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ISSN 0929-7316

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Volume 135

Explicitation in Consecutive Interpreting
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Explicitation in Consecutive Interpreting

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John Benjamins Publishing Company

Amsterdam / Philadelphia

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Acknowledgements

My deepest gratitude goes first to my supervisors Dr. Li Dechao, Dr. Wang Binhua and Prof. Chu Chiyu, who taught me to think critically and present my arguments clearly.

Thanks also go to Prof. José Lambert and Prof. Miriam Shlesinger, who encouraged me to apply for the CETRA research summer school. It is this platform that enables me to discuss my research project with Prof. Franz Pöchhacker, Prof. Christina Schäffner, Prof. Yves Gambier, Prof. Dirk Delabastita, Ms. Jiang Hong and every other teaching staff and participant there. The many meetings I have had with them individually and together have been the most valuable learning experience I ever had.

A special note of appreciation goes to Prof. Wang Kefei, Prof. Qin Hongwu, Prof. Zhang Wei, Prof. Sun Yifeng, Prof. Huang Libo, Prof. Zhong Weihe, Prof. Mu Lei and Prof. Rachel Lung for their warm encouragement and precious support. In addition, I thank Dr. Wang Weiwei, Prof. Zhang Daozhen, Dr. Wang Yunhong, Dr. Wei Rining, Dr. Zou Bing and Dr. Yu Jing for their ever-gracious sharing and all the subjects for making the data collection possible.

Finally, gratitude for the personal support from my beloved family through the years of my academic pursuit can never be fully expressed. My only wish is that what I have accomplished is worthy of their devotion.

List of abbreviations

Forms of Explicitation

EE1: modifier-based explicitation
EE2: process-based explicitation
EE3: circumstance-based explicitation
EE4: participant-based explicitation
IE1: engagement-based explicitation
IE2: attitude-based explicitation
IE3: graduation-based explicitation
TE1: reference-based explicitation
TE2: ellipsis-based explicitation
TE3: conjunction-based explicitation

Motivations for Explicitation

M1: for time management
M2: for gap-filling
M3: for clarifying
M4: for reinforcing
M5: related to notes
    M51: related to the explicitated symbols on the notes
    M52: related to the layout of the notes
    M53: related to the misinterpretation of notes
    M54: related to the symbols written down upon misunderstanding the original message

Others

CI: consecutive interpreting
SI: simultaneous interpreting
CEP: professional group in C-E CI
CES: student group in C-E CI
ECP: professional group in E-C CI
ECS: student group in E-C CI
SL: source language
TL: target language
ST: source text
LT: literal translation
TT: target text
Add: addition
Sub: substitution
Avg.: average
T: total
P: professional interpreter
S: student interpreter

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Transcription key

\<p\>:	pause
\<uh\>:	stammer/hesitation
~:	vowel/consonant lengthening
EE1M1:	modifier-based explicitation for time management
EE1M2:	modifier-based explicitation for gap-filling
EE1M3:	modifier-based explicitation for clarifying
EE2M1:	process-based explicitation for time management
EE2M2:	process-based explicitation for gap-filling
EE2M3:	process-based explicitation for clarifying
EE3M1:	circumstance-based explicitation for time management
EE3M2:	circumstance-based explicitation for gap-filling
EE3M3:	circumstance-based explicitation for clarifying
EE4M1:	participant-based explicitation for time management
EE4M2:	participant-based explicitation for gap-filling
EE4M3:	participant-based explicitation for clarifying
IE1M1:	engagement-based explicitation for time management
IE1M2:	engagement-based explicitation for gap-filling
IE1M4:	engagement-based explicitation for reinforcing
IE2M1:	attitude-based explicitation for time management
IE2M2:	attitude-based explicitation for gap-filling
IE2M4:	attitude-based explicitation for reinforcing
IE3M1:	graduation-based explicitation for time management
IE3M2:	graduation-based explicitation for gap-filling
IE3M4:	graduation-based explicitation for reinforcing
TE1M1:	reference-based explicitation for time management
TE1M2:	reference-based explicitation for gap-filling
TE1M3:	reference-based explicitation for clarifying
TE2M1:	ellipsis-based explicitation for time management
TE2M2:	ellipsis-based explicitation for gap-filling
TE2M3:	ellipsis-based explicitation for clarifying
TE2M4:	ellipsis-based explicitation for reinforcing
TE3M1:	conjunction-based explicitation for time management
TE3M2:	conjunction-based explicitation for gap-filling
TE3M3:	conjunction-based explicitation for clarifying

Introduction

In this chapter, the justifications and motivations for studying explicitation in consecutive interpreting (hereinafter referred to as CI) through a comparison between professional and student interpreters and between interpreting from Chinese[1] to English and from English to Chinese are presented, followed by the research questions and the structure of the volume.

1.1 Justifications and motivations for the present research

1.1.1 The rationale for studying explicitation in interpreting

The term "explicitation" was first defined by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 342) as "a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation". A large number of studies have been carried out to investigate explicitations in translation. In addition, quite a number of corpus-based translation studies have tried to identify explicitation as one of the Translation Universals. Are these findings also applicable to interpreting? It is known that interpreting is an extraordinarily complex cognitive activity, which requires an interpreter to deal with several tasks in quick succession, including listening to what the speaker says, storing the message in their mind and notes, listening to the speaker's next segment of message, retrieving the previously stored message, expressing it in another language and monitoring the output. If we take into consideration the heavy cognitive load and time pressure interpreters experience while conducting this multitasking job, it seems that it is not easy for interpreters to make extra effort to explicitate any information. However, previous studies have revealed that explicitation not only exists in interpreting but also is a strategy that interpreters adopt frequently (Niska 1999; Ishikawa 1999; Gumul 2006a, 2006b, 2008; Xue 2007; Zhang 2009; Hu & Tao 2009; Tang & Li 2013, 2016 & 2017). Why do interpreters make extra effort in adding new information while it has already been quite a challenge for them to encode the original message into another language? What kind of explicitations do they perform often? Is there

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1.   In this study, Chinese refers only to Putonghua.

any interpreting-inherent reasons which motivate interpreters' explicitations? This study investigates the above questions with a view to helping readers reach a clear perception of the features of explicitation in interpreting.

1.1.2 The rationale for limiting this study to consecutive interpreting

Previous studies have shown that explicitation exists in both CI and simultaneous interpreting (hereinafter referred to as SI). Also, several studies have already focused on explicitation in SI (Niska 1999; Ishikawa 1999; Gumul 2006a, 2006b, 2008). For explicitation in CI, some studies have been conducted (Xue 2007; Zhang 2009; Hu & Tao 2009). Yet, Xue's research lacks elaboration on the typology method that she adopted (see Section 2.2.3), and the research scope of the other two studies are rather limited (Zhang's research only presents a case study, while Hu & Tao only focus on explicitation of textual meaning). Therefore, this particular study attempts to fill in this gap by conducting a systematic study on explicitation in CI.

1.1.3 The rationale for making a comparison between professional and student interpreters

Intuitively, as interpreters need to work under a heavy time pressure, it seems reasonable that less experienced interpreters may tend to render information with fewer shifts because their reaction in information processing is relatively slow. But on the other hand, as interpreters' aim is usually to facilitate communication, it is also justifiable that more experienced interpreters are more likely to clarify information. This is exactly the finding in Englund Dimitrova's experiment (2003: 30), which revealed that professional translators tend to explicitate, whereas students tend not to (see Section 2.3 and 2.5). However, Levý (1965: 78) assumed that explicitation often occurs in average and bad translations. In addition, Blum-Kulka (1986/2004: 301) suggested that "the less experienced the translator, the more his or her process of interpretation of the SL might be reflected in the TL". Since there are conflicting conclusions about the relationship between translation experience and explicitation features, the present study attempts to shed some light on this controversial issue through a comparison of explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters in CI (between Chinese and English) with a view to revealing the relationship between interpreting experience and explicitation patterns.

1.1.4 The rationale for exploring explicitation patterns in both the C-E and the E-C direction[2]

Gumul (2006a) investigated explicitation and directionality in SI and found that more cases of explicitation can be identified in the Polish-English (A→B) direction than in the English-Polish (B→A) direction. Less is known about explicitation in interpreting between Chinese and English, two languages further complicated by the linguistic and cultural distances between them. Is there any lopsided distribution of explicitation between these two interpreting directions? Or is there any distinctive feature of explicitation in each interpreting direction? So far, no research has addressed this field, which prompts the need for a comparison of explicitation between the two interpreting directions in the present study.

1.2 Research questions

The above review naturally leads to the following research questions:

1. What are the characteristics of explicitation in CI?
2. How does interpreters' professional experience affect their explicitation patterns?
3. How does interpreting direction (between Chinese and English) affect interpreters' explicitation patterns?

1.3 Content and structure of the volume

This volume is comprised of 10 chapters. The first chapter is an introduction to the background of the research, including justifications and motivations for this study, as well as research questions.

The second chapter features a review of previous studies on explicitation, including discussion on the definition, typology, motivation of explicitation and the relationship between interpreting experience and explicitation. The insights gained from this review lay a foundation for this study.

In the third chapter, a typology framework and an explanatory framework of explicitation are established for further quantitative comparison. On the basis of Systemic Functional Grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), explicitations are further divided into three categories: experiential explicitation, interpersonal explicitation and textual explicitation (see Section 2.2 for more details).

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2. The "C-E" refers to Chinese-English while the "E-C" refers to English-Chinese.

The fourth chapter presents the research methods of this study, including the ways to collect, transcribe and analyse data.

Chapter 5 explores experiential explicitations in CI. Section 5.1 and 5.2 compare the experiential explicitation patterns between professional interpreters and student interpreters in C-E CI and E-C CI, respectively. Section 5.3 compares the experiential explicitation patterns between C-E CI and E-C CI.

Chapter 6 investigates interpersonal explicitations in CI. Section 6.1 and 6.2 compare the interpersonal explicitation patterns of professional interpreters and student interpreters in C-E CI and E-C CI, respectively. Section 6.3 compares the interpersonal explicitation patterns between C-E CI and E-C CI.

Chapter 7 focuses on textual explicitations in CI. Section 7.1 and 7.2 compare the textual explicitation patterns of professional interpreters and student interpreters in C-E CI and E-C CI, respectively. Section 7.3 compares the textual explicitation patterns between C-E CI and E-C CI.

Chapter 8 investigates the impact of interpreters' notes on their explicitation patterns.

Chapter 9 provides an explanation for the findings about features of explicitation in CI, the differences in the explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters in C-E CI and E-C CI and the differences in the explicitation patterns between C-E CI and E-C CI.

Chapter 10 summarises the major findings, implications and limitations of the present study. Suggestions for future research are presented at the end.

Review of studies on explicitation

Although features of explicitation in interpreting have rarely been investigated, this phenomenon, being regarded widely as one of the Translation Universals, has been frequently explored in studies on written translation. Since translation and interpreting are means of language-mediated communication, treading the terrain of explicitations in written translation may also shed light on the features of explicitation in interpreting. Hence, in this chapter, previous studies that have dealt with explicitations in both translation and interpreting are discussed. To be specific, the discussion focuses on the definition (Section 2.1), typology (Section 2.2) and motivations (Section 2.3) of explicitation; the effects of professional experience on explicitation (Section 2.4); previous hypotheses on explicitation (Section 2.5) and the effects of directionality on explicitation (Section 2.6).

2.1   Defining explicitation

Due to its pervasiveness, explicitation has received much scholarly attention in translation research. Yet, instead of devoting to the examination of the very notion of explicitation, previous studies have understood this term "in various ways, making it difficult to compare research results and describe the phenomenon in a more comprehensive way" (Murtisari 2016: 64; De Metsenaere 2016). This idea presents itself in two ways. On the one hand, many studies have tried to provide new definitions to this term. For instance, Murtisari (2013: 332) and De Metsenaere (2016) applied Relevance Theory (cf. Sperber & Wilson 1986/1995) to redefine it. Although this term has been redefined by several scholars in different ways (cf. Vinay and Darbelnet 1958/1995: 342; Weissbrod 1992: 153; Schiffrin 1994/2003: 199; Delisle, Lee-Jahnke and Cormier 1999: 139; Olohan & Baker 2000: 142; Kamenická 2007b: 55; Saldanha 2008: 32; De Metsenaere 2016), the concept explicitness, which underlies explicitation and implicitation, has failed to be satisfactorily defined (Murtisari 2014: 278). On the other hand, even for the studies that claim to follow the same definition, ways of understanding are varied. For example, the term "explicitation" was first defined by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 342) as "a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation". This definition *per se* needs further explanation: first and foremost, it does not state clearly what the phrases "making explicit" and

"remains implicit" refer to and how to judge whether the information is "apparent" or not. As Murtisari (2016: 66) emphasised, "what is explicit to one person may be perceived differently by another". In addition, it does not elaborate on the difference between "context" and "situation" (cf. Tang & Li 2013: 443; Tang & Li 2016: 236). Regardless of the vagueness of Vinay and Darbelnet's definition, quite a number of scholars have begun their exploration of explicitation based on this definition, which led to a serious consequence: some scholars believe they were investigating the same thing while in fact they have radically different notions about just what explicitation is. Hence, it is important to define explicitation clearly at the very beginning of this study. To avoid the lack of conceptual clarity, the inferential sources, features and forms of explicitation are elaborated based on a detailed review and discussion of the literature.

