

**INTERPRETER EDUCATION AND TRAINING
IN YEMEN: A CASE STUDY**

**EMAN MOHAMMED MOHAMMED AHMED
BARAKAT**

UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

2015

**INTERPRETER EDUCATION AND TRAINING
IN YEMEN: A CASE STUDY**

by

**EMAN MOHAMMED MOHAMMED AHMED
BARAKAT**

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

SEPTEMBER 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious and the Most Merciful. All praise to God for His blessing in completing this work.

At this point of juncture, I would like to express my profound gratitude to my main supervisor, Dr. Noraini Ibrahim-González for her excellent guidance, constant monitoring, and patience throughout the course of this thesis. Her immense knowledge and invaluable advice helped to develop my research skills. The completion of this study would not have been possible without her support and understanding of the problems I faced in my professional and personal life.

I am also extremely grateful to my co-supervisor and Deputy Dean of The School of Humanities, Associate Professor Dr. Hasuria Che Omar for her assistance and constructive feedback that enhanced this research.

A word of thanks is due to the University of Science and Technology in Yemen for giving me the opportunity to undertake this research. I should not forget to thank the chairperson of the Department of English and my colleagues who facilitated the collection of data for this study.

Special thanks goes to Associate Professor Dr. Franz Pöchhacker, Dr. Leelany Ayob, and Dr. Haslina Haroon for their precious advice and words of encouragement.

On the personal level, no words would express my gratitude to my parents, Dr. Mohammed Barakat and Amatullah al-Zuhairi. Thank you for everything. I find myself indebted to my husband and soul mate, Ahmed. Without his love, care, and sacrifice, I would never have reached this stage. To my kids, Elyas, Elaf, sweet Hamzah and Abduladhem, thank you for being in my life and giving me reason to go ahead.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv
ABSTRAK	xvii
ABSTRACT	xix
1 CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Preview	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.1.1 Translation and interpreting practices in Yemen	2
1.1.2 Translator and interpreter education and training in Yemen	3
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Objectives of the Study	6
1.4 Research Questions	7
1.5 Significance of the Study	7
1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study	10
1.7 Operational Definitions	11
1.8 Chapters Outline	14
2 CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE	15
2.0 Preview	15
2.1 Basic Concepts and Distinctions in Interpreting	15
2.1.1 Typology by Alexieva	16
2.1.2 Typology by Pöchhacker	17

2.1.2.1	Social settings	17
2.1.2.2	Situational constellations	17
2.1.2.3	Typological parameters	18
2.1.3	Typology by Mikkelson	20
2.2	The Establishment and Development of Interpreting Studies	22
2.3	Research on Interpreter Education and Training	26
2.4	Curriculum	30
2.4.1	Principles of curriculum	30
2.4.2	Interpreting competence	34
2.4.3	Interpreter education and training curriculum models	36
2.5	Teaching and Learning Practices	43
2.5.1	Preparatory exercises	46
2.5.2	Consecutive interpreting	47
2.5.3	Simultaneous interpreting	49
2.5.4	Dialogue interpreting	51
2.5.5	The case of sight translation	52
2.6	Assessment	54
2.6.1	Basic values and concepts in assessment	55
2.6.2	The purpose of assessment	58
2.6.3	Traditional and alternative assessment	60
2.6.4	Principles of assessment design	63
2.6.5	Assessment in interpreter education and training	65
2.6.5.1	Levels and formats of assessment	65
2.6.5.2	Assessment parameters and criteria	69
2.7	Current Interpreting Education and Training Practices	71
2.7.1	Evaluation and accrediting bodies	72
2.7.1.1	International Association of Conference Interpreters	72

2.7.1.2	National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters	74
2.7.2	Training programmes	75
2.7.2.1	European Masters in Conference Interpreting	75
2.7.2.2	Conférence Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes	77
3	CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY	80
3.0	Preview	80
3.1	Overall Strategy	80
3.2	Mixed Methods Approach	82
3.3	Participants	83
3.4	Data Collection Materials	83
3.4.1	Documents	84
3.4.1.1	Translation programme plan	84
3.4.1.2	Department of English brochure	84
3.4.1.3	Descriptions of interpreting courses	85
3.4.1.4	Evaluation form	85
3.4.1.5	Lists of graduates	85
3.4.2	Interview guides	85
3.4.3	Questionnaires	87
3.4.4	Piloting questionnaires	92
3.4.5	Research ethics committee	95
3.5	Data Collection Methods	95
3.5.1	Document review	96
3.5.2	Observation	96
3.5.3	Conducting interviews	97
3.5.4	Administering questionnaires	98
3.6	Data Analysis	99

4	CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION	102
4.0	Preview	102
4.1	Results	103
4.1.1	Parties involved in interpreter education and training	103
4.1.2	Translation Programme	109
4.1.3	Interpreting courses	120
4.1.3.1	Curriculum	121
4.1.3.2	The quality of teaching and academic resources	124
4.1.3.3	The role of interpreting courses in developing interpreting skills and competences	135
4.1.4	Teaching and learning practices	149
4.1.4.1	Practice materials	149
4.1.4.2	Sequencing of teaching processes	157
4.1.4.3	Pre-interpreting exercises	159
4.1.4.4	Other teaching and learning activities	160
4.1.4.5	Observation of interpreting classes	162
4.1.5	Assessment	165
4.1.5.1	Continuous assessment	165
4.1.5.2	Tests	171
4.1.5.3	Observation of interpreting tests	187
4.1.5.4	Assessment criteria	190
4.1.6	Strengths and weaknesses	191
4.1.7	Problems and constraints	194
4.1.8	Suggestions	197
4.1.9	Results from interviews	199
4.2	Discussion of Results	207
4.2.1	Parties involved in interpreter education and training	208
4.2.2	Translation Programme	210

4.2.3	Interpreting courses	214
4.2.3.1	Curriculum	214
4.2.3.2	The quality of interpreting courses and academic re- sources	214
4.2.3.3	The role of interpreting courses in developing interpret- ing skills and competences	220
4.2.4	Teaching and learning practices	224
4.2.4.1	Practice materials	224
4.2.4.2	Sequencing of teaching processes	228
4.2.4.3	Pre-interpreting exercises	229
4.2.4.4	Other teaching and learning aspects	230
4.2.5	Assessment	232
4.2.5.1	Continuous assessment	232
4.2.5.2	Tests	236
4.2.6	Strengths and weaknesses	243
4.2.7	Problems and constraints	246
4.2.8	Suggestions	247

5 CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 249

5.0	Preview	249
5.1	Summary and conclusions	249
5.1.1	Curriculum	250
5.1.1.1	Principles of curriculum design	250
5.1.1.2	Interpreting curriculum model	251
5.1.1.3	Quality of interpreter education and training	252
5.1.2	Teaching and learning practices	253
5.1.2.1	Diversity in teaching and learning practices	253
5.1.2.2	Level of authenticity	254
5.1.2.3	Sequential teaching approach	254

