizaje sea más completo y eficaz. Igualmente, la ecointerpretación reclama la implicación más activa del intérprete y hacen que este cobre cada vez más protagonismo en la comunicación (Tejada Caller, 2016).

Nuestro estudio hace evidente que el proceso de enseñanza de lenguas para propósitos específicos representa un proceso holístico (Koreneva 2020) y que debe convertirse en *teamteaching* (*Deutsches Institut für Humor*), que va en línea con la corriente de *Eco-Thinking* (Stanford University) o educación ecológica.

Y para terminar con un toque humorístico según el Instituto de Humor alemán, debemos recordar que la docencia no es una profesión, sino un diagnóstico.

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