2.1.1   Explicitation: What should be the inferential source?

In Becher's PhD dissertation, he conducted a corpus-based study of explicitation and implicitation in translations of business texts. He realised the vagueness in previous definitions and redefined explicitness as "the verbalization of information that the addressee might be able to infer if it were not verbalized. Explicitation is observed where a given target text is more explicit than the corresponding source text" (2011: 18–19).

   To avoid unnecessary complexity, Becher (2010a: 3) did not clarify the inferential source of explicitation in his definition. However, he claimed that "it is of course legitimate and highly relevant to ask for the inferential sources that are available to the addressee". Moreover, interpreters, especially student interpreters, might add or substitute information that is deviant from the source speech due to their inadequate processing ability (Tang 2015: 58), such as being unable to understand or memorise the original information. To rule out those phenomena, the inferential sources of explicitated information are clarified in the working definition of explicitation (see Section 3.1).

   Similar to Vinay and Darbelnet's definition, Delisle, Lee-Jahnke and Cormier (1999: 139) defined explicitation as "a translation procedure where the translator introduces precise semantic details into the target text for clarifying or due to the constraints imposed by the target text that were not expressed in the source text, but which are available from contextual knowledge or the situation described in the source text". It can be noted that this definition does not specify what one of the inferential sources (the situation) refers to. In Systemic Functional Linguistics, "situation" is defined as a "contextual unit at the instance pole of the cline of instantiation viewed from the instance pole of the cline" (Matthiessen et al. 2010: 201).

In this sense, it is a concept overlapping with "context". Then, what does "context" refer to exactly?

Halliday (1999: 3–4) claimed that when we talk about "context", we should take into account not only "the wording that came before and after whatever was under attention" but also situation and culture. Halliday's understanding of "context" is based on Catford (1965: 31), who defines "co-text" as "the text which accompany the item under discussion" and "context of situation" as "those elements of the extra-textual situation which are related to the text as being linguistically relevant".

Considering the fact that interpreting often occurs in face-to-face communication and each party usually with different cultural backgrounds, it is reasonable that interpreters tend to clarify situational and cultural information so as to facilitate communication through their interpreting. The following examples may well illustrate this point:

(1)[3] ST: 温家宝总理 … 听了5节课
       LT: Premier Wen Jiabao … attended five lectures
       TT: Premier Wen Jiabao … attended five lectures **with students**.

The rendition clarifies the manner of attending the lectures (with students), which is the background information that can be inferred not from the co-text but from the situation.

(2) ST: 刘延东同志 … 发表了一篇重要讲话
     LT: Comrade Liu Yangdong … delivered an important speech
     TT: **State Councilor** Liu Yandong … delivered an important speech

The added part "State Councilor" is what the interpreter inferred from his/her knowledge about the source culture. This example illustrates that in addition to the co-text and the situation, the explicated information might be inferred from the culture.

Since the co-text, the situation and the culture can all be the inferential sources of explicitation in interpreting, the notion of "context" proposed by Halliday (1999: 3–4) is employed in the working definition of explicitation for this study. Hence, the inferential sources of the explicitated information in this study cover three aspects: "co-text", "situation" and "culture".[4]

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3. In this volume, all the numbered examples, except those indicated otherwise, are quoted from the data collected for the present study.

4. Culture, in this study, is defined as knowledge shared by a group of people through a process of socialization. It can be recalled without referring to any specific communicative occasion.

2.1.2   Explicitation: Obligatory or optional?

Pym (2005: 4) claimed that explicitation covers operations that are obligatory or optional. According to Baumgarten et al. (2008: 181–182), "optional explicitation is due to culture-specific world knowledge in the source and target language communities and differences in communicative conventions between these two communities", and obligatory explicitation is "caused by grammatical differences between the source and the target language". This corresponds with Frankenberg-Garcia's idea (2004: 1) that explicitation is voluntary if it is used for "no grammatically compelling reason". For instance, in the rendition of "two books" into "两本书", the addition of the Chinese classifier "本" is obligatory.

2.1.3   Explicitation: Conscious or subconscious?

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 342) defined explicitation as "a stylistic translation technique", and Blum-Kulka (1986/2004: 302) interpreted it as "a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation". But, they do not indicate whether this strategy or technique is conscious or subconscious, which in Becher's opinion (2010a: 8) "has led to much confusion in the literature on explicitation right from the outset". In previous studies, some researchers have regarded it as subconscious (Olohan & Baker 2000: 141), whereas others claimed it to be conscious (Øverås 1998; Englund Dimitrova 2005a: 37). As Øverås (1998: 3) pointed out, translation-inherent explicitation is the result of an operational norm, which is defined by Toury (1995: 58) as a norm "directing the decisions made during the act of translation itself". But, Becher (2010a: 12–13) challenged Øverås's conception with two features inherent in the notion of norms – "the social-cultural specificity" and their "basic instability", which indicate that, if the translation-inherent explicitation results from operational norms, it should be language-pair specific. But, this contradicts with its basic nature – being translation-inherent means that it is applicable to all language pairs. Therefore, the idea that translation-inherent explicitation is a conscious operational norm can be regarded as untenable. Furthermore, in Englund Dimitrova's experimental study (2003), where she collected both the concurrent verbalisation and computer logging of a translator's writing process, all professionals showed certainty in their process of making the implicit contrast relations explicit, whereas three of the five students revealed uncertainty, which indicates that both conscious and subconscious explicitations exist in translation.

Turning to interpreting, the word "strategy" usually emphasises the aspects of problem-solving, preventing potential problems or simply facilitating the interpreter's task (Gile 1995/2009; Kohn & Kalina 1996; Jones 1998/2008), which are all consciously made. However, given the specificity of interpreting and the heavy

cognitive load imposed on interpreters, strategic behaviour might also be subconscious or automatic. Gumul (2006b) conducted an experiment on explicitation in SI. She asked 14 subjects to do SI for two recorded authentic speeches. Then, they had to listen to the dual-track recording of their own outputs and the source text and make comments if they feel they have made an explicitation. Explicitating shifts that the subjects reported in their retrospective protocols were treated as conscious choices, whereas other explicitations found by Gumul were regarded as subconscious ones. The total number of explicitating shifts identified amounted to 802 cases. Through the analysis of both the interpreting outputs and the retrospective comments, 93.15% of those explicitating cases were subconscious while only 6.85% were conscious. Thus, the result validates the above theoretical speculations. Although there might be conscious explicitations that the subjects did not comment on and subconscious explicitations that they made comments on, Gumul's study can still demonstrate that both conscious and subconscious explicitating shifts exist in interpreting. Hence, both conscious and subconscious explicitations are investigated in this study.

2.1.4   Forms of explicitation: Addition or substitution?

Although Nida (1964/2004) did not discuss the concept of explicitation directly, his analysis of additions is in essence about explicitation. Nida (ibid. 227) proposed a list of the most common and important types of addition as follows: "(a) filling out elliptical expressions; (b) obligatory specification; (c) additions required because of grammatical restructuring; (d) amplification from implicit to explicit status; (e) answers to rhetorical questions; (f) classifiers; (g) connectives; (h) categories of the receptor language, which do not exist in the source-language and (i) doublets". He emphasises that although the above techniques may be taken as involving "additions", "there has been no actual adding to the semantic content of the message". They are "making explicit what is implicit in the source-language text. Simply changing some elements in the message from implicit to explicit status does not add to the content; it simply changes the manner in which the information is communicated" (ibid. 231). Therefore, all the above categorisations of additions can be regarded as explicitations.

Nida & Taber (1969/2004: 164) pointed out that "each message which is communicated has two basic dimensions, length and difficulty". Redundancy does not always contribute to making a translation easier to understand. They put forward the concept of "legitimate redundancy", defining it as adding only information implicit in the original to an explicit level, which can be regarded as their definition of explicitation. They emphasised "adding information not implicit in the original …

cannot be said to come within the scope of legitimate redundancy" (ibid. 165). This can be taken as the earliest contribution to the relationship between addition and explicitation, which regards "addition" as a more generic term than "explicitation". Adding information, which is not implicit in the original, is excluded from their concept of "explicitation".

Kamenická (2007a: 51) was also interested in drawing a borderline between explicitation and addition. She held that the distinction "is closely related to the concept of retrievability from context". Whether it is explicitation or addition depends on "whether the information that marks the locus of the translation shift in the TT surface structure can be retrieved from the ST context" or not. Therefore, similarly to Nida, Kamenická suggested that this kind of addition, in the case that the information added cannot be retrieved from the context, should be excluded from the scope of explicitation.

Séguinot (1988: 108) put forward three forms of explicitation: "something is expressed in the translation which was not in the original; something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation, or an element in the source text is given greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice". The first type is the same as Nida's concept of "illegitimate redundancy" and Kamenická's concept of "non-explicitation addition", which has been excluded from the scope of explicitation by them both. It seems that all kinds of additions, whether they can be inferred from the original or not, are taken as explicitation in Séguinot's view. However, Séguinot, similarly to Nida, believed that addition is a generic term of explicitation, because she suggested "explicitation should […] be reserved in translation studies for additions in a translated text which cannot be explained by structural, stylistic, or rhetorical differences between the two languages" (ibid.). This indicates that the addition caused by structural, stylistic or rhetorical differences between SL and TL does not come into the scope of Séguinot's concept of explicitation.

Séguinot claimed that explicitation should be reserved for additions, yet all the three forms she mentioned can also be realised by means of substitution. For example, *our education system* →中国的教育体系 (**China's** education system), in this explicitation case, "our" has been substituted by "中国的(China's)". So it can be inferred that in her opinion, addition can also be qualitative. The increase in the number of words (or characters in Chinese) does not necessarily mean that there has been an addition. No matter the number of words increases or not, as long as there is semantic addition, explicitation occurs. So, in Séguinot's view, substitution is mixed with addition.

All kinds of repetitions belong to quantitative additions. But, only certain repetitions involve qualitative additions. To be specific, only repetition that makes a qualitative contribution to the original information can be ranked as an explicitation.

If the repetition is just a quantitative addition without any contribution to the meaning of the original, it is excluded from the scope of explicitation in the present study.

It seems that in the above studies, explicitation is always linked with addition or substitution. To simplify matters, it is necessary to make a clear borderline between addition and substitution so as to avoid Séguinot's ambiguity. In this study, addition is used to refer only to the presence of extra information in the rendition, with all the meaning in the original maintained. Substitution means the absence of certain information in the original with make-up in the rendition. And the relationship between explicitation, addition and substitution is shown in Figure 1.
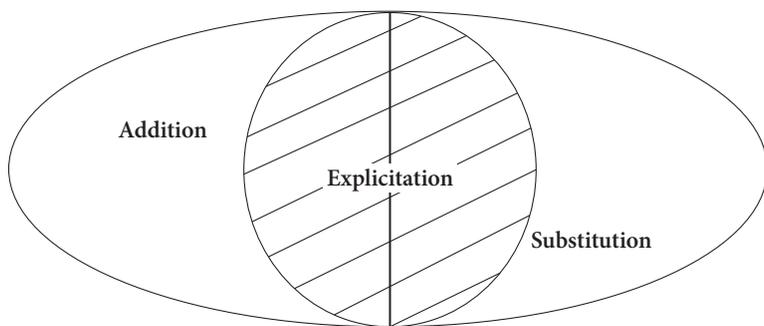
Figure 1. Relationship between explicitation, addition and substitution

In this study, explicitation excludes adding information that cannot be inferred from the context, such as the non-qualitative repetition mentioned above and the addition of irrelevant expressions like "well, you know"; explicitation also eliminates substitutions by substituting constituents of the original with words or phrases that cannot be inferred from the context, as the sentence "He loves **chrysanthemum**" being rendered into "他喜欢花 (He loves **flowers**)".

2.1.5   Explicitation: Specification or generalisation?

In her study on the subtitling translation of two Hungarian films with Italian subtitles, Perego (2003: 73) categorised explicitation into three types: cultural explicitation, channel-based explicitation and reduction-based explicitation. Each type covers two forms: addition and specification. She viewed addition as "a quantitative label", referring to the presence of extra items in the translated subtitle, for instance, inserting the politeness marker "please"; meanwhile, specification is "a qualitative label" (ibid.) designated for a strategy of making the translation more specific in meaning, as when the sentence "As if it were true **what people say about him**" in the source script is substituted by "Are you saying that **the accusation** is true?" (ibid. 78).

It should be noted that in this study, not all specifications can be regarded as explicitations. The yardstick that "the explicitated information can be inferred from the context" should be referred to. In the case "请给我一杯可乐 (Please give me a cup of **cola**) → Please give me a cup of <u>Coca Cola</u>", as we are not sure what the speaker refers to is Coca Cola, Pepsi or other brand of cola, this case can only be taken as non-explicitating specification.