5.1.3	Assessment	255
5.1.3.1	Validity and reliability	255
5.1.3.2	Level of authenticity	256
5.1.3.3	Purpose of assessment	257
5.1.3.4	Form of assessment	257
5.1.4	Constructive alignment	258
5.2	Recommendations	258
5.3	Proposed Curriculum Model for Interpreter Education and Training . . .	260
5.4	Future Research	263
	REFERENCES	265
	APPENDICES	275

LIST OF TABLES

3.1	Components of Study’s Questionnaires and Areas of Overlap	89
4.1	Shared Courses, TP Plan I	113
4.2	Translation Programme Courses, TP Plan I	114
4.3	TP Types of Courses, Plan II	116
4.4	University Prerequisites, Plan II	116
4.5	Faculty Prerequisites, Plan II	116
4.6	Department Prerequisites, Plan II	117
4.7	Elective Courses, Plan II	117
4.8	Translation Programme Courses, Plan II	118
4.9	The Weight of Assessment Components in Interpreting Courses	122
4.10	Grading System at UST	131
4.11	Strengths of Interpreting Courses	192
4.12	Weaknesses of Interpreting Courses	193
4.13	Problems and Constraints	196
4.14	Students’ Suggestions to Improve IE&T	198
4.15	The Percentages of Students’ ‘Excellent’ and ‘Good’ Responses on the Development of Cognitive Skills	221
4.16	The Percentages of Students’ ‘Excellent’ and ‘Good’ Responses on the Development of Interpreting Skills	222
4.17	The Percentages of ‘Excellent’ and ‘Good’ Responses on the Develop- ment of Ethical Behaviour and Professional Practice between Instructors and Students	223
4.18	The Percentages of ‘Very often’ and ‘Often’ Responses on the Use of Technical and Non-technical Materials between Instructors and Students .	225

4.19	The Percentages of ‘not applicable’ Responses on the Vehicle of Practice Materials Presentation	226
4.20	The Percentages of ‘Very often’ and ‘Often’ Responses on the Vehicle of Practice Materials Presentation between Instructors and Students	226
4.21	The percentages of ‘not applicable’ Responses on the Vehicle of Test Materials Presentation between Instructors and Students	237
4.22	The Percentages of ‘Very often’, ‘Often’, and ‘Sometimes’ Responses on the Vehicle of Test Materials Presentation between Instructors and Students	238

LIST OF FIGURES

2.1	Conceptual spectrum of interpreting	26
2.2	The principles of curriculum	32
2.3	Arjona’s curriculum models	41
4.1	The percentage of gender distribution among instructors	106
4.2	The percentage of age group distribution among instructors	106
4.3	instructors’ areas of specialisation	106
4.4	The proportions of responses in interpreting modes frequency among in- structors	107
4.5	The proportions of responses in interpreting settings frequency among in- structors	107
4.6	The proportions of responses in other translation tasks frequency among instructors	108
4.7	The percentage of gender distribution among students	109
4.8	The percentage of age distribution among students	109
4.9	The structural changes TP went through since establishment	111
4.10	The number of courses in Plan I and Plan II	118
4.11	The credits in Plan I and Plan II	119
4.12	The percentage of interpreting courses credits in TP Plan I and Plan II . . .	119
4.13	The number of TP graduates from 1998 to 2012	121
4.14	The proportions of responses in study plans between students and instructors	125
4.15	The proportions of responses in courses syllabus between students and instructors	127
4.16	The proportions of responses in teaching force between students and in- structors	129

4.17	The percentage of students' results in English language secondary certificate and TP admission test	131
4.18	The percentage of students' results in Arabic language secondary certificate and TP Arabic language prerequisites	132
4.19	The proportions of responses in interpreting students between students and instructors	133
4.20	The proportions of interested and uninterested students in interpreting as a profession	134
4.21	The reasons of students interested in interpreting as a profession	134
4.22	The reasons of students uninterested in interpreting as a profession	135
4.23	The proportions of students' responses in the development of students' language command	137
4.24	The proportions of instructors' responses in the development of students' language command	138
4.25	The proportions of students' responses in the development of students' knowledge	140
4.26	The proportions of instructors' responses in the development of students' knowledge	140
4.27	The proportions of students' responses in the development of students' cognitive skills	142
4.28	The proportions of instructors' responses in the development of students' cognitive skills	143
4.29	The proportions of students' responses in the development of students' interpreting skills	145
4.30	Bar chart showing the proportions of instructors' responses in the development of students' interpreting skills	146
4.31	The proportions of responses in the development of ethical behaviour between students and instructors	147

4.32	The proportions of responses in the development of professional practice between students and instructors	149
4.33	The proportions of students' responses in the topic of practice materials .	151
4.34	The proportions of instructors' responses in the topic of practice materials	152
4.35	The proportions of students' responses in the vehicle of input presentation	155
4.36	The proportions of instructors' responses in the vehicle of input presentation	156
4.37	The proportions of students' responses in the sequencing of teaching pro- cesses	158
4.38	The proportions of instructors' responses in the sequencing of teaching processes	158
4.39	The number of responses in pre-interpreting exercises between students and instructors	159
4.40	The proportions of students' responses in other teaching and learning ac- tivities	161
4.41	The proportions of instructors' responses in other teaching and learning activities	161
4.42	The proportions of responses in the source of assessment between students and instructors	167
4.43	The proportions of responses in the focus of assessment between students and instructors	168
4.44	The proportions of responses in the form of assessment between students and instructors	169
4.45	The proportions of students' responses in giving feedback	171
4.46	The proportions of instructors' responses in giving feedback	171
4.47	The proportions of students' responses in topic of test materials	173
4.48	The proportions of instructors' responses in topic of test materials	174
4.49	The proportions of students' responses in the vehicle of test input presen- tation	177

4.50	The proportions of instructors' responses in the vehicle of test input presentation	178
4.51	The proportions of students' responses in level of students' preparation in interpreting tests	181
4.52	The proportions of instructors' responses in level of students' preparation in interpreting tests	182
4.53	The proportions of responses in length of test materials between students and instructors	183
4.54	The proportions of responses in members of interpreting tests panel between students and instructors	184
4.55	The proportions of students' responses in other test procedures	186
4.56	The proportions of instructors' responses in other test procedures	187
4.57	The percentage of aspects assessed using the evaluation form	190
4.58	Translation Programme linear model	210

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIIC: The International Association of Conference Interpreters

BA: Bachelor of Arts

BATI: Bachelor of Arts in Translation and Interpreting

CI: Consecutive Interpreting

CIUTI: Conférence Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes

CK: Cultural Knowledge

DI: Dialogue Interpreting

DOE: Department of English

EMCI: European Masters in Conference Interpreting

ESIT: École Supérieure d'Interprètes et de Traducteurs

EU: European Union

GK: General Knowledge

IE&T: Interpreter Education and Training

IME: Interpreter Mediated Events

IR: Interpreting Research

IS: Interpreting Studies

JEPeM: Research Ethics Committee

(Jawatankuasa Etika Penyelidikan)

NAATI: The National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters

SI: Simultaneous Interpreting

SK: Specialised Knowledge

SL: Second Language

ST: Sight Translation

SU: Sana'a University

TL: Technical Language

TP: Translation Programme

TS: Translation Studies

TT: Target Text

UNESCO: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

USM: Universiti Sains Malaysia

UST: University of Science and Technology

PENDIDIKAN DAN LATIHAN JURUBAHASA DI YAMAN: SATU KAJIAN KES

ABSTRAK

Pendidikan dan latihan merupakan dua cabang pembelajaran; pendidikan berkait rapat dengan pemerolehan ilmu pengetahuan, dan pembangunan intelek, manakala latihan pula bertujuan memperoleh kemahiran khusus bagi melaksanakan tugas yang diberikan dengan sebaik mungkin. Sebagaimana bidang-bidang lain, pendidikan dan latihan diperlukan dalam pengikhtisasan penterjemah dan jurubahasa. Program pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa bermatlamat mengembangkan kemahiran dan pengetahuan yang diperlukan untuk menginterpretasi, dan untuk menyemai kesedaran terhadap tatalaku jurubahasa yang baik dan memantapkan keahlian sebagai pengamal dalam profesion ini. Di Yaman, pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa ditawarkan menerusi satu atau dua kursus dalam program terjemahan. Tiada program yang direka khusus untuk melatih bakal jurubahasa. Oleh itu, matlamat kajian ini adalah untuk memberikan gambaran penuh tentang pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa dalam konteks negara Yaman, dan ia meliputi isu pendidikan utama, termasuklah komponen kurikulum, amalan pengajaran dan pembelajaran, dan prosedur penilaian. Matlamat yang luas ini dicapai melalui pelaksanaan kajian kes terhadap program pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa yang ditawarkan di University of Science and Technology, universiti pertama yang menawarkan program ini pada peringkat ijazah sarjana muda. Bagi menjawab soalan kajian, pendekatan kaedah campuran digunakan untuk tujuan pengumpulan data daripada pelbagai sumber, yang kemudiannya disatukan melalui kaedah triangulasi. Dapatan utama kajian ini menunjukkan terdapatnya kekurangan pengajaran yang konstruktif kerana amalan pengajaran dan prosedur penilaian tidak berupaya memenuhi hasil kurikulum yang diharapkan. Satu dapatan penting lain ialah pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa ini dijalankan dalam persekitaran latihan bukan standard kerana kurangnya calon yang berkelayakan. Kekurangan tenaga pengajar yang berpengalaman dan profesional, serta ketiadaan kemudahan untuk latihan juga merupakan faktor penyumbang kepada keadaan ini. Tambahan lagi, pendidikan dan latihan yang dijalankan ini

tidak bersifat autentik kerana ia tidak menggambarkan keadaan sebenar amalan profesional sama ada dari segi kaedah dan kearah interpretasi, jenis bahan latihan dan kaedah penyampaian input, ataupun kelengkapan interpretasi. Natijahnya, kebanyakan graduan adalah kurang berkelayakan dan tidak dijangka untuk bekerja sebagai jurubahasa. Kajian ini memberi fokus kepada tindakan yang harus diambil dalam usaha menambah baik latihan dan pendidikan jurubahasa, termasuklah menyemak semula komponen kurikulum dan hasil pembelajaran. Penubuhan program latihan jurubahasa yang berasingan dan terpilih amat diharapkan dapat membantu usaha terarah dalam latihan dan pendidikan jurubahasa, khususnya kepada calon yang sememangnya berkebolehan untuk meningkatkan kemahiran interpretasi mereka. Paling penting, situasi dan keperluan pasaran interpretasi dikaji, diperjelas, dan dipenuhi dalam program pendidikan dan latihan jurubahasa sebegini.

INTERPRETER EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN YEMEN: A CASE STUDY

ABSTRACT

Education and training are two facets of learning; education is about gaining knowledge and developing intellect, whereas training is undertaken for the purpose of acquiring a specific skill to perform adequately a given task. Education and training are necessary for the professionalisation of translators and interpreters, as it is the case with other disciplines. The aims of interpreter education and training programmes are to develop the skills and knowledge required to interpret, and to develop an awareness of suitable conduct and membership as practitioners of a profession. In Yemen, interpreter education and training is offered as part of translation programmes in the form of two or three courses. There are no programmes designed specifically to train interpreters want-to-be. The aim of this study is to draw a complete picture of interpreter education and training in the Yemeni context which covers major educational issues including curriculum components, teaching and learning practices, and assessment procedures. This broad aim is achieved by conducting a case study of interpreter education and training offered at the University of Science and Technology which is the first university in Yemen to offer interpreter education and training at a bachelor's degree level. To answer research questions, a mixed-method approach is adopted for the purpose of collecting data from different sources, and converging these data via triangulation. The key finding of this study indicates that the components of interpreter education and training lack in constructive alignment as the teaching practices and assessment procedures do not serve to achieve curriculum intended outcomes. Another significant finding is that interpreter education and training is conducted in a non-standard training environment as there is lack in the pool of candidates and trained, experienced, and professional instructors, in addition to the absence of training facilities. Furthermore, interpreter education and training is not authentic in the sense that it does not reflect real world professional conditions in terms of interpreting mode and direction, type of practice materials and method of input delivery, and interpreting equipment. As a result, most

graduates are not well-qualified and are not expected to work as interpreters. The study in hand emphasises the necessity to take an action for the purpose of improving the state of interpreter education and training including reconsidering the components of curriculum and expected learning outcomes. Moreover, establishing a selective separate programme for training interpreters would help to direct efforts to interpreter education and training for those who have the aptitude to develop interpreting competence. Most important of all, the state and needs of interpreting market should be studied, specified, and met in interpreter education and training programmes.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Preview

This introductory chapter begins with background of the study which describes the state of translation and interpreting practices, and education in Yemen. Then, it presents statement of the problem, the objectives this research attempts to fulfil, and the questions it intends to answer. It progresses to presenting research significance, scope, and limitations. The chapter concludes with the definition of key terms used in the study and chapters outline.

1.1 Background of the Study

Nobody can deny the vital role translation plays in facilitating communication and establishing relationships among nations speaking different languages. However, translation in the Arab world in general is still far behind in terms of the number of qualified translators and interpreters, and the amount of translations from and into Arabic language. This could be attributed to the poor scientific and technological developments in the Arab countries which are still developing, largely consuming countries (al-Khaleej, 2010). As for the interpreting scene, al-Homaidan (2009) explains that the current state of interpreting in the Arab world is characterised mainly by the misconceptions surrounding the nature of interpreters' job and the lack of interpreter training programmes that supply the market with qualified interpreters in the needed subject areas. Interpreting is perceived only as oral translation. Aspects other than linguistic and cultural competence such as cognitive abilities and special personality traits including self-confidence and stress tolerance are totally overlooked.