Similar to Perego (2003), Klaudy and Károly (2005) also regarded specification "as an aspect of explicitation, while generalization is associated with implicitation" (Murtisari 2016: 70). Yet, can explicitation be realised through generalisation? Murtisari (ibid. 68) mentioned that the English translation (translated by Sager and Hamer) of Vinay and Darnelnet's definition of explicitation is "slightly but significantly different" from its French original. The French phrase *introduire dans LA des Précisions qui restent implicites dans LD* (introducing in the target language details that remain implicit in the target language) has been translated into "making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language". Comparing with the French original, "the translated definition is broader" (ibid. 70) because it "may also include shifts resulting in a more general expression than the corresponding ST" (ibid. 68), which means except specification, generalisation can also be a kind of explicitation. Kamenická (2007a: 47) also tried to associate explicitation with generalisation. She further investigated explicitation by distinguishing the relationship between explicitation and implicitation on the one hand and between specification and generalisation on the other. To argue against Øverås (1998: 10), who subsumed specification into explicitation and generalisation into implicitation, she listed a few examples of generalising explicitations to show the existence of reverse connections. Explicitation, in her view, cannot be universally paired up with specification as opposed to generalisation. Similarly, implicitation cannot always be associated with generalisation, although examples of specifying implicitation are difficult to find, especially due to the generally lower frequency of implicitation in translation. One of Kamenická's examples of generalising explicitation is the rendition of "the stone composition floor" into "the hard floor" (Kamenická 2007a: 50). She claimed the example as the substitution "of a specification of the material of the floor with a general property most relevant with respect to the event" (ibid.). In C-E translation, generalising explicitation can also be found. For instance, "你这样是丢了西瓜，捡了芝麻 (You are picking up the sesame while dropping the watermelon) → What you have lost is greater than what you have gained". In this example, although the interpreter dropped the two specific images – watermelon and sesame, s/he expresses the intention of the speaker through a comparison of the weight of those two images. Again, "汤姆现在可以说是**苟延残喘** (Tom is now **at his last gasp**.) → Tom is <u>dying</u> now". Here, "苟延残喘" means "to be at one's last gasp", which is only one specific scene of "dying". "Dying"

also contains some other implied meanings, such as being unable to move and with extremely slow heartbeats. So, dying is a more general concept than "苟延残喘". However, as dying can easily be inferred from the scene of "being at one's last gasp", this case can be regarded as explicitation. As illustrated by these two examples, it is justifiable to conclude that explicitation can not only pair up with specification but also with generalisation. As long as the shift delivers the information that can be inferred from the context, whether it is in the form of specification or generalisation, it can be put into the category of explicitation.

2.2   Typology of explicitation

2.2.1   Typology of explicitation: Parallel corpus-based vs comparable corpus-based

The historical development of Blum-Kulka's "Explicitation Hypothesis" generates the idea that "a translation will be more explicit than a corresponding non-translation, which may be either the source text or a parallel text in the target language" (Pym 2005: 2). With the advent of corpus-based translation studies, in order to validate explicitation as one of the Translation Universals, research on explicitation is no longer limited to parallel corpora any more. Some scholars are interested in not only the explicitation identified by comparing the TT with the ST but also in the explicitation identified through comparing translation with non-translations in TL (Vehmas-Leto 1989; Puurtinen 1998, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; Olohan & Baker 2000; Olohan 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; Kenny 2005; Chen 2006; Dai & Xiao 2010; Xiao 2012; Li & Tang 2015).

The first comparable corpus-based explicitation study was conducted by Vehmas-Lehto in 1989, comparing the frequency of cohesive devices in Finnish newspaper articles translated from Russian with that in Finnish non-translated texts. Vehmas-Lehto (1989: 204) listed several examples of explicit cohesive devices such as "additional connectives for strengthening the level of cohesion at the start of sentences or clauses" and "the use of more emphasisers for clarifying propositions". This study demonstrates greater explicitness of Finnish translation in comparison not with the Russian originals but with authentic Finnish texts and suggests an entirely new idea that translated TL texts are more explicit than authentic TL texts of the same register, because of the use of explicitation strategies.

In the present study, instances of explicitations are identified through a comparison between the interpreting product and its source speech. Due to this reason, researches concerning explicitation identified from comparable corpus will not be discussed.

2.2.2   Typology of explicitation in translation

The first systematic classification of explicitation was made by Klaudy (1998: 82–83) who put it into four categories: (1) "obligatory explicitation" – an indispensable category caused by "differences in syntactic and semantic structure of languages". For example, the lack of definite articles in Russian entails "numerous additions" in translations from Russian into English; (2) "optional explicitation" – the one attributed to "the differences in the text-building strategies and stylistic prefer-ences between languages". Examples are the addition of connective elements to strengthen cohesive links; (3) "pragmatic explicitation" – the one resulting from "the differences in cultures" involving the translator's inserted explanations of source culture-specific concepts and (4) "translation-inherent explicitation" – the one ascribed to "the nature of the translation process itself", being "explained by one of the most pervasive, language-independent features of the translation activ-ity, namely the necessity to formulate ideas in TL that were originally conceived in SL". In this classification, obligatory and optional explicitations are related to the linguistic systems. Pragmatic explicitations are obviously related to the cultural system, while translation-inherent ones explain the general tendency in translation.

Klaudy's unification of the manifold observations on explicitation into a single framework is an interesting and meaningful attempt. Yet this classification is still being questioned in several ways: for one, "the distinctions between these types are by no means clear-cut […] since they are based upon different types of criteria that overlap" (Englund Dimitrova 2005a: 27); Becher (2010a: 1) also queries the existence of translation-inherent explicitation because of its unclear nature. Is it a kind of subconscious process or a conscious strategy? Or could anyone illustrate it with examples?

For the former doubt, Klaudy and Károly (2005: 14) improved their previ-ous categorisation and reformulated the traditional Explicitation Hypotheses as a wider "Asymmetry Hypothesis", which intimates "explicitations in L1→L2 [SL→TL] direction are not always counterbalanced by implicitation in the L2→L1 [TL→SL] direction because translators – if they have a choice – prefer to use operations in-volving explicitation and often fail to perform optional implicitation". On the basis of this hypothesis, it can be inferred that obligatory explicitations are symmetrical, whereas optional ones are generally asymmetrical.

As regards the latter doubt, in Kamenická's study (2007b) on the relationship between explicitation profile and translator's style, she proposed a finer typology of translation-inherent explicitation on the basis of the Hallidayan metafunc-tions of language: experiential, logical, interpersonal and textual explicitation (ibid. 118). She mentioned that "as far as the borderline between optional and translation-inherent explicitation/implicitation is concerned, the existence vs a lack

of a competing more or less explicit stylistic variant in the TL conforming to the criterion of naturalness was used as a criterion" (ibid. 126). But, judging from those examples she gave as illustration, her so-called "translation-inherent explicitation" phenomena overlapped with optional phenomena. For example, in the rendition of "it's easy for me to remember things" into "it's **extremely** easy for me to remember things" (ibid. 127), obviously, there are several other explicit stylistic variants in the TL, which sounds natural, like adding "dramatically", "especially" instead of "extremely". Since Kamenická does not adhere to the criteria proposed by herself, it is doubtful whether translation-inherent explicitation really exists.

Although Kamenická's study fails to prove the existence of translation-inherent explicitation, her notion of classifying explicitation from the perspective of language's three metafunctions is logical and revealing. It is a pity that Kamenická "provides hardly any explanation on how each of her categorizations operates" (Murtisari 2016: 76). So far, three other studies have also referred to these three functions as the theoretical basis for typology (Tang 2015: 60).

One is made by House (2004). The term House refers to as "explicitness" is similar to "explicitation" in this study. She firstly made a distinction between obligatory and optional explicitation by formulating that obligatory explicitness tends to result from "the language-specific nature of syntactic and semantic structures … without it target language structures would be ungrammatical" (ibid. 194). To further illustrate optional explicitation, she subdivided it into three categories as shown in Figure 2.
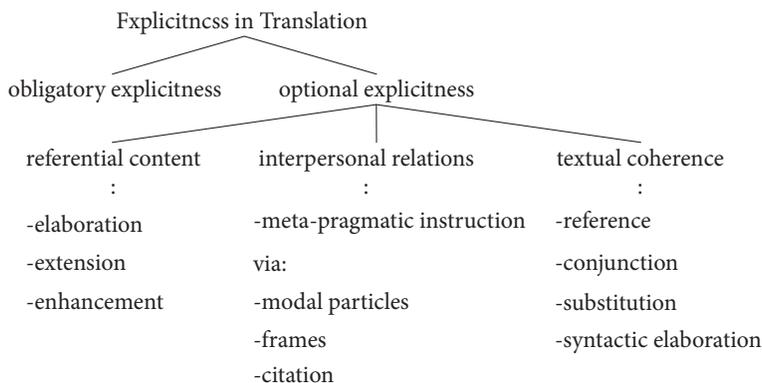
Figure 2. House's typology of explicitness in translation (House 2004: 204)

The first type is related to the ideational function of language, which is to make the propositional contents … either elaborated, extended or enhanced in the sense of Halliday (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 395); the second category concerns with "the Hallidayan interpersonal function". She also related this type with "pragmatic

explicitation" and that it can be realised by providing "metapragmatic instructions" (König 1991, cited from House 2004: 196), in form of modal particles, frame (Goffman 1974, cited from House 2004: 197) or citation; the third kind of optional explicitation links with "the Hallidayan textual function component", especially with "the way cohesion and coherence is created in texts across different languages" by flexibly dealing with "reference and lexical cohesion", "conjunction", "substitution and ellipsis (0-substitution)" and "syntactic elaboration" (House 2004: 195–199).

House's typology elaborates clearly different forms of explicitation according to her definition. However, some points still need to be discussed here:

1. Elaboration, extension and enhancement are three kinds of expansion used to represent the relations between clauses, but House (2004) used them as three ways of performing ideational explicitation. She proposed that ideational explicitation occurs when "the propositional content is elaborated, extended or enhanced in the sense of Halliday" (ibid. 195), which means that the ideational explicitation created by House should concern only explicitation occurring between clauses, because Halliday (ibid. 378) claimed that elaboration occurs when "one clause expands another by elaborating on it […]: restating in other words, specifying in greater details, commenting, or exemplifying"; extension occurs then "one clause expands another by extending beyond it: adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative"; enhancement occurs when "one clause expands another by embellishing around it: qualifying it with some circumstantial feature of time, place, cause or condition". But, for the examples House listed as elaboration (Hemoglobin→Hämoglobin, **der rote Blutfarbstoff** = Hemoglobin, **the red blood coloring material**), extension (respiratory transport→Transportvorgänge bei der Atmung = **Transportation procedures with the respiration**) and enhancement (the addition of a quotation as an embellishment of the original text), none of them concerns relations between two clauses (the first two examples occur within one clause, and the third one shows relations between two paragraphs). Therefore, in House's typology system, the original meaning of elaboration, extension and enhancement defined by Halliday has been changed. Yet the lack of necessary redefinition may make it hard for readers to perceive the ideational explicitation she proposed.

2. Goffman (1974: 21) used the idea of "frames" to label "schemata of interpretation" that allow individuals or groups "to locate, perceive, identify and label" events and occurrences, thus rendering meaning, organising experiences and guiding actions. Why does House put the form "adding frame" into explicitation concerning interpersonal relations? What kind of "metapragmatic instructions" can a frame provide? If House's concept of enhancement goes beyond the level of clause, how does she distinguish enhancement with the addition of frame while both of them are in essence adding background information?

3. If elaboration is not limited to relations between clauses, how to draw a clear borderline between elaboration and "reference" as well as "substitution" in textual coherence?

The above discussion shows clearly that due to the lack of formulation on three ways of realising the explicitation of referential content, overlapping parts can still be observed in House's typology of explicitation, which makes it necessary to carry out further modifications in this study.

Further research on explicitation, where the typology is also based on Halliday's three metafunctions of language, was carried out by Becher in his PhD dissertation. At the very beginning, Becher intended to resort to the Hallidayan framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics, which "has considerably enriched linguistics research by offering a predominantly functional and multidimensional perspective on language" (2011: 85). But, he later found that no "objective criteria" can be adopted to keep the three types separate (ibid.). Hence, he established his own framework as follows:

1. **Interactional shifts** concern the appearance of the source text author and the target text addressee in the target text (cf. Halliday's interpersonal metafunction).
2. **Cohesive shifts** concern the cohesion of the target text as compared to the source text (cf. Halliday's textual metafunction).
3. **Denotational shifts** concern the description of the states of affairs expressed by the target text (cf. Halliday's ideational metafunction).   (ibid. 86–87)

Although he emphasised the downside of Halliday's framework, it cannot be denied that Becher's framework is in fact also based on the three Hallidayan metafunctions of language. But, his framework is more manageable because each type in it is "more clearly delimited" (ibid. 87). For example, by referring to Thompson & Thetela's explanation of "interactional" (1995: 107), Becher structured a framework, where interactional explicitation only refers to:

1. assigning interactional roles (e.g. questioner and answerer) to author and reader, for example, by using questions and imperatives and
2. referring to author and reader, for example, by means of personal pronouns.
(Becher 2011: 90)

Since there is no shift of the first type in his data, he focused on the second type and illustrated a "scale of interactional explicitness" ("high degree": "reference to author or reader by means of personal pronoun; "medium degree": reference to author by means of company's name"; "low degree": "reference to author or readers by means of a descriptive expression", like the company, etc.; "lowest degree": "no explicit reference to author or reader, as e.g. in passive constructions") (ibid. 91). Once the translator refers to an author or reader by employing an expression with a higher degree of explicitness, he labelled it as an interactional explicitation.

From the above illustration, it can be found that Becher made a few modifications and delimitations on the Hallidayan metafunctions of language so as to create a framework particularly suitable to his data, which was a corpus of English and German business texts as well as their translations in both directions. Although his framework might not be able to be applied directly to the analysis of other data, it is still possible to build an operative framework to analyse explicitation on the basis of the Hallidayan metafunctions of language.

2.2.3   Typology of explicitation in interpreting

The fourth study referring to Hallidayan language metafunctions in classifying explicitation was conducted by Xue (2007). Her MA thesis was a minicorpus-based study, comparing explicitation features between two corpora: CECIC (Chinese-English Conference Interpreting Corpus) and OENC (Original English News Corpus). Xue also listed three types of explicitation:

1. "Ideational explicitation" – "explicitation of cultural elements" and the "subject or object of a sentence"
2. "Interpersonal explicitation" – explicitation of "the relationship among different communicators, modal information and evaluative information"
3. "Textual explicitation" – the repetition and addition "to make clear the logical relations among sentences"   (ibid. 28–31)

Instead of offering a detailed elaboration on the possible forms of each type, she just listed a few examples unsystematically, which reduces the plausibility of the results. Instead, in this study, an integrated framework of explicitation listing clearly the forms of each type is provided.

Another study on explicitation in interpreting was made by Gumul (2006b). The aim of her research was to identify and analyse various forms of explicitations in SI, ranging from lexical and syntactic levels to the pragmatic stratum. This product-based study indicates that explicitation is mainly cohesion-based in SI. The six most common forms of explicitation include adding connectives – 40%; shifts from referential cohesion to lexical cohesion, that is, lexicalisation of pro-forms – 20%; substituting nominalisations with verb phrases – 13%; reiterating lexical items, filling out elliptical constructions and shifts from reiteration in the form of paraphrase to reiteration in the form of identical/partial repetition – 6% each. The other seven types of explicitating shifts constitute 9% of all instances of explicitation identified in target texts (ibid. 182). Gumul listed explicitation shifts without providing a systematic theoretical categorisation.

Zhang (2009) conducted a case study exploring explicitation phenomenon in C-E CI, in which he put explicitation into three categories: obligatory explicitation

for conforming to grammatical rules, context-complementary explicitation to facilitate comprehension and optional explicitation, which is subject to the interpreter's choice (ibid. 77–81). In fact, the third type overlaps heavily with the second type. For instance, one of the examples for the third type (在奥巴马当选总统以后 after Obama was elected as the President → after Barack Obama was elected the **new** president **of the United States**) is in essence the same as another example of the second type (十一五规划 the eleventh five-year program → eleventh five-year program **for national economic and social development**). They are both optional explicitation in the form of adding background information.

Compared with typology referring to the Hallidayan language metafunction, the other ways of classifying explicitation mentioned above are either with overlapping parts between each type (Klaudy 1998; Zhang 2009) or listing several specific forms unsystematically (Gumul 2006b; Xue 2007). This study holds the same view as Becher that the Hallidayan framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics is formulated with a "considerable degree of vagueness" (2011: 85), yet it is still possible to establish an integrated framework on the basis of the three metafunctions of language. Because with proper refinement on each function, this framework can (1) draw a clear borderline between each type and (2) better reveal the function of explicitation. Details about the new typology framework are illustrated in Section 3.2.

2.3   Motivations for explicitation

In previous studies, the three most common factors researchers often have resorted to as motivations for making explicitation include:

1. Linguistic differences between SL and TL (Steiner 2001; Pöchhacker 2004; Xue 2007; Zhang 2009; Hu & Tao 2009). For instance, when rendering "three cars" into Chinese, a quantifier "辆" should be added to make the TT grammatically correct (the literal translation "三车" is unacceptable).
2. Stylistic preferences (Vinay & Darbelnet 1958/1995; Blum-Kulka 1986/2004; Klaudy 1998). Examples can be additions of connectives to strengthen cohesive links.
3. Cultural differences (Klaudy 1998; Steiner 2001; Pöchhacker 2004; Baumgarten et al. 2008). For instance, when rendering "Forrest Gump" into Chinese, the translator may add some cultural background information, that is, "阿甘正传，一部经典的美国电影" ("Forrest Gump, a classic American movie"), in the translation to make it easier for Chinese readers to understand.

For some other examples, the adoption of English hypotaxis and Chinese parataxis to explain the motivation for explicitation by Hu & Tao (2009: 67–73) illustrates the attribution to linguistic difference between ST and TT. The first three types of explicitation formulated by Klaudy (1998: 82–83, see Section 2.2.2) can be attributed just to the above three motivations – linguistic differences, stylistic preferences and cultural discrepancies.

Other than the three motivations mentioned above, Pym (2007: 178) claimed that "explicitation is ostensibly found in translations, since they cannot assume the same degree of shared content as non-translations". He suggests the reason why translators provide more "communicative clues" than non-translators could be backed up with presuppositions made by Simeoni (1998: 7), who claimed that translators "have always occupied subservient positions among the dominant professions of the cultural sphere"; therefore, they are somehow more given to working so as to minimise the processing effort of other participants (Pym 2005: 9).

It was not until Englund Dimitrova (2003, 2005a, 2005b) who first carried out a psycholinguistic investigation on explicitation that translators' processing problems have been regarded as a factor leading to their use of explicitations. Subjects in her study were asked to translate a short biographical text from Russian into Swedish (their mother tongue) by using computers. It should be noted that in order to collect data for psycholinguistic investigation, Englund Dimitrova recorded subjects' concurrent verbalisations – they were asked to report whatever comes into their mind while translating; what's more, their keystrokes were recorded by the ScriptLog software as well. In this way, two kinds of psycholinguistic data contributed to her exploration of the translation process. She concluded that two kinds of explicitation can be found according to the reasons lying behind explicitation. One is "norms-governed explicitations" (2005a: 37), which result from lexico-grammatical and pragmatic contrasts between the SL and TL. This type of explicitation is language-pair-specific. They occur with a high degree of regularity and are irrelevant to a translator's processing problems. The other is "strategic explicitations", which result from "problems in the translation process" (ibid.). She found that once translators encounter processing difficulties, they may reformulate certain ideas in the target text so as to facilitate their further processing.

The second type of explicitation identified by Englund Dimitrova is interesting. Interpreters have to face with processing challenges more frequently than translators due to the fact that translators can refer back to the original text, look up useful background information and revise their rendition for as many times as they wish. However, these "luxuries" are not applicable to interpreters. Also as indicated by Gile's Effort Model of consecutive interpreting (1995: 175–176), a series of competitive operations are engaged in the interpreting process, including listening and analysis, short-term memory operations, note-taking and note-reading. Each of

these procedures requires a certain amount of capacity. Since "most of the time, interpreters work close to saturation" (Gile 2005: 182), they often encounter difficulties during the interpreting process. Englund Dimitrova has proved the existence of "strategic explicitation" when translation difficulty occurs, which makes it reasonable to assume that similar explicitation shifts may also exist in interpreting. In addition, since some strategies exist only in interpreting but not in translation, it is possible that some interpreting-inherent explicitation cases may be identified. On what occasions will interpreters resort to explicitation as a strategy? Which form of explicitation will they employ? These are all intriguing questions that are investigated in this study.

Moreover, there are researchers who also take interpreters' preference or habits into account (Xue 2007; Hu & Tao 2009). This has inspired this study to conduct a comparative study between professional interpreters and student interpreters and to explore whether there is any different explicitation preference between them.

2.4   Professional experience and explicitation

Toury (1991: 51) queried whether there are "any differences in the application of the strategy of explicitation by language learners and translators". In the present study, the investigation focuses on whether there is any difference in the application of the strategy of explicitation between professional interpreters and student interpreters.

Previous studies suggested that the frequency of explicitation in translation is related to the degree of experience of the translator (Levý 1965; Blum-Kulka 1986/2004; Englund Dimitrova 2003; 2005a; 2005b). As already mentioned (Section 1.1.3), Levý (1965: 78) assumed that explicitation often occurs in "average and […] bad translations". Since average or bad translation is usually done by translators with limited experience, it can be inferred that Levý maintains that explicitation tends to be done mainly by inexperienced translators. Blum-Kulka (1986/2004) focused on the explicitation of adding cohesive ties. Comparing the English/French translations done by professional translators and amateur translators, she identified explicitation in the form of longer texts, paraphrased expressions using more words and the insertion of adversative connectives. She (ibid. 302) claimed that "explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation, as practiced by language learners, non-professional translators and professional translators alike", and not absent from professional translators. However, she also proposed that "the less experienced the translator, the more his or her process of interpretation of the SL might be reflected in the TL" (ibid. 301), that is, the more explicitation s/he might perform.

The above statement implies that "explicitation may be common, but that it is undesirable, that there might have been a way of producing a better translation or that a more competent translator might have produced an equivalent text" (Séguinot 1988: 107).

As mentioned in Section 2.3, Englund Dimitrova (2003, 2005a, 2005b) conducted an experiment to investigate the relationship between translators' explicitation of different kinds of links and their translation expertise. Four professional translators, two translation students and three languages students took part in the experiment. In her 2003 article, Englund Dimitrova centred on the contrastive relations within text segments consisting of two sentences in the text. By analysing their translations of a Russian biographical text of 440 words into Swedish, she identified patterns of explicitation that can be related to experience in translation and concluded that "professional translators tend to explicitate, while students tend not to, although there are exceptions to both tendencies" (Englund Dimitrova 2003: 29).

It now seems obvious that there are conflicting findings in the correlation between translators' expertise and the explicitness of their translations. As previous studies only focused on certain specific forms of explicitation, such as the contrastive relations within text segments consisting of two sentences in the text (ibid: 23), this study intends to expand the scope of exploration and compare professional and student interpreters' explicitation patterns in not only cohesive aspects but also experiential and interpersonal aspects (see the typology framework in Section 3.2).

2.5   Explicitation Hypothesis vs explicitation as a Translation Universal

Blum-Kulka (1986/2004) is the first researcher who suggested that explicitation is "inherent in the process of translation". In her opinion, explicitation is the redundancy often occurring in translated texts. It results from the process of interpretation by the translator. All translators, regardless of their background or experience, tend to expand the source text in the translation. She then put forward "the Explicitation Hypothesis", which states that "the process of translation, particularly if successful, necessitates a complex text and discourse processing" (ibid. 300).

> *The process of interpretation performed by the translator* on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This *redundancy* can be expressed by a rise in the level of *cohesive explicitness* in the TL text. This argument postulates an observed cohesive explicitness from SL to TL texts *regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved.*
>
> (ibid. my emphasis)

This hypothesis has been confirmed by several scholars (van Leuven-Zwart 1989, 1990, Hewson & Martin 1991, Øverås 1998, Olohan & Baker 2000). However, there are a few points pertinent to this hypothesis that should be noted:

1. Blum-Kulka only talked about "cohesive explicitness" in her hypothesis.

However, many later studies on explicitation have explored explicitation beyond the scope of cohesion. They may all share with Kamenická (2007a: 46) the view that explicitation is a more general concept and that Blum-Kulka's definition should be extended. Yet, research within this widened scope cannot be regarded as verification of "the Explicitation Hypothesis". An analysis of the following two representative studies may explain this point:

Norwegian scholar Øverås (1998) selected 40 segments from novels in an English-Norwegian parallel corpus. Through analysing the first 50 sentences in each of those segments, she aimed to test Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis through identifying translation-inherent explicitation. Table 2-1 shows an overview of her result.

Table 2-1 Occurrence of explicitation and implicitation in Øverås's study (1998: 571)

	English-Norwegian	Norwegian-English
Explicitation	347	248
Implicitation	149	76

Øverås considered that a full-blown investigation into the stylistic norms of English and Norwegian was impossible, so she neglected this step, which caused the inclusion of optional explicitation into the scope of translation-inherent explicitation. Furthermore, although Øverås (1998: 560) provided a working definition for explicitation – "the kind of translation process where implicit, contextually recoverable ST material is rendered explicit in TT", she failed to hold this criterion in the process of identifying explicitation. As a result, some non-explicitation phenomena are included as translation-inherent explicitation. The following example is a good case in point:

ST: Na er St. Patric den storste helgenen i hele irland.
LT: Now St. Patric is the greatest saint in all of Ireland.
TT: Now Saint Patric is **regarded as** the greatest saint in all of Ireland.

Because of the above methodological defects, although explicitation cases have been found in both directions, this finding cannot confirm Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis.

The second case is Pápai's research (2004), which involves both a parallel corpus and a comparable corpus. She first identified explicitation strategies in the parallel corpus, which is composed by English originals and their Hungarian translations. In the next step, she used some of the explicitation strategies identified in the first part of the study to investigate the comparable corpus, which is composed of translated and non-translated texts in Hungarian. In both steps, she included not only shifts in cohesion but also instances of disambiguation and additions of linguistic and extra-linguistic information. Hence, her research should also be excluded as justification for Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis.

2.   Blum-Kulka does not specify what she means by redundancy.

Séguinot (1988: 106) investigated translations between English and French and suggested that explicitation in translation "does not necessarily mean redundancy".
    In China, Wang (2003: 410–416) investigated parallel sentence pairs in E-C/C-E translation on the basis of data collected from a bidirectional parallel corpus of English and Chinese texts. His study revealed that compared with their originals the TL texts are much longer in both translated English and Chinese. Although what Blum-Kulka means exactly by "redundancy" is still not clear, it is unjustifiable to validate the existence of explicitation through an increase in the number of words. It is easy to find cases of using more words than the original to express the exact meaning of the original or make more explicit the implicit meaning of the original. For example, Good morning → 早上好 (two words in English but three characters in Chinese); I am very delighted to attend this conference → 我很高兴参加这场会议 (eight words in English but ten characters in Chinese).