1.1.1 Translation and interpreting practices in Yemen

The profile of the translation market in Yemen is marked with disorder and lack of practice standards. According to Ghazi (2008), translation in Yemen is not yet recognised as a profession in its own right. It is rather considered a skill that can be performed by any person who is competent in two languages. The profession still lacks public recognition, and clients perceive translation as a matter of linguistic code switching that requires linguistic competence rather than any kind of education or training. In general, there is lack of knowledge by people on what interpreters do. The situation is similar to the one Gravier described in the preface to Seleskovitch's book (1978) more than thirty years ago; "the public at large has a very vague and very inaccurate picture of what interpretation is all about."

Translation offices are the official providers of translation and interpreting services in the country. Anyone can start such a business and getting a license to open a translation office is not a difficult matter. In fact, most of these offices offer translation apart from other services including typing, printing, and scanning. There is also a translation centre which is run by the School of Languages at Sana'a University (SU). The centre is concerned with the translation of official documents and certificates, but it offers no interpreting services.

As for the accreditation of translators and interpreters, there are two accreditation bodies just for translators: the Ministry of Culture, and the National Committee for UNESCO. However, the Ministry of Culture is not a real accrediting body as it performs a rather administrative role. Translators can obtain the accreditation of the National Committee for UNESCO by passing a translation test and providing the necessary documents which include a bachelor's degree in English Literature, English Education, or English Language in addition to any evidence of experience in the field (Ghazi, 2008). In other words, those who have good knowledge of two languages can easily become translators even if they did not receive translator education or training. There are no accreditation

authorities for interpreters as interpreting is regarded a type of translation, and those who offer translation services are expected to work as interpreters as well.

The uncontrolled market along with clients' ignorance negatively affects the quality of the service provided, and makes clients look for the least prices at the expense of quality. It is observed that translation and interpreting services are provided by unqualified practitioners, and, in the best cases, by competent bilinguals who gain their experience by practice. Ghazi (2008) states that those who practise translation are part of this chaotic scene; there are no professional associations that regulate the practice of the profession and impose quality standards. Most translators do not feel the need for such an organisation as they do not have the sense of belonging to a profession. They are usually freelancers who practise translation just to make a living. This state is what Tseng (as cited in Mikkelsen, 2004) describes as "market disorder";

Recipients of the service either have very little understanding of what practitioners do or very little confidence in the services they receive. It is very likely that the public simply does not care about the quality of the services. Hence, distrust and misunderstanding permeate the market. What matters more to clients, in the absence of quality control, is usually price. Whoever demands the lowest fees gets the job. [...] When the clients need services, they simply call upon anyone who is around and asking a reasonable fee. Clients who demand quality services are usually troubled by the fact that they do not know where to get qualified practitioners for services.

1.1.2 Translator and interpreter education and training in Yemen

Human development reports indicate that the state of translation in the Arab world in general is poor (al-Khaleej, 2010), and Yemen is absolutely no exception. The chaotic state of the translation market has pushed quality out of the scope of competition, and thus practitioners are discouraged from getting training to improve the quality of their job. Therefore, there are almost no sound training programmes that provide the market with qualified translators and interpreters (Ghazi, 2008). For a long time, translation field used to be considered a branch of applied linguistics. English Literature and English Educa-

tion programmes used to offer one or two translation courses. In 1994, the University of Science and Technology (UST) opened the first English and Translation programme, and two years later, Sana'a University (SU) opened a similar programme in the School of Languages.

The scene of interpreter education and training (IE&T), in particular, is somehow different. Though both translation and interpreting require the ability to transfer a text expressed in one language into another, in performance, the two processes of translation and interpreting respectively draw upon fundamentally different aptitudes and skills. In Yemen, however, interpreting is not yet considered an independent discipline, and those who study and practise translation are normally expected to face no problems tackling interpreting assignments. Seleskovitch (1978, p. 4) explains that, in such context, "there is a tendency to see merely its [interpreting] linguistic side and to view it as just a kind of verbal transfer process." Hence, translation programmes normally include one or two introductory courses on interpreting assuming that these courses would suffice to qualify students to practise interpreting since they have already developed translation skills. Perhaps this justifies the absence of accreditation for interpreters, interpreting service providers, and IE&T programmes.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

There are some universities in Yemen that run translation programmes (TPs) such as University of Science and Technology (UST) and Sana'a University (SU). The aim of these programmes is to place qualified translators in the market. As for IE&T, there are no programmes designed especially for producing interpreters. It is observed that the existing TPs offer a few interpreting courses for the purpose of introducing students to the skill and giving them some practice. The graduates of these programmes normally work as language teachers in schools or language institutes. Very few of them work as freelance translators, and very rarely take interpreting assignments. Ghazi (2008) points out that the graduates of these programmes in general are not well-qualified to handle translation

tasks, so they do not play any role in controlling the market or imposing quality standards. It is interesting to mention that it is very often in the case of international conventions to look for translators and interpreters from outside Yemen.

Translation programmes in Yemen have been revised and modified several times (Ghazi, 2008) which reflects the awareness of graduates unsatisfying performance and the need for improvement. However, this task is performed in an arbitrary and unsystematic manner. The introduced modifications do not depend on research findings or a study of the curriculum model of successful training programmes. Most translators and interpreters are not well-qualified both in academic and professional terms. Therefore, the revising of translation programmes is done by unspecialised people who depend on their personal experience as instructors or translators. Interpreting courses have received no significant modifications in number or content.

Translation research in Yemen is very scarce. With the exception of a few studies on translator training like al-Saker's (2010), and translation problems and difficulties such as Modhafar's (2006), other studies tackle comparative and contrastive linguistics issues rather than translation topics such as research done by al-Shihari (2001), al-Abbasi (2006), Barakat (2006), and al-Osaimi (2009). If systematic research in interpreting is considered relatively young in the West (Shaw, Grbic & Franklin, 2004, p.73), it has not been born in Yemen yet. Interpreting field is still absolutely unexplored which dictates the necessity for taking the first step and conducting systematic research within the Yemeni context. Nevertheless, this cannot be achieved without having a clear idea about interpreting scene in the country and a broad understanding of all its constituents including the education and training part.

The International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) has set a number of features for ideal interpreter training programmes. The recommendations of AIIC (2000) include the level and duration of the programme, curriculum components, instructors' qualifications, selection of students, and assessment (see Section 2.7.1.1). These recommendations can be a good reference to launch an investigation into the state IE&T in

Yemen. On the other hand, Gile (2005, p.127) does not support the idea of a “universal model”;

In spite of the ever-increasing volume of research on interpreting [...] there is too little evidence that would make it possible to determine that any combination of concepts and methods in a set programme is better than others in absolute terms or even in particular environments. [...] There is too much variability in environmental parameters, including admission conditions, the students’ age, previous academic experience, mastery of their future working languages, class size, instructor qualification, access to a multilingual environment outside the programme, academic requirements at the local institution, etc. Such variability suggests that when optimising a syllabus, adapting to environmental constraints may be more important than attempting to comply with a standard model.

It follows that any act of revision or modification of interpreter training programmes should be based on thorough understanding of the environmental variables involved. What is best for one environment is not necessarily recommended for another.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study in hand, being the first of its kind in the Yemeni context, is exploratory in nature. The overall purpose of this study is to provide a comprehensive description of interpreter education and training (IE&T) scenario in Yemen. This broad aim is fulfilled by conducting a case study that investigates the state of IE&T at the University of Science and Technology (UST). Data is collected from relevant parties including students, instructors, and coordinators using triangulation method. This investigation covers the fundamental issues in IE&T which are curriculum, teaching, and assessment, and is carried out against the background of relevant literature, established training programmes, and within the nature of the Yemeni environment. The case study seeks to fulfil the following general and specific objectives:

1. Building a profile of parties involved in interpreter education and training by constructing a profile of

- (a) interpreting students and finding out their interest in interpreting.
 - (b) interpreting instructors and studying the scope of their job.
2. Describing interpreting curriculum by means of
 - (a) studying the curriculum model of translation programme in general.
 - (b) reviewing the syllabus of interpreting courses.
 - (c) exploring teaching and learning practices in interpreting classes.
 - (d) identifying assessment procedures followed in interpreting courses.
 3. Identifying strengths and weaknesses of interpreter education and training.
 4. Detecting key problems and constraints of interpreter education and training.
 5. Proposing suggestions for changes and improvements.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the research objectives provided earlier, this study attempts to address the following research questions:

1. What is the profile of parties involved in interpreter education and training at UST?
2. What is the curriculum of interpreter education and training offered at UST?
3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of interpreter education and training?
4. What are the problems and constraints of interpreter education and training?
5. What changes and modifications need to be introduced to improve the state of interpreter education and training?

1.5 Significance of the Study

It is useful to start this section by highlighting the impact of research on IE&T in order to account for the choice of research topic. A vast amount of research has been devoted to interpreter training over the past 45 years (Gile, 2005, p. 127). Most interpreting

literature is a descriptive or prescriptive representation of instructors' personal experience (Pöchhacker 2004, 177). The impact of this large amount of literature on IE&T is doubted since many instructors tend to stick to their personal, often traditional, practices rather than refining them based on research findings. However, it seems that this situation has been changing in the last few years. This could be attributed mainly to the on-going academisation of IE&T that has led to producing many master and doctoral theses in IE&T (Gile 1995, p.239; Pöchhacker 2010, p.5). Research and IE&T are strongly integrated, and even if didactic issues are not directly addressed, basic research can have significant contribution to the training of interpreters;

This kind of 'basic research' is a way - and, ideally, a particularly reliable way - of broadening our knowledge of interpreting beyond the professional expertise that individual interpreting instructors are expected to bring to their task. Research in this sense provides knowledge that is relevant for teaching and learning in the interpreting classroom (and beyond). (Pöchhacker, 2010, p.2)

And while most instructors prefer to depend on their rich professional experience which is greatly valued, the opportunity of interpreter educators to apply research to their teaching and assessment practices is often limited by the lack of relevant or solid findings (Pöchhacker, 2010, p.6).

According to Gile (2001a) and Setton (2010), Interpreting Research (IR) has yet to yield conclusive findings that would contribute to promoting professional practice mainly due to the lack of scientific methodological rigour. Moreover, interpreters do not directly apply IR tentative feedback to their work. Setton (2010, p. 1) emphasises the significance of IE&T as the medium through which IR discoveries and applications can feed back interpreting practice. He states that

[Interpreting Research] has helped to conceptualise and model interpreting to pedagogical effect [...], therefore, the most direct route for interpreting research and theory to benefit professional practice is still through training, initial or remedial.(p.1)

In Yemen, the translation market in general and interpreting in particular is chaotic. The field lacks in admission procedures and quality standards. Most service providers do not have education or training in translation or interpreting, and the products of available training programmes are unable to have positive impact on the scene (Ghazi, 2008). This situation dictates the need for conducting systematic research that addresses both educational and professional issues in the field of translation and interpreting for the purpose of detecting problems and suggesting solutions.

This study is a detailed investigation of IE&T in Yemen which is only one aspect of interpreting scenario. It aims to draw a complete picture of the current state of IE&T and provide the knowledge necessary for the act of revision and improvement of existing programmes. It is hoped that this study would form sound and objective basis for any future launching or revising and updating of IE&T programmes instead of the rather arbitrary and subjective endeavours.

The significance of the present study stems also from the fact that it is the first one conducted in Yemen in the area of interpreting. As studies on interpreting are scarce, if they exist at all, it is hoped that this research would be the starting point for interpreting research, and encourage other scholars to investigate other issues in the interpreting field which is still absolutely unexplored.

Education and training play a significant role in the professionalisation of an occupation (Ibrahim-González, 2010, p. 103; Mikkelson, 2013; Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 166). Pöchhacker states that “for a practice or occupation to be acknowledged as a profession, it must be perceived to rest on a complex body of knowledge and skills, mastery of which can only be required by specialised training” (p.166). By the same token, Mikkelson (2013, p. 67) notes that “scholars agree that one of the hallmarks of a profession is an accepted body of knowledge that is imparted to aspirants through recognised academic programmes adhering to a standard curriculum.” Hence, supplying the market with qualified interpreters would result in imposing quality standards and raising awareness of the need for training. In a chaotic market like the Yemeni market, priority should be given to improving

the state of IE&T that would lead to more qualified interpreters offering high quality service. The significance of this study can be evaluated by considering its contribution to the professionalisation of interpreting practice in Yemen.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The present study addresses interpreting scene from the perspective of the education and training of interpreters want-to-be. Other issues relevant to interpreting practice and profession such as professional standards, working conditions, and role of interpreter which are part of interpreting scene are beyond the scope of this study.

Gile (1995, p. 3; 2009, p. 7), Healey (as quoted in Gile, 1995, p. 3; 2009, p. 7), Mackintosh (1999), AIIC (2010a), and Pöchhacker (2010, p. 2) agree that interpreting competence, standards and ethics of practice should be acquired and developed through ‘formal’ training. The European Language Council’s Thematic Network (TNP) on translation and interpreting recommends that translator and interpreter training be recognised only as a university degree course with the academic underpinnings and research activities traditionally connected to such courses (Niska 2005, p.47). Hence, while there are some institutes and centres that provide interpreter training courses, this study is concerned with IE&T offered only at university level.