3.   The idea that explicitation occurs "regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved" is correspondent with the "translation-inherent explicitation" proposed by Klaudy (1998: 83).

Both Klaudy and Blum-Kulka assumed the existence of a special type of explicitation, which can be found in any language pair. But, Blum-Kulka (1986/2004: 313) urged that more empirical studies should be conducted to help confirm whether cohesive patterns in translated texts (a) "tend to approximate the target language norms", (b) "tend to reflect source language norms" or (c) derive from neither of the above, "but forming a system of their own, possibly indicating a process of explicitation". This proposal reflected her recognition of the necessity to make a distinction between optional explicitation and translation-inherent explicitation. She also suggested that "a large-scale contrastive stylistic study" of both interpreting directions should be performed between any language pair so as to exclude optional explicitation (ibid. 312). Becher (2010a: 13) holds that "optional explicitation of course needs to be

identified and excluded in testing the Explicitation Hypothesis" because its existence is language-pair-specific. This also applies to obligatory explicitation. According to his logic, if one wanted to prove that the Explicitation Hypothesis is true, the only way is to identify the existence of translation-inherent explicitation in every language pair. The existence of translation-inherent explicitation in Russian-Swedish translation has been confirmed by Englund Dimitrova (2005a: 37) and the present study intends to investigate the existence of "interpreting-inherent" explicitation in E-C and C-E CI.

4. Explicitation does not always result from "the process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text". There are other reasons that may explain the higher degree of explicitation.

This is an idea proposed by Becher (2010a: 6–7). He took Olohan and Baker (2000) as an example. They investigated the frequency of the complementiser *that* in combination with the reporting verbs "say" or "tell" in translated versus non-translated English texts. They carried out their research using the Translational English Corpus (TEC) and a comparable corpus called the British National Corpus (BNC). The former contains English target texts from four different genres translated from different source languages while the latter is composed of non-translated English texts. The two corpora together include up to 3.5 million words. They believe that a higher incidence of the optional words "that" in translated English would provide evidence of inherent, subliminal processes of explicitation in translation (ibid. 10). The result showed a significantly higher frequency of reporting "that" in translated texts than in non-translated texts. However, Becher (2010a: 11) suggested that their findings did not represent evidence for the Explicitation Hypothesis, because the explicitation cases they identified could be explained by two alternative explanations – "source language interference" as well as translators' "conservatism".

5. To validate the Explicitation Hypothesis is not equivalent to proving Explicitation as a Translation Universal. There is another way to prove the latter statement.

Translation Universals are first proposed by Baker (1993: 243) as "features which typically occur in translated text rather than original utterances and which are not the result of interference from specific linguistic systems". Typical Translation universals include: (1) "a marked rise in the level of explicitness compared to specific source texts and to original texts in general"; (2) "a tendency towards disambiguation and simplification"; (3) "a strong preference for conventional 'grammaticality'"; (4) "a tendency to avoid repetitions, which occur in source texts, either by omitting them or rewording them"; (5) "a general tendency to exaggerate features of the target language" and so on (ibid. 243–244). Chesterman (1994: 39) classified the universals into two categories: one is S-universals (S for source) – "universal

differences in which translators process the source text"; the other is T-universals (T for target) – "differences between translations and comparable non-translated texts, that is, characteristics of the way translators use the target language". He claimed the Explicitation Hypothesis as one of the potential S-universals. Yet, in this study, it is believed that the corroboration of the Explicitation Hypothesis does not mean the same thing as proving explicitation as a Translation Universal.

The alternative explanations Becher mentioned above ("source language interference and translators' conservatism") can certainly be useful tools to refute the Explicitation Hypothesis, which states that explicitation is caused by the translators' process of interpretation performed. However, regarding the question whether explicitation is a Translation Universal, the exact motivation does not matter at all, as long as explicitation indeed occurs in translation. This study holds that the motivation for explicitation might not be as simple as Blum-Kulka suggested. However, whatever the motivation is, it cannot be regarded as counterevidence to disaffirm explicitation as a Translation Universal. In other words, proving Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis does not mean the same thing as proving explicitation is a Translation Universal. Although the former task can only be realised through proving the existence of translation-inherent explicitation in every language pair, the latter task can be accomplished in another way.

In fact, all corpus-based translation studies are language-pair-specific, which makes the explicitation phenomena researchers identified all language-dependent. It is impossible to justify any explicitation phenomena they identified as translation-inherent by simply confirming its existence in his/her corpus-based study. If researchers really intend to exemplify translation-inherent explicitation, the only way is to demonstrate that certain forms of explicitation exist in every language pair. Yet, it should be noted that there is another way to test the hypothesis "explicitation is a Translation Universal". For instance, in China, Huang (2007) completed his PhD dissertation on the explicitation and implicitation of conjunctions and personal pronoun subjects in a C-E/E-C parallel corpus. In his study, explicitation is regarded as a Translation Universal. However, he does not claim the forms he adopted as examples of explicitation – adding conjunction and specification of personal pronoun – are translation-inherent explicitation. As illustrated above, no one can confirm these two forms to be translation-inherent merely through a study related only to a specific language pair (in Huang's study, it is between Chinese and English). But, this study still contributes to the affirmation of explicitation as a Translation Universal. No matter which form of explicitation appears in a certain language pair, as long as explicitation can be found in every language pair, the hypothesis that "explicitation is a Translation Universal" can be justified. This is just like if someone intends to justify the statement that "language is universal", it is not necessary to prove that every country around the world shares one language.

The argument can be confirmed as long as we find that language exists in every country or region of the globe, even though each has its own pronunciation rules and grammatical features.

Turning to interpreting research, although the processing demands of interpreting might preclude recurrent explicitions, or "impels the interpreter to resort to certain forms of text-condensing" (Gumul 2006b: 176), the studies conducted in the field of SI (Shlesinger 1989 & 1995; Ishikawa 1999; Niska 1999; Gumul 2006a & 2006b) and CI (Xue 2007; Hu & Tao 2009; Zhang 2009; Wang 2012, 2013a) have shown that the phenomenon of explicitation does exist in some modes of interpreting. For instance, in her study on shifts of cohesion in simultaneous interpreting, Shlesinger (1995: 201) asked 13 advanced student interpreters to render an 11-minute piece of English impromptu speech into Hebrew. The results showed that interpreters tend to fill in ellipsis with reiteration, thus making the connection more explicit. Another example is Hu & Tao (2009: 67–73), who explored the optional explicitation phenomena in C-E conference interpreting based on a large-scale parallel corpus. Through the analysis of interpreters' use of conjunction words like "that" and "to", they confirm that explicitation of textual meaning is quite apparent in C-E CI.

In short, although the above studies aim mainly at proving explicitation as one of the Universals of Translation, none of them has succeeded in proving the existence of translation-inherent explicitation (a type existing in every language pair). It should be made clear that the hypothesis that "explicitation is a Translation Universal" can still be justified without proving the existence of translation-inherent explicitation. As long as explicitation can be found in translation between every language pair, no matter in which form it presents, no matter how frequently it occurs, it can be regarded as a Translation Universal. Likewise, the fact that the present study finds out several types of explicitation in C-E/E-C CI can also be regarded as a piece of supporting evidence in proving that "explicitation is a Translation Universal".

2.6   Directionality of interpreting and explicitation

"Directionality in translation studies usually refers to whether translators are working from a foreign language into their mother tongue or vice versa" (Beeby 1998: 63). So, the directionality of interpreting can refer to whether the interpreters work from a foreign language into their mother tongue or the other way round. For instance, in conference interpreting, if the interpreter works from his/her mother tongue to a foreign language, it is labelled as "retour interpreting" (Page 2006: 212).

So far, there are two polarised views on the question of whether conference interpreters should work from their B language into their A language or vice versa: one is held by "the Western European camp" (ibid. 212). A consensus has been

reached among those scholars that "although some interpreters are obliged in the course of their professional life to work into their 'B' language, most interpreters, and especially teachers of interpreting, insist on the fact that true interpretation […] can occur only into one's 'A' language" (Bros-Brann 1976: 17). They shunned the idea of retour interpreting and agreed that a B language is less versatile and more "vulnerable" than an A language (Donovan 2003: 373) and only in one's native language is speech production "spontaneous" (Seleskovitch 1968: 43), idiomatic and can achieve best information transmission (AIIC 1991: 3; Seleskovitch & Lederer 1989/1995: 135). Déjean Le Féal (2005: 172) claimed that "performance in a learned language is always shakier and less assured than in the mother tongue". Conversely, the other is the "Eastern European camp" led by the previous Soviet Union (Page 2006: 212), which prefers retour interpreting. They believed that "no one is exempt from comprehension problems and as one cannot interpret what s/he has not understood, the comprehension phase must be given priority over production" (Martin 2005: 84). Seel (2005: 76) also laid stress on comprehension and held that an interpreter is more culturally competent in his or her mother culture and therefore "more competent to interpret out of his mother tongue". In addition, Denissenko (1989: 157) maintained that "comprehension in the mother tongue is easier than in an acquired foreign language […] he [the interpreter] has a wider choice of possible ways and means of conveying the same message in his native tongue". The necessity of retour interpreting has been emphasised by the above "Eastern European camp" scholars (e.g. Bartłomiejczyk 2004: 247).

Except the above conflicting views drawn from intuitive speculations, theoretical analyses have also been carried out. The two camps held contradictory views from each other because their opinions are based on opposite assumptions. To be specific, Goldman-Eisler (1972: 139) contended that comprehension requires more attention than production, while Gile (2005: 11) held that "generally production requires more attention because the production often involves a deliberate effort to avoid linguistic interference from the source language, both in retrieving lexical items and in constructing syntactically acceptable target-language sentences". If the former assumption holds true, then working into B language entails less processing capacity than working into A language; however, if Gile's presumption is true, working into A language is easier than working into B language.

Since it is hard to discern which supposition reflects the truth, it is advisable to resort to empirical investigation. Tommola & Heleva (1998: 177–186) found that more propositions are rendered successfully in the B to A interpreting direction when doing SI for a difficult text. Chang (2005: 56–61) also demonstrated that professional interpreters scored higher in the propositional accuracy and made less errors when doing SI from their B language to A language (from English to Chinese). Yet, Färber (2002) demonstrated that students performed better in simultaneous

interpreting in terms of completeness and accuracy when working into their B language (from German to English). In addition, Lee (2003) demonstrated that trainee interpreters tended to commit more errors of meaning when working into their A language (Korean) and more errors of language and presentation when working into their B language (English).

In sum, although being frequently analysed by intuitive speculation, theoretical inference and empirical research, just as Gile (2009: 56) comments, it is still not possible to evaluate the "relative merits" of interpreting into the A language and retour interpreting, because "they have not been investigated empirically to a sufficient extent to allow any clear conclusions to be drawn". Hence, more empirical research should be continued.

Among previous studies on explicitation, Gumul (2006a) conducted an experiment to explore whether explicitation is dependent on the direction of interpreting. Twenty-eight advanced interpreting students were asked to do SI between English and Polish. Results show that there were 481 explicitation shifts from B language (English) to A language (Polish), while there were 624 explicitation shifts from A to B. Gumul (ibid. 28–29) concluded that for one thing, "explicitation appears to be dependent on the direction of interpreting to a certain extent"; for another thing, "more frequent occurrence of explicitation in interpreting into a B language is apparently due to the constraints intrinsic to the process of interpreting"; last but not least, "the vast majority of explicitations identified in both directions of interpreting appear to be either subconscious or automatic and hardly ever attributable to any strategic behavior".

Gumul's research was conducted within the language pair of English and Polish. Are there any different explicitation features in interpreting from English to Chinese and vice versa? This is a question that this study attempts to answer.

2.7   Summary

The review of literature on explicitation in this chapter has furnished some insightful conclusions and is rounded off with a summary as follows:

The features of explicitation in translation have been frequently investigated, yet explicitation in interpreting still needs to be researched more adequately. Considering the fundamental differences between translation and interpreting as well as the unique complexity of interpreting, such as ephemeral and one-time presentation, limited working memory capacity and immediate production, it is reasonable to presume that not all claims concerning explicitation in translation can be applicable to explicitation in interpreting. Hence, more research should be carried out to investigate explicitation in interpreting with the emphasis placed on the unique features of interpreting.

Some previous studies on explicitation do not base their research on a clear definition. They either adopt vague definitions (cf. Vinay & Darbelnet 1958/1995: 342; Delisle, Lee-Jahnke & Cormier 1999: 139) proposed by previous scholars or apply their own definitions inconsistently (i.e. Øverås 1998: 4). Since each study has to analyse unique data different from others, it is extremely important to provide a definition for explicitation that is applicable to the collected data. In this study, before providing a working definition for explicitation, the following ideas have been kept in mind: (1) "context" covers three elements: co-text (the text which accompanies the item under discussion), situation (those elements of the extra-textual situation, which are related to the text as being linguistically relevant) and culture (knowledge shared by a group of people through a process of socialisation. It can be recalled without referring to any specific communicative occasion); (2) only optional explicitation shifts (due to culture-specific world knowledge in the source and target language communities and differences in communicative conventions between these two communities) are investigated while obligatory ones (due to grammatical differences between the source and the target language) are excluded; (3) both conscious and subconscious explicitation are analysed; (4) explicitation can be realised by both addition and substitution and (5) explicitation can be realised by both specification and generalisation.