The study in hand carries out an in-depth investigation of IE&T offered at UST which is a pioneer in offering translator and interpreter training in Yemen. Translation programmes found in other universities are not dealt with in this study as it is more useful for in-depth investigations to be selective particularly if we consider that TPs in most of these universities are fairly recent. Moreover, these programmes offer almost the same interpreting courses which are usually imparted by the same instructors. This research strategy is adopted by Sawyer (2001) who states that it is essential to “concentrate on one programme of instruction if meaningful results are to be obtained” (p. 30). This research seeks to give an account of IE&T in Yemen by conducting a case study (see Section 3.1)

as the selected university suffice to represent IE&T scenario in Yemen. Priority is given to investigate in detail most prominent issues relevant to IE&T over extent of coverage.

Exploring the interpreting part of TP at UST cannot be done in isolation from the other components of the programme. Therefore, the structure and components of TP in general are studied in order to get a full view of the scene. This would help to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses, and propose necessary modifications. It is also important to note here that the study's focus is on IE&T in general which means focusing on the existing training modes including consecutive, simultaneous, and sight translation in different settings such as conference and community interpreting.

As this research is an exploratory one, it attempts to address research questions by employing the possible means and sources. Data is collected from different sources using triangulation method (see Section 3.2). Since interpreting is not yet considered an independent discipline, there are not many interpreting instructors, and therefore instructors' sample includes current and former interpreting instructors.

1.7 Operational Definitions

This section defines the key terms used throughout this study which are interpreting, education, and training.

Interpreting: Munday (2009, p. 200) states that interpreting is sometimes loosely described as oral translation of speech. Weber (1984, p. 3) defines interpreting as “the oral transposition of an orally delivered message at a conference or a meeting from a source language into a target language, performed in the presence of participants.” Kade (as cited in Munday, 2009, p. 200) proposes a more precise definition of the term. He sees interpreting as a form of translation in which (1) the source-language text is presented only once and cannot be reviewed or replayed, and (2) the target-language text is produced under time pressure, with little chance for correction or revision.

From the professional perspective, Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002, p. 3) explain that interpreting has been practised since ancient times, and has gained recognition as a

profession only in the course of the twentieth century. Therefore, a comprehensive definition of interpreting cannot be confined to its professionalised forms and, at the same time, cannot overlook any of the modes or settings in which it is practised. They suggest to broadly define interpreting as “interlingual, intercultural oral or signed mediation, enabling communication between individuals or groups who do not share, or do not choose to use, the same language(s).”

Pöchhacker (2004, p. 11) adopts Kade’s criteria and proposes a definition that emphasises the immediacy of the act of processing and substitutes the expression ‘text’ with ‘utterance’ as the former is more relevant to translation. He defines interpreting as “a form of translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language.”

This study is concerned with the education and training issue, and it adopts Pöchhacker’s definition (2004, p. 11) as it addresses the essence of the interpreting act and clearly distinguishes it from translation.

Education and training: Education and training are two facets of learning and though they are related, there are some differences between them. Education is about gaining knowledge and developing intellect, whereas training is undertaken for the purpose of gaining a specific skill, manual or mental. While education increases employment chances, the aim of education, unlike training, is not to get a job. Education is a life-long process, while training is confined to a specified period of time.

Buckley and Caple (2004, pp. 5-6) define ‘education’ as a process and a series of activities which aim at enabling an individual to assimilate and develop knowledge, skills, values, and understanding that are not simply related to a narrow field of activity, but allow a broad range of problems to be defined, analysed, and solved. On the other hand ‘training’ is a planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skill, or attitude through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he or she can perform adequately a given task or job.

While these two terms may seem similar and even interchangeable, Kenny & Reid (as cited in Buckley & Caple, 2004, p.6-7) identify differences between education and training with respect to process, orientation, method, content, and degree of precision involved. Despite these differences, these two terms are very closely related;

The ability of an individual to acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes in a training context may depend directly or indirectly on the quality of previous educational experiences. In a similar way, education may be influenced by the skills which an individual has acquired through training and can bring to bear to exploit new learning situations. (p.8)

Most translation and interpreting scholars adopt both terms of ‘interpreter training’ and ‘interpreter education’ (Ibrahim-González, 2008, p. 57). However, according to Ibrahim-González (2010, p. 105), ‘interpreter education’ appropriately applies to translation and interpreting programmes at undergraduate or postgraduate level, while ‘interpreter training’ applies to short courses for practising interpreters. Sawyer (2004, p.77) distinguishes “practical skills training” from the “scholarly acquisition of abstract knowledge.” Similarly, for Pöchhacker (2013, p. 53), ‘training’ means that students learn what they will be doing as practising professionals, while ‘education’ refers to acquiring knowledge about what they are doing. According to Pöchhacker (2010, p.1), ‘education’ was hardly used in spoken-language interpreting circles before it appeared so prominently in the title of Sawyer’s book (2004). This study adopts Sawyer’s distinction between the theoretical aspect of interpreting (education) and the practical part (training), and deals with education and training as two strings that together produce one melody. In the Yemeni context, interpreting is viewed only as a skill that requires practice and training. The theoretical component is overlooked even by instructors. Therefore, the term interpreter education and training (IE&T) is used throughout this study to emphasise that producing qualified interpreters necessitates to focus on the academic, theoretical and practical aspects of interpreting.

1.8 Chapters Outline

This study falls in five chapters: Chapter 1 provides research background and presents statement of the problem, objectives, and research questions. It includes the significance of the study, scope and limitations, definition of key terms, and chapters outline. Chapter 2 is a review of literature on IE&T to give the theoretical framework of the study. It covers basic concepts and distinctions in interpreting, the development of interpreting studies with particular reference to research in the area of IE&T, the recent developments in most prominent issues in IE&T including curriculum, teaching and assessment, and the training standards of leading interpreter training programmes. Chapter 3 describes the overall research design and the mixed methods approach selected for carrying out the study. It gives an account of study participants, data collection methods, and sheds light on data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 is the empirical part of the study. It provides the analysis and discussion of data generated by document review, observation, questionnaires, and interviews, and reports the findings of the study. Chapter 5 provides research summary and concludes this study with recommendations for improving the state of IE&T in Yemen and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

2.0 Preview

The aim of this chapter is to describe the interdisciplinary approach the study adopts. Theories and concepts are borrowed from the field of education in order to create a theoretical framework for the study and to provide useful guidelines for data collection and analysis. In addition, the standards of some established training programmes act as a backdrop against which the analysis and description of interpreter education and training (IE&T) in Yemen is carried out. The chapter starts by explaining basic concepts and distinctions in interpreting, and giving a brief account of the development of interpreting studies with particular reference to research in the area of IE&T. Then it moves on to discuss curriculum principles including foundations, approaches, and guidelines, and relates them to the field of interpreting. Interpreter education and training curriculum models and the different stages of teaching are also described. A section is dedicated for explaining basic assessment concepts and applying them to the assessment of interpreting students. The last part gives an account of leading interpreter training programmes.