Some previous studies only categorising explicitation from its linguistic form lack theoretical guidance. Halliday's three metafunctions of language can be a proper theoretical basis for classifying explicitation (see Section 2.2 for reasons).

Scholars often regard linguistic, stylistic and cultural differences between SL and TL as translators' and interpreters' motivations for making explicitation, yet the nature of translation/interpreting and translator/interpreter may also be the attribution.

Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis postulates that there should be a kind of "translation-inherent explicitation". Some scholars doubt its existence (e.g. Becher 2010a). Inferred from Englund Dimitrova's "Strategic Explicitation" (2005a: 36), it is possible that some explicitations might be motivated by processing the difficulties that interpreters encounter in the process of interpreting. These cases certainly exemplify the questioned "interpreting-inherent explicitations". In this study, attempts are made to prove the existence and investigate features of "interpreting-inherent explicitation" in the CI between English and Chinese.

Becher (2010b: 3–8) demonstrated that due to grave methodological errors, a number of studies claiming to offer support for the Explicitation Hypothesis (Øverås 1998; Olohan & Baker 2000; Kenny 2005) actually fail to justify the Hypothesis. On the basis of this conclusion, he further inferred that "it is highly misleading to call explicitation a possible 'universal' of translated text" (Becher 2011: 75). Yet, the current study maintains that even if the translation-inherent explicitation is not exemplified, as long as explicitation can be found in translation between any

language pair, no matter in what diversified forms, explicitation can be regarded as a Translation Universal.

The discussion about the effects of professional experience on explicitation has shown that views on this issue are varied. Some scholars claimed that less experienced translators make more explicitation shifts (Levý 1965; Blum-Kulka 1986/2004) while others (i.e. Englund Dimitrova 2003; 2005a; 2005b) demonstrated that more experienced translators make more such shifts. For the effects of professional experience on explicitation in interpreting, it is still an unknown field that needs to be investigated.

The discussion on interpreting directionality has made clear that although intuitive speculation, theoretical analysis and empirical studies have all been conducted, scholars still fail to justify which interpreting direction (from A language to B language or vice versa) is more suitable for interpreter's cognitive processing. This suggests that the effects of interpreting directionality on explicitation still need to be explored. Hence, this study compares explicitation patterns in C-E CI and E-C CI, with a view to shedding light on the issue of interpreting directionality.

Theoretical framework

Due to the complexity of the explicitated information, decisions on whether a shift can be regarded as explicitation and what motivates the interpreter to make it can be rather subjective. Since it is significant to show as clearly as possible how those choices have been made, this chapter elaborates on the theoretical framework of this study.

3.1   Working definition of explicitation

In Section 2.1, attempts have been made to clarify the inferential sources of the explicitated information as well as features and forms of explicitation. On the basis of the above analysis, explicitation and explicitating can be redefined as follows:

> **Explicitation** stands for translation shifts[5] made by an interpreter when s/he provides additional information which can be inferred from the context (the co-text, the situation and the culture).
> **Explicitating** refers to the process of performing explicitation.

Becher (2010a: 3) defined explicitness as "the verbalization of information that the addressee might be able to infer if it were not verbalized" and "explicitation is observed where a given target text is more explicit than the corresponding source text". He emphasised that his definition of explicitness and explicitation are both product-based, which indicates that he is not concerned about the process of explicitation. This study deals with not only the forms of explicitation but also the motivations lying behind so it is necessary to make this study both product-oriented and process-oriented. Therefore, in this study, "explicitating" is adopted to refer to the *process* (related mainly to interpreters' motivation for making explicitation), while explicitation is adopted to refer to the *product* (related mainly to the form of explicitations present).

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5.   The term "shift" is an analytic tool in this study, which refers to changes in the target text as compared with the source text (van Leuven-Zwart 1989; 1990). It must be noted that the necessary changes resulting from the grammatical differences between the source and target languages are not counted as shifts in this study.

To sum up, in this study, explicitation can be both conscious and subconscious, yet obligatory explicitation is excluded. The explicitated information should be inferred from either the co-text, the situation or the culture. Explicitation can be an addition, substitution, specification and generalisation as long as the explicitated information can be inferred from the context.

3.2   Typology of explicitation in CI

With a view to finding out as many explicitating shifts in the data as possible, it is necessary to find a proper framework that can be adopted as a guidepost. In Section 2.2, it has been mentioned that Halliday's metafunctions of language have inspired several studies on explicitation in both translation and interpreting. Yet, those studies either committed methodological errors or did not provide well-formulated illustrations of each type they classified; furthermore, Becher (2011: 86) argued that this theoretical basis lacks "objective criteria for keeping the three categories apart". Does this mean it is impossible to employ metafunctions of language as the theoretical basis for classifying explicitation? The answer is definitely no. If we take a closer look at Becher's framework, it is clear that his framework is to a large extent based on this theory. What should be noted is that he has made some modifications, which lead to a framework that is, in his own words, "more objective and reliable, terminologically precise and incomplete in the sense that, unlike the Hallidayan framework, it does not aim to be a full-fledged theory of language" (ibid.).

This study takes Halliday's three metafunctions of language as the theoretical basis for classifying forms of explicitation. A few refinements have been made to set up a typology framework of explicitation, which is valid for the data collected in this study (see Figure 3-1).

According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 29–30), language has three metafunctions: an ideational function, an interpersonal function and a textual function. The ideational function, which enables people to "construe human experience", can be "distinguished […] into two components, the experiential and the logical". The interpersonal function means "language is always […] enacting our personal and social relationships with the other people around us", while the textual function "relates to the construction of text".

While the three metafunctions are applied to this study of explicitation, the "logical" function and the "textual" function overlap to some extent. Hence, the first type of explicitation in this study focuses on the experiential aspect only and is called experiential explicitation. Experiential explicitation occurs when the explicitated information belongs to "experiential modifiers", "processes", "circumstantial adjuncts" or "participants".

```
                              Explicitation
           ┌───────────────────────┼───────────────────────┐
Experiential Explicitation   Interpersonal Explicitation   Textual Explicitation
           │                       │                       │
           │                   Appraisal                Cohesion
           │                       │                       │
adding or substituting      adding or substituting      1) adding or lexicalizing
1) modifiers;               1) engagement contents;        pro-forms;
2) processes;               2) attitudinal contents;     2) filling out elliptical
3) circumstantial adjuncts; 3) graduation contents.         processes or participants;
4) participants.                                         3) adding or substituting
                                                            connectives.
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Figure 3-1 Typology framework of explicitation in consecutive interpreting

The first type of experiential explicitation includes adding or substituting experiential modifiers. Here "experiential modifier" is a concept that includes "epithet", "classifier" and "qualifier". All these concepts indicate some quality of certain entity. An epithet refers to "properties of the thing represented by the nominal group along different qualitative dimensions such as age, size, value […] Epithets serve as premodifier […] There are two kind of epithets operating in the nominal group: experiential epithet and interpersonal epithets" (Matthiessen et al. 2010: 90). In the sentence, "*I like your **beautiful dress**,*. "beautiful" is an interpersonal epithet, which is a concept that should be discussed in the interpersonal explicitation part (see the following discussion on "attitude"). A classifier refers to "a particular subclass of the thing in question". There are "significant differences" between epithets and classifiers. Namely, a "classifier does not accept degrees of comparison or intensity" (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 319–320). For instance, we cannot say "*This is a very plastic bag*", because plastic is a classifier not an epithet. When a nominal group indicating a certain property of an entity follows the entity, it is labelled as a qualifier (ibid. 323). The way Halliday and Matthiessen dealt with modifiers is extremely delicate. But, in this study, that meticulous way cannot be followed, since the comparison of different frequencies of explicitation related to the three subcategories is not the focus of this study. Instead, no matter whether the added or substituted parts belong to epithets, classifiers or qualifiers, as long as they show the experiential property of the entity, they are put into the category of experiential modifier-based explicitation. Examples 3.2-1, 3.2-2 and 3.2-3 illustrate the above subcategories:

Example 3.2-1

ST: 而现在我们的教育发展到一个最尖键的时刻，发展到了一个新的历史时
     期。在这个历史时期 ……

LT: And now our education has developed into the most critical moment, developed
     into a new historical stage. At this historical stage …

S9:[6] also now we come to a new historical stage of educational development. In now
     the **new** stage …

Example 3.2-2

ST: 刘延东同志在表彰大会上发表了一篇重要讲话。

LT: Comrade Liu Yandong, at the awarding ceremony, delivered an important
     speech.

S5: **State Councilor** Liu Yandong has addressed an important speech.

Example 3.2-3

ST: 在很多措施当中 ……

LT: Among many measures …

S8: There are a lot of measures **to solve this problem** …

The three examples above all include additions or substitutions of experiential
modifiers. Example 3.2-1 demonstrates explicitation by way of substituting "his-
torical" with the experiential epithet "new", which is a concept inferable from the
preceding clause. Example 3.2-2 presents an explicitation case through substituting
"Comrade" with the classifier "State Councilor", which is inferred from Chinese
culture. Finally, the English rendition in Example 3.2-3 added a qualifier to manifest
the purpose of "measures" mentioned in the sentence. This addition can be inferred
from the co-text and might better inform listeners.

Experiential explicitation can also be realised by the addition or substitution
of processes, participants or circumstantial adjuncts, which are the three nuclear
experiential structural elements. Using a somewhat simplified definition, a process
refers to the verbal group in any clause (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 176); par-
ticipants refers to the subjects and objectives in any clause (ibid.); circumstantial
adjuncts are typically realised by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases to
indicate time, place, manner, cause and condition (ibid. 335). Cases for illustration
are as follows:

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6. "S9" stands for the ninth student interpreter. In all the listed examples later in this volume,
"S" stands for "student interpreter"; "P" stands for "professional interpreter"; the number followed
stands for the serial number of the interpreter.

Example 3.2-4

    ST: …… 党和国家领导人亲切地接见了全国的优秀教师代表。

    LT: … Party and State leaders cordially greeted the representatives of excellent teachers.

    P1: … leaders have **attended the ceremony** for excellent teachers.

Example 3.2-5

    ST: …… 向60年来为中国的教育事业作出贡献的全体人民教师和教育工作者表示节日的问候和诚挚的慰问。

    LT: … sent their cordial holiday greetings to all the teachers and faculty staff who have made contributions to China's education in the past six decades.

    P11: … sent their greetings and thanks to the teachers who have made contributions **to the faculty development** and education in the past 60 years.

Example 3.2-6

    ST: 昨天是我们的教师节

    LT: the day before yesterday was our Teachers' Day

    P3: So one day before the Teachers' Day **in China**

These three examples illustrate various forms of experiential explicitation. In Example 3.2-4, the interpreter rendered "接见 … 代表 (cordially greeted the representatives)" into "attended the ceremony", which is a substitution of the process and participant. The substituted information can be inferred from the situation, where teachers' representatives are received by national leaders in a celebration ceremony of the Teachers' Day. Since the participant substitution here is for the collocation with the process substitution, it is not labelled as a separate case of explicitation. Example 3.2-5 presents us with an explicitation case by way of adding a participant. In the Chinese original, the speaker only mentions "contribution to education" but the interpreter makes it explicit by rendering it as "contribution to the faculty development". Motivation for explicitation will be discussed later in Section 3.5, yet here the key point is the addition of a participant that can be inferred from the culture constitutes an experiential explicitation case. Likewise, in Example 3.2-6, the interpreter supplemented the phrase "in China" which is a circumstantial adjunct indicating the exact place of the festival celebration.

The second type of explicitation is interpersonal explicitation. When the interpersonal function is mentioned, the first thing that comes to mind is usually mood and modality. However, they are not a manageable basis for the analysis of explicitation because it is not clear whether the addition of modal verbs can be labelled as explicitation or not.

To make the interpersonal explicitation measurable and quantifiable, the Appraisal System established by Martin & White (2005) has been referred to. Figure 3-2 shows an overview of this system.
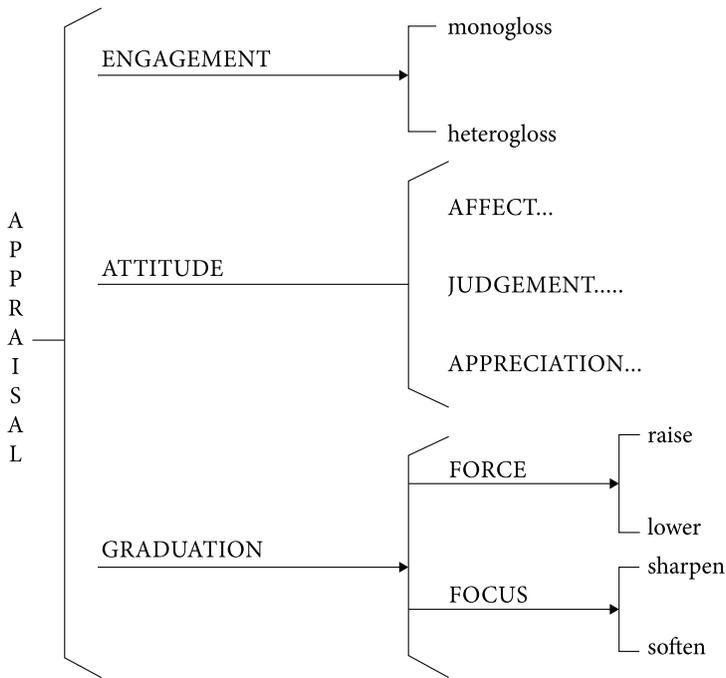
Figure 3-2 Overview of the Appraisal System (Martin & White 2005: 38)

As shown in Figure 3-2, there are mainly three elements in the Appraisal System. Among them, "engagement is concerned with the ways in which resources such as projection, modality, polarity, concession and various comment adverbials position the speaker/writer with respect to the value position being advanced and with respect to potential responses to that value position – by quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, denying, countering, affirming and so on" (Martin & White 2005: 36). To apply it to the exploration of explicitation in interpreting, this concept relates to the interpreter's ways of presenting the speaker's attitude. When the added elements show explicitly who is responsible for the following point of view, it is labelled as "engagement-based explicitation", such as the inserted phrase "I think" in Example 3.2-7.

Example 3.2-7
ST: 刚才你提的这个问题确实是一个非常重要的问题。
LT: The question you have just raised is indeed an extremely important question.
S5: **I think** <uh> the question you have just raised is … we need to improve it.

The added "I think" shows clearly it is the speaker who is responsible for the following opinion.

The second element is "attitude", which is concerned with "our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behavior and evaluation of things" (Martin & White 2005: 35). This concept could be used to explain the added or substituted parts, which reflect certain attitude that is implied but not overtly expressed by the speaker. The underlined part in Example 3.2-8 is an instance of attitude-based explicitation.

Example 3.2-8
ST: 我们已经基本解决了让孩子们有学上的问题。
LT: We have already basically solved the problem of making education available to children.
S9: We have **achieved the goal** that to let all the children to go to school.

S9's rendition illustrates s/he explicitated the speaker's attitude through substituting a neutral expression with a commendatory one. In the source speech, the speaker's "solve the problem" states China's completion of a historical task in an objective way. But, in Chinese culture, especially for a political speech, leaders usually highlight the bright side of China and talk about the country's achievements in their speeches to give people an overall impression that China is getting better. This substitution conforms to such an unwritten tradition and amplifies the positive effect of "solving this problem".

The third element "graduation" is concerned with the intensity of attitude. This concept relates to two kinds of shifts. One deals with "the degree of an evaluation – how strong or weak the feeling is" and the other deals with "the strength of boundaries between categories – constructing core and peripheral types of things" (Martin & White 2005: 37). It can be used to describe the added or substituted information, which is inferable from the context and increases the intensity of the speaker's attitude. For instance,

Example 3.2-9
ST: …… 历史上中国人就有尊师重教的传统
LT: … in history, Chinese people have embraced the tradition of respecting teachers and valuing education.
S6: … We had a **very good** <uh> tradition in respecting the teachers.

There are two instances of interpersonal explicitation in Example 3.2-9. First, the addition of "good", an attitude-based explicitation, shows overtly the speaker's positive evaluation of the tradition. This attitude can be inferred from Chinese culture, which advocates to show respect to teachers. The second instance is the addition of the intensifier "very", which increases the degree of the speaker's evaluation of the "tradition".

The third category in the present typology is textual explicitation. When the added or substituted information is relevant to the cohesion of the text, it belongs to textual explicitation. In this study, cohesion is investigated from three aspects: reference, ellipsis and conjunction. For the reference element, a concept "proform" has to be introduced first. A proform is "a word, substituting for other words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, whose meaning is recoverable from the linguistic or extra-linguistic context" (Schachter 1985: 24–25). And when a proform is substituted by specific words, phrases, clauses or sentences it refers to in the text, this process is named as the lexicalisation of the proform, which is one kind of referential explicitation in this study. Another kind of referential explicitation is made by adding proforms to refer to the entities mentioned in the previous or following text. For the ellipsis component, once the elliptical processes or participants are added by the interpreter, elliptical explicitation occurs. For the conjunction element, conjunctive adjuncts, also called textual adjuncts, consist of "adverbial groups or prepositional phrases which relate the clause [in which the adjuncts are present] to the preceding text" (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 81). If a conjunctive adjunct is added or substituted to reflect the correct relationship between the clauses, it is considered as a conjunction-based explicitation. Example 3.2-10, 3.2-11 and 3.2-12 are three typical instances of textual explicitation:

Example 3.2-10
　　ST: 他们呐，这个，向全国的教师表示节日的祝贺。
　　LT: They extended holiday greetings to teachers of the whole country.
　　P3: **The top leaders** ex- extended their gratu-, congratulations to the teaching <P> team.

Example 3.2-11
　　ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京35中 …… 召开了教师座谈会，发表了重要讲话
　　LT: Premier Wen Jiabao actually … in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing, held a meeting with the faculty members, [and] delivered an important speech.
　　S1: Premier Wen Jiabao ^{EE2M3}visited <p> Beijing <uh> thirty <p> fifth <uh> middle school … have a had a meeting with staff ^{TE1M1}**there** <p> by rendering an~ important speech.

Example 3.2-12
　　ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京35中听了5节课，这个，召开了教师座谈会
　　LT: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing, held a meeting with the faculty members
　　P1: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing and **he also** held a round table meeting with the faculty members.

In Example 3.2-10, P3 inferred from the co-text and substituted the pronoun "they" with the specific group of people "the top leaders" it refers to, which represents

a case of referential explicitation. Since "top" is independent from "the leaders" (see Section 3.4.1), it is labelled as a separate attitude-based explicitation shift. Example 3.2-11 illustrates the referential explicitation in the form of adding a pro-form "there" to refer to a previous location "the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing". Example 3.2-12 illustrates two forms of explicitation: the addition of the subject "he" in the rendition forms an elliptical explicitation, whereas the addition of the conjunctive adjunct "also" leads to a conjunctive explicitation.

3.3   Shifts excluded from the analysis

Shifts are excluded from the analysis of explicitation in this study for the following reasons:

1. Shifts which are associated with the lexico-grammatical rules of the target language
2. Shifts that are not covered by the working definition of explicitation provided in Section 3.1
3. Shifts leading to semantic deviations from the source speech
4. Repetitions or shifts that occur in the correction part
5. Shifts that have to be excluded for practical reasons

The first type in fact is similar to obligatory explicitation mentioned in Section 2.1.2. To be exact, in this study, obligatory explicitation is defined as explicitation, which is caused by the lexico-grammatical rules of the target language. As obligatory explicitation reflects only interpreters' awareness of lexico-grammatical rules and the violation of the rules would lead to ungrammatical expressions, obligatory explicitation has not been explored in this study. For instance, in Example 3.2-10, within the phrase "extended their congratulations", the word "their" is not expressed in the source speech but can be inferred from the situation. Yet due to the fact that "extend one's congratulations" is a set phrase in English and the deletion of "their" leads to an ungrammatical expression, this case is put into the category of "obligatory explicitation" and has not been analysed in this study.

Another point that should be noted is the coordinating conjunction "and". If only through the addition of "and" can the rendition be grammatical, this addition is excluded from our analysis of explicitation. For instance, in Example 3.3-1, the addition of "and" is grammatically required:

Example 3.3-1
ST: 尊师重教
LT: respecting teachers and valuing education
S1: valuing **and** respecting teachers **and** teaching

Yet, in Example 3.3-2, without the addition of "and", the rendition is still grammatically correct. So, the addition of this "and" increases the cohesion through making explicit the coordinating relations between the two clauses in the original.

Example 3.3-2
ST: 所以我们教师队伍建设还存在着很严峻的挑战，一个最突出的就是 …
LT: Therefore, there are still severe challenges in the building of faculty team. One of the most prominent is …
S1:   Obviously, there are a lot of challenges for us in the building of quality teaching team. **And** one of the outstanding questions is …

The second type refers to those cases where the added or substituted part cannot be inferred from the context. For instance,

Example 3.3-3
ST: During that period of time, I also wrote, did research and wrote articles about effective superintendence …
S2:   在那些年的时间里面，我同样地也是做了一些研究，**发表**了一些文章。
LT: During those years, I also did some research and **published** some articles.

In the English original, the speaker only mentioned that he wrote some articles. Whether they have been published or not cannot be inferred from the context. Hence, the equal sign drawn by the interpreter between "wrote articles" and "发表 (published articles)" does not provide justifications for labelling Example 3.3-3 as a case of explicitation.

The third type can be illustrated by Example 3.3-4 and 3.3-5:

Example 3.3-4
ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.
S4:   在座的很多人，你们的工作就是要去**加速这些变化**。
LT: To many of you who present, your job is to **speed up these changes**.

Example 3.3-5
ST: I think we all know that whenever there is change, people will resist.
P2:   **因此**，我们就，也知道其实~当发生变化的时候呢，人们就会普遍产生这种抗拒感。
LT: **So**, we just, also know in fact once change happens, people would generally generate this kind of resistance.

In Example 3.3-4, "find the right speed" has been rendered as "加速这些变化 (to speed up these changes)", which is a misunderstanding of the original meaning. Hence, it should be ruled out from the analysis. Example 3.3-5 presents us with a case that the conjunctive adjunct "因此 (So)" added by the interpreter does not reflect the real relationship between the two relevant clauses. As a matter of fact,

a number of shifts belong to this type of deviation. This may be attributed to the huge processing efforts that interpreters have to make so as to deal with this multitasking task.

Another type of explicitating instance that is excluded is repetitions or the explicitating shifts in the correction parts. One transcription principle of this study, as will be mentioned in Section 4.5.1, is that both linguistic and paralinguistic information should be transcribed. Thus, repetitions and the information, which can be regarded broadly as false starts, are also transcribed. For instance,

Example 3.3-6
  ST: 最关键的问题是什么？是质量。
  LT: What is the most important issue? [It] is quality.
  S5: I think **the most important part and also** the essence of this issue is that **we should have good** <uh> we should have good teachers.