2.1 Basic Concepts and Distinctions in Interpreting

Before reviewing literature on interpreter training, it is useful to start by making some necessary distinctions regarding interpreting typology. This is a crucial step in order to know what interpreting is about, and what it consists of particularly in an exploratory study like the one in hand. This section describes interpreting typologies proposed by Alexieva (2002), Pöchhacker (2004), and Mikkelsen (2010). There are other typologies proposed by Phelan (2001), Salevsky (as cited in Alexieva, 2002, pp. 219-220), Lambert

(2004), and Gile (2005), but they are not presented here as they are of limited scope and are included in the comprehensive typologies discussed in the following subsections.

2.1.1 Typology by Alexieva

Alexieva (2002) proposes a “multiparameter” approach - instead of the traditional categories of interpreting based on single parameters- as it helps to account for the greater variety of interpreter mediated events (IME) that take place today. These events are not clear cut categories, and therefore it is more productive to treat them as “families” with central members (prototypes) and peripheral members (blend-forms) being identified on the basis of their position on a continuum (pp.220-221).

Alexieva identifies six parameters that shape the typology of IME (pp. 222-230): (1) mode of delivery and production, (2) participants in interpreter-mediated events, (3) the topic of an interpreter-mediated event, (4) text type and text building strategies, (5) spatial and temporal constraints, and (6) the goal of an interpreter-mediated event. By virtue of this multiparameter approach, interpreter-mediated events can be placed along a continuum of “universality” vs. “culture-specificity” using a number of scales:

1. “Distance” vs. “proximity” (between speaker, addressee and interpreter);
2. “Non-involvement” vs. “involvement” (of the speaker as text entity);
3. “Equality/solidarity” vs. “non-equality/power” (related to status, role, and gender of speaker and addressee, as well as the interpreter in some cases);
4. “Formal setting” vs. “informal setting” (related to number of participants, degree of privacy, and distance from home country);
5. “Literacy” vs. “orality”;
6. “Cooperativeness/directness” vs. “non-cooperativeness/indirectness” (relevant to negotiation strategies);
7. “Shared goals” vs. “conflicting goals”.

2.1.2 Typology by Pöchhacker

Pöchhacker (2004) provides a comprehensive typology based on social settings, constellations of interaction, and typology parameters. This section gives a brief account of this typology.

2.1.2.1 Social settings

In terms of social contexts, interpreting may take place at inter-social or intra-social levels. The first type is practised between societies speaking different languages for business purposes in the form of liaison interpreting. Inter-social interpreting is practised for political purposes whether to establish and cultivate political relations (diplomatic interpreting) or, at times of conflict and friction, to hold talks with allies and truce negotiations or interrogate prisoners (military interpreting). Intra-social interpreting takes place between members of a multi-ethnic society as in the case of court interpreting. As societies became increasingly comprehensive and complex, the need for interpreters services emerged to enable communication between “heterolingual” segments of multi-ethnic societies, and to secure equal access to public services. A good example for this community-based interpreting is sign language interpreting in educational settings (educational interpreting). Other types address other intra-social communication needs as in the case of healthcare, legal, and media interpreting (pp. 13-16).

2.1.2.2 Situational constellations

The difference here is made between bilateral and multilateral interpreting. In bilateral or dialogue interpreting there is a three-party interaction where the interpreter plays a mediating role between two monolingual clients as in the case of community interpreting, whereas multilateral interpreting takes place in multilateral communications as in conferences attended by delegates and representatives of various nations and institutions. Pöchhacker (2004, p. 16) identifies interpreting for international conferences and organisations as the most prominent manifestation of interpreting, and states that conference

interpreting has spread far beyond multilateral diplomacy to virtually any field of activity involving coordination and exchange across linguistic boundaries within a particular format of interaction.

2.1.2.3 Typological parameters

In addition to interpreting types based on social context and constellations of interaction, Pöchhacker (2004, pp.17-23) makes more systematic distinctions based on “clear cut criteria” including language modality, working mode, directionality, use of technology, and professional status.

1. Language modality. Under language modality two types are identified: spoken language and signed (or visual) language interpreting which refers to interpreting for the deaf.
2. Working mode. With this parameter, distinction is made between two main modes: Consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. In the consecutive mode, interpreting takes place after the source language utterance which ranges from one word (short consecutive) to entire speeches that usually involve note-taking (classic consecutive). The simultaneous mode means that interpreting is taking place as the source language text is being presented with the use of simultaneous interpreting equipment in sound-proof booth. In addition to these two major working modes, there are also other modes:
 - (a) Simultaneous consecutive which is the simultaneous transmission of two or more consecutive renditions in different output languages.
 - (b) Consecutive simultaneous mode where source speech is recorded, replayed into a headset, and rendered in the simultaneous mode.
 - (c) Whispered interpreting (*chuchotage*) where the interpreter provides renditions in a low voice to one or two listeners right next to him/her.

- (d) Simultaneous interpreting with text where the interpreter has a copy of the source text which is given via acoustic channels. This is a more complex and challenging mode as speakers may not stick to written texts and make some deviations or omissions.
 - (e) Sight translation where a written text is rendered at sight. Target text production is simultaneous with not the delivery of the source text but with the interpreter's real time reception of the written source text.
 - (f) Signing (voice-to-sign, sign-to-sign, text-to-sign) which is feasible in the simultaneous mode without special equipment. However, in the case of sign-to-voice, the use of simultaneous interpreting equipment is a must if the source text needs to be interpreted into several spoken languages in order to separate output channels.
3. Directionality. Based on this parameter, Pöchhacker (2004, pp. 20-21) discusses bilateral, retour, and relay interpreting. In bilateral interpreting the interpreter works in both directions, i.e. back and forth between the two languages involved. This type is associated with dialogue interpreting and liaison interpreting. It can also take place in conference booth when interpreters interpret questions and comments back into the language on the floor. Interpreting from interpreter's native language into his/her non-native language(s) is known as retour or return interpreting. Relay interpreting is indirect interpreting via a third language, which links up the performance of two (or more) interpreters with one interpreter's output serving as the source for another.
4. Use of technology. Pöchhacker (2004, pp.21-22) identifies technology-driven forms of interpreting that serve to overcome spatial distances when the interpreter is not in the same room as the speaker or listener or both (remote interpreting):
- (a) Telephone interpreting or over the phone interpreting which is common in intra- social settings.

- (b) Videophone interpreting for the deaf or hard-hearing community.
- (c) Audio-visual remote interpreting and tele-interpreting used in international and multilateral conferences.

In addition, there are attempts to develop automatic interpreting systems on the basis of machine translation software and speech recognition and synthesis technologies, but the possibility of high-quality machine interpreting does not seem to be in the near future.

5. Professional status. Based on interpreter's level of skills and expertise, a distinction is made between natural or lay interpreting performed by bilinguals who receive no training and depend on their linguistic competence and personal experience, and professional interpreting represented by interpreters who are formally trained for the job in order to develop necessary skills and knowledge (Pöchhacker, 2004, pp.22-23).

2.1.3 Typology by Mikkelson

Mikkelson (2010) describes interpreting categories most frequently encountered in interpreting practice. These categories focus on mode, setting, and subject matter of the interpreter mediated event:

1. Mode of delivery
 - (a) Consecutive interpreting where the interpreter waits until the speaker stops before he starts interpreting.
 - (b) Simultaneous interpreting where target language message is produced at roughly the same time as the source message is being produced.
 - (c) Whisper (*chuchotage*) when equipment for simultaneous interpreting is not available, the interpreter whispers the rendition of the source speech into the ear of one or two people who require interpreting services.

2. Setting of the interpreted event

- (a) Conference interpreting, usually associated with simultaneous mode.
- (b) Community interpreting, which enables people who are not fluent speakers of official language(s) of the country to communicate with providers of public service like health and education.
- (c) Escort interpreting, represented in interpreting services provided for government officials, investors, observers, and the like who are conducting on-site visits, and usually performed in consecutive mode.
- (d) Seminar interpreting, in meetings and small conferences.
- (e) Court interpreting, in legal settings such as a courtroom or an attorney's office.
- (f) Media interpreting, at press conferences, publicity appearances, interviews, videoconferences, television, and radio programmes.
- (g) Over the phone interpreting, in which the interpreter, listener, and speaker do not share the same physical location.

3. Subject matter

- (a) Legal interpreting, which takes place in legal settings such as court room wherein some proceeding or activity related to law is conducted.
- (b) Business interpreting, also known as commercial or trade interpreting and usually associated with bilateral or dialogue interpreting.
- (c) Educational interpreting, where sign language interpreters work for students who cannot understand the language of instruction, or between teachers and parents.
- (d) Medical, also known as healthcare or hospital interpreting.

According to Mikkelson (2010), interpreters perform the same service regardless of mode, setting, or subject matter, but there are external factors that lead to the tremendous disparity in interpreters status and working conditions. These factors include the following:

1. The status of the languages involved in an interpreter-mediated event.
2. The multilingual or bilingual environment of an interpreter-mediated event and whether the interpreter is expected to interpret bi-directionally or unidirectionally.
3. The degree of interpreter preparation required and allowed for an interpreter-mediated event.
4. The criteria for being selected as an interpreter for a given interpreter-mediated event.
5. The job market for interpreters in the location of the interpreter-mediated event.
6. The degree to which interpreters are organised and regulated in the location of the interpreter-mediated event.

Pöchhacker's typological framework is the most comprehensive to date, and it well-covers the complexity of interpreting. It coincides with the other two typologies in some points such as some interpreting settings, formats of interaction, and subject matter. This study makes use of the typologies provided by Pöchhacker and Mikkelsen as they are more direct and coherent which is useful for education and training purposes.

2.2 The Establishment and Development of Interpreting Studies

This part gives a brief account of the evolution and development of interpreting studies as discussed by Gile (2001a), Phelan (2001), Pöchhacker (2004, 2008, 2009a, 2009b), and Pöchhacker and Schlesinger (2002). While such topic cannot be covered in a few paragraphs, the aim here is to highlight milestones in the development of research on interpreting from a subcategory of Translation Studies (TS) on to the growth and consolidation of Interpreting Studies (IS).

Interpreting has been practised since ancient times, but its recognition as a profession and a subject to be studied is relatively recent. The beginning of conference interpreting dates back to the early twenties of the last millennium at the Paris Peace Conference in

1919 which marked the beginning of conference interpreting. At that time, consecutive interpreting was the order of the day. However, the boom in conference interpreting started at the Nuremberg Trials between 1945 and 1946 with the invention of efficient simultaneous interpreting equipment. Simultaneous interpreting gained more attention and prestige when it began to be used by the United Nations and the European institutions (Phelan, 2001, p. 2).

The first generation of interpreters had no training, and they were self-taught. They were competent bilinguals who gained experience by practising interpreting. As communication needs in international politics and trade expanded, universities started to offer systematic interpreter training such as the universities of Geneva (1940), Vienna (1943), and Georgetown (1949). The academisation of interpreting continued with the establishment of more interpreting schools: *École Supérieure d'Interprètes et de Traducteurs* (ESIT) (1957), Westminster (1965), and Monterey Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting (1968) which helped interpreters attain professional status. The International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) was set up in 1953 to secure better working conditions for interpreters and regulate the exercise of the profession on an international scale.

Although interpreting became a profession in the early twentieth century, it took considerable time before its recognition as an object of study (Pöchhacker, 2009b, p. 129). The first writings on interpreting like Herbert's manual (1958) were merely reflections of interpreters personal experience more than real research on what interpreting is and what interpreters do. The first generation of interpreters felt the necessity to write about their job to pass their experience to the next generation. However, the establishment of university level interpreter training programmes in the early seventies laid the academic foundations for interpreting and resulted in dramatic growth in the production of interpreting research. As research is an integrated part of university education, academics began to do research in interpreting. Many interpreting students completed their graduation theses on interpreting issues. Moreover, interpreting was recognised as a subject worthy of doctoral research

which resulted in the production of a number of PhD theses (e.g. Danica Seleskovitch, Ingrid Kurz, Karla Déjean Le Féal, and Marianne Lederer) which contributed to the development of interpreting studies as an academic discipline (Gile, 2001a; Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 31, 2009b, p. 130).

The first research on interpreting in the late 1960s was influenced by psychology as simultaneous interpreting tempted researchers to investigate the cognitive processes involved, particularly the ear-voice span. Research was conducted by experimental psychologists, like David Gerver, and was based on the theory and methodological tools of psychology. In the early 1970s, Danica Seleskovitch succeeded in establishing a doctoral studies programme at the ESIT. Research work of ESIT was not influenced by other disciplines, rather it was built upon Seleskovitch “interpretive theory” or *theorie du sens* which emphasised that interpreting process is based on understanding of the message or the “sense” in the source language and not simply the words. This theory has highly influenced the training scene and Seleskovitch and Lederer’s monograph (1995) which was built upon several hours of consecutive and simultaneous classes and practice sessions represents a systematic approach to interpreter training.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the next generation of interpreters like Daniel Gile, Laura Gran, Ingrid Kurz, Jennifer Mackintosh, and Barbara Moser-Mercer realised the need for new venues of research and more interdisciplinary approach (Gile, 2001a; Pöchhacker, 2009b, p. 130). They were interested in studying cognitive processes and exploring what happens in the brain while a subject is interpreting. Interpreters attempted to explore the high cognitive load generated by the simultaneity of source text comprehension and target text production. Cognitive processing was the heart of Gile’s Effort Models (1995, 2009) which he used to explain basic efforts involved in the act of simultaneous interpreting: listening and analysis, production, memory, and coordination between concurrent mental processes. Gile (1995, 2002, 2009) explains that these processes compete for little attentional resources and lead to performance problems particularly in the case of poor attention management skills. A related focus was strategies for coping with