In the rendition, "the most important part" is a semantic repetition of "the essence". It is ruled out in this study because it does not offer any new information. In addition, "and" and "also" were also excluded, as they are dependent on the previous part of the repetition. Furthermore, in the second clause, the repeated part "we should have good" was excluded. What should be noted here is that in the process of identifying explicitation, only the final version of the interpreters' rendition was analysed. The first "we should have" conforms to the definition of explicitation. Yet the interpreter repeated this idea once again. Thus, only the second "we should have" was analysed in this study. In sum, explicitation shifts occurring in the correction part were labelled as "false starts" and were ruled out from the analysis.

Finally, language fillers are excluded for the reasons listed below.

Language fillers: As will be discussed in Section 3.5, explicitation in interpreting may be made for the purpose of time management. But sometimes, the information added for the delaying purpose does not convey its formal meaning. So, while analysing the data, it is the meaning rather than the form that needs to be focused on. And fillers that do not express the semantic meaning, which their superficial forms carry, are excluded in this study. For instance,

Example 3.3-7
  ST: And the principal cannot force the teachers to change. And you cannot force the principal to change.
  P5: 有时候领导想变但是老师不变，这是一个问题，有阻力了。**那么**或者说老师他想变，但是老师这个不可能去<uh>指挥校长说你要改变
  LT: Sometimes leaders want to change but teachers do not change. This is a problem. There is resistance. **Thus** or teachers want to change, but teachers cannot <uh> command principal [and] say you need to change.

Formally, "那么 (Thus)" can be a conjunctive adjunct. Yet, in the above case, it was added simply for time management with no concrete semantic meaning. Thus, it was excluded from the present analysis.

3.4   Overlapping explicitation shifts

Some overlapping cases of explicitation can still be identified in the process of data analysis, and the following part of this section attempts to make a clear division between those cases.

3.4.1   The unit of explicitation

In Example 3.2-4, "亲切接见 (cordially greeted)" has been substituted by "attended the ceremony". It can be seen that the interpreter has made a shift of process and a shift of participant, but this case is counted only as a single shift of process. The reason is that the participant "ceremony" is used to collocate with the process "attend" so as to formulate a complete idea, which can be inferred from the context. Yet, let us consider Example 3.4-1:

Example 3.4-1
   ST: 第一个问题，我想谈一谈教师队伍建设的问题。昨天是我们的教师节 …
   LT: [For] the first question, I would like to talk about the issue of faculty team building. Yesterday was our Teachers' Day …
   P1:   First, I would like to talk about the building of the faculty team in China. **But before that I would like to say** yesterday was the Teachers' Day …

In this example, the interpreter added a conjunctive adjunct "but", a circumstantial adjunct "before that" and the attitudinal information "I would like to say". Since they are independent from each other (the deletion of any of them does not lead to a sentence incomplete in meaning), they were counted as three separate explicitation cases.

   To sum up, within an added or substituted part, if different forms of explicitation can be identified, as long as each part is independent from each other, or a certain part can be deleted without leading to information incompleteness, this part is counted as an individual explicitation shift.

3.4.2 The distinction between modifier-based explicitation
and circumstance-based explicitation

In some cases, the explicitated information may belong to both the experiential modifier and the circumstantial adjunct. For instance,

Example 3.4-2
 ST: 昨天是我们的教师节 …
 LT: Yesterday was our Teachers' Day …
 P3: It was the Teachers' Day **of China** yesterday …

In this example, "我们的 (our)" has been substituted by "of China". On the one hand, the substituted part, "of China", can be taken as a qualifier modifying the Teachers' Day; on the other hand, it can be labelled as a circumstantial adjunct indicating the place celebrating the Teachers' Day. To avoid double counting, a rule has been made for this study: if the explicitated information modifies a noun or a nominal phrase, no matter whether it refers to time, place, manner, cause or condition, it would be counted as modifier-based explicitation. So, Example 3.4-2 was counted as experiential explicitation with the addition of a modifier. On the contrary, in Example 3.4-3, the added part "in China" modifies the adverb "there", so it was counted as experiential explicitation by way of adding a circumstantial adjunct.

Example 3.4-3
 ST: 人口大国
 LT: a country with huge population
 S2: there are a lot of populations **in China**.

3.4.3 The distinction between conjunctive adjuncts
and circumstantial adjuncts

Cases where the explicitated information can be labelled as either a conjunctive adjunct or a circumstantial adjunct can also be identified in the data collected for this study. For instance, "before that" in Example 3.4-1 functions both as a circumstantial adjunct indicating time and a conjunctive adjunct improving cohesion. To make the quantitative analysis more precise, the rule "when the explicitated part refers to time, location, cause, manner or condition, as long as it does not modify a noun or a nominal phrase, it is labelled as circumstance-based explicitation" has been adhered to. As "before that" is time-related and modifies the whole clause rather than any nominal phrase, it was counted as a circumstantial adjunct-based explicitation. Yet, there is still another exception. When the added or substituted part is a conjunction, even if it is related to time, place, manner, cause or condition, the case should be regarded as

a conjunctive adjunct-based explicitation. For instance, in Example 3.4-4, although the added part is cause-related, since "so" is a conjunction, this case was counted as a textual explicitation by way of addition of a conjunctive adjunct.

Example 3.4-4
  ST: 我们已经基本解决了让孩子们有学上的问题，下一个阶段我们就是要 ……
  LT: We have already basically solved the problem of making education available to children. At the next stage, we should …
  P11: We have solved the problem of the access to education for the kids, **so** next we have to …

3.4.4 The distinction between process-based explicitation and attitude-based explicitation

We should note that the process-based explicitation in this study refers only to the experiential process. In other words, if the explicitated process expresses an attitude of the speaker and this idea has not been explicitly shown in the original message, it was counted as an attitude-based interpersonal explicitation rather than a process-based experiential explicitation. For instance,

Example 3.4-5
  ST: 教育大计，教师为本。
  LT: The plan to develop education relies on teachers.
  S5: **we should improve** the overall construction of the teaching <p> staff.

In this case, the substituting part "we should improve the construction of the teaching staff" is a process, but it expresses the speaker's implied attitude of appealing people to get started on improving the quality of teachers, so it was counted as an "attitude-based interpersonal explicitation".

Sometimes, although the process in the rendition expresses the speaker's attitude, this attitude has already been explicitly expressed in the original. In this case, the explicitation is labelled as a process-based explicitation, because it is more like rephrasing rather than reinforcing the speaker's attitude. For instance,

Example 3.4-6
  ST: the two important points are:
  P9: **要强调**两点:
  LT: [I] would like to emphasise two points:

In this case, the rendition expressed the speaker's evaluation on the importance of two points, which is an attitude that is already shown in the original. So, rather than

being labelled as an attitude-based explicitation, it is labelled as a process-based explicitation.

3.4.5   The distinction between modifier-based explicitation and attitude-based explicitation

The analysis process also encountered overlapping cases between modifier-based explicitation and attitude-based explicitation. For instance,

Example 3.4-7
 ST: no direction
 P10: 没有这个<uh>一个**明确的**目标
 LT: without <uh> a **clear** aim

In this case, although "明确的 (clear)" is an interpersonal modifier in general sense, it does not reflect any implied appraisal of the speaker. Instead, it is motivated by the interpreter's intention of making the rendition more precise. Thus, it is labelled as a modifier-based explicitation. So, in this study, if the added or substituted interpersonal modifier does not reflect the speaker's implied appraisal, it is labelled as a modifier-based explicitation rather than an attitude-based explicitation. Yet, in Example 3.4-8, because it is the speaker's intention to highlight the importance of this job, the added modifier "重要 (important)" is labelled as an "attitude-based" explicitation rather than a "modifier-based" one.

Example 3.4-8
 ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.
 S1: 所以在座各位领导<p>的一个**重要**作用，就是实现这个平衡
 LT: so [for the] present leaders <p> an **important** function, is to realise this balance.

3.4.6   The distinction between circumstance-based explicitation and attitude-based explicitation

There are also overlapping parts between circumstance-based explicitation and attitude-based explicitation when the explicitated information is on the one hand a modal adjunct[7] and on the other hand a circumstantial adjunct illustrating the time, location, cause, manner or condition of the original information. To

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7. Modal adjuncts refer to "the adverbial group or propositional phrase" (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 74) that "are closely associated with the meanings constructed by the mood system (temporality, modality and intensity) (ibid. 126) or that "express[es] the speaker's attitude either to the proposition as a whole or to the particular speech function" (ibid. 129).

distinguish them, another rule has been formulated, which stipulates that in this situation, the point that should be checked is whether the explicitated information reflects the speaker's attitude or not. If it can reflect the attitude, it is labelled as an attitude-based explicitation; otherwise, it is labelled as a circumstance-based explicitation. For instance,

Example 3.4-9
    ST: For example, could solve problem.
    P1: 我\<p\>举个例子就是\<p\>要做一个很好的领导者的其中一个特性很有可能就是要**快速**解决问题的这种能力
    LT: I \<p\> give an example namely \<p\> one of the characteristics of being a very good leader is very likely to be the ability of solving problems **rapidly**.

In Example 3.4-9, "快速(rapidly)" is in general sense an interpersonal modifier (showing people's evaluation). However, instead of showing the speaker's attitude, this concept here actually reflects the manner of the process "solve problem". Thus, this case has been put into the category of circumstance-based explicitation. In contrast, in Example 3.4-10, since "礼貌地 (politely)" reflects the "respect" the speaker mentioned in the previous clause (and because Asians give respect to seniority and position), it has been labelled as an "attitude-based explicitation".

Example 3.4-10
    ST: they will be quiet when they resist the change.
    S1: 他们通常\<p\>选择的\<p\>是\<p\>安静**礼貌地**来表示他们的一些不满
    LT: They usually \<p\> choose to \<p\> express some of their dissatisfaction quietly [and] **politely**.

3.5   A process-oriented explanatory framework of explicitation in CI

As mentioned in Section 2.3, previous studies mainly focused on linguistic differences, stylistic differences or cultural differences between the source language and the target language when the motivations for making explicitation are investigated. This proves to be valid in the study of explicitation in translation. Yet, it is not until Englund Dimitrova's proposal of "strategic explicitation" (2003; 2005a; 2005b) did researchers start to treat the processing difficulties that translators encounter in the process of translating as the motivations for explicitation. This study investigates the motivations for explicitation in CI. Since interpreters have to work under greater time pressure and deal with more processing difficulties than translators, more attention should be paid to the process of interpreting.

    In this study, interpreters' retrospection and notes are collected to analyse the interpreting process and identify the motivations for explicitation.

Retrospection, an introspective method from cognitive psychology, where subjects give verbal reports of their own cognitive processes after having performed a given task, is a popular method for analysing the process of interpreting (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2014: 179) because it has "the clear advantage of not having effects on the process itself" (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 110). It builds on the assumption that parts of the information from the subject's working memory during a particular task are stored in long-term memory and can be retrieved afterwards (Ericsson & Simon 1984/1993: 149).

To trigger the memory, retrospection is "usually done with a cue" (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 110). The possible cues include the source speech (recorded or as a written transcript), the audio or video recording of subjects' own interpreting products and performance. For instance, in Ivanova's (1999) study, a transcript of the source speech has been sent to her subjects who were asked to recall everything about the thoughts in their minds while doing the SI task by reading the transcript segment by segment. Bartłomiejczyk (2006) employed a dual-track recording of the source speech and the SI products. Napier's study (2003) on sign language interpreting was cued by video recordings of the task. Both Vik-Tuovinen (2002) and Chang and Schallert (2007) adopted the transcript and a recording of the source speech as well as subjects' interpreting products as the cues for retrospection. However, cues should be carefully treated because it may also install false memories (Mead & Roediger 2002). For instance, the risk of employing the interpreting product as a cue is that it may generate "new cognitive processes that can distort the data: informants faced with their own product comment on their product rather than on their process. They are likely to evaluate, to react emotionally, and to rationalize, to explain" (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 112). Zimmerman & Schneider (1987: 179 & 194) also emphasised that this kind of delayed retrospection as an approach to elicit data about the working process can not only generate information about "actual employed strategies" and "preferred strategies" but also shed light on subjects' "declarative knowledge" – "comments in which learners tell us what they think they did or even ought to have done in solving a lexical problem". To avoid the possible distortion, previous researchers always reminded their subjects that they should only comment on the process but not the product or quality (cf. Vik-Tuovinen 2002; Chang and Schallert 2007).

As González (2012: 55) summarises, "the study of note-taking has been central in consecutive interpreting research". So far, a large volume of literature has been dedicated to interpreters' notes (cf. Rozan 1956; van Hoof 1962; Seleskovitch 1975; Kirchhoff 1979; Alexieva 1994; Ilg & Lambert 1996; Lung 1996; Szabó 2006; Albl-Mikasa 2008; González 2012). The majority of these studies aim to summarise a way in which interpreters can note more effectively and more efficiently. As notes are the product of interpreters' cognitive processing, it can also be employed to reflect the interpreting process. For instance, a lack of notes for a certain segment

can imply a difficulty encountered by the interpreter; a mistake in notes can imply the interpreter's misunderstanding in analysing the input information and so on. Yet, few studies on note-taking have applied the analysis of notes to the study of the process of interpreting. This study collected interpreters' notes and used it to identify the motivations for explicitation.

Through a careful analysis of the various data collected, a process-oriented explanatory framework, taking full consideration of problems interpreters might encounter in the process of interpreting, has been established as shown in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 Process-oriented explanatory framework for explicitation in CI

Code	Type	Motivation	Criteria
M1	Time management	A lack of time in recalling the original message, recognising notes or figuring out proper ways of expression	1. Mentioned by interpreters in their retrospection; 2. One or more speech disfluencies are committed after an instance of explicitation; 3. Proper nouns or figures are found after an instance of explicitation; 4. The explicitated information is inferable from the original message.
M2	Gap-filling	A failure in understanding, remembering or expressing the original message	1. Mentioned by interpreters in their retrospection; 2. The explicitated information cannot be inferred from the original message but from other information concerning culture, situation or co-text.
M3	Clarifying	An expectation to reduce listeners' processing efforts	1. Mentioned by interpreters in their retrospection; 2. The explicitated information is inferable from the original message.
M4	Reinforcing[8]	An expectation to reinforce the speaker's attitude	1. Mentioned by interpreters in their retrospection; 2. The explicitated information is relevant to the speaker's appraisal information; 3. The explicitated information is inferable from the original message.
M5	Note-taking	The way notes have been taken down	1. Mentioned by interpreters in their retrospection; 2. The explicitated information does not explicitly mentioned in the original message but can be elicited from interpreters' notes.

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8. The motivation "for reinforcing" is also expressed as "subjectivity reinforcement" later in this volume.

There are altogether five types of motivations. The first type of motivation for explicitation is labelled as "time management". When interpreters fail to interpret certain parts (e.g. certain proper noun or figure in the source speech), they may make some additions or substitutions in the target language to compensate for what they have not interpreted. According to Shreve et al. (2011: 94), "speakers are having language production problems" when "speech disfluencies occur". Hence, it can be assumed that cases of explicitation for "time management" are usually accompanied by disfluencies. As defined by Gósy (2007: 93), speech disfluencies are "phenomena that interrupt the flow of speech and do not add propositional content to an utterance". Since "classifications [of speech disfluencies] are very heterogeneous" (Tissi 2000: 108), this study only takes the following types of disfluencies into account: silent pauses "<p>", vocalised hesitations "<uh>", vowel/consonant lengthenings "(~)" and repairs "*" (Bakti 2009: 6; Shreve et al. 2011: 98–99). Those disfluency markers are labelled as "difficulty indicators" hereinafter. If instances of explicitation are made when interpreters intend to gain extra time to recall the original information, to recognise notes or to figure out proper ways of expression in the target language, they are labelled as cases of explicitation for "time management".

Example 3.5-1

ST: 经过60年的努力，我们已经建立起一支有1600万人的一支教师队伍

LT: Through 60 years' effort, we have already built a faculty team with 16 million people.

S2: [EE3M1]Nowaday~ the teachers [EE1M1]**in China** <p> have reached the number of <p> one point six million

1600万

In Example 3.5-1, S2 wrote down "1600万(ten thousand)" in his/her notes. A pause marker <p> has been inserted after the added part "in China", which indicates that S2 is probably struggling with the following number of the faculty team listed in the source speech. This inference was confirmed by the interpreter's mistake of rendering 16 million into 1.6 million. Hence, this case has been labelled as explicitation for "time management".

The second type of motivation for explicitation is gap-filling. When interpreters fail to understand, recall or express the original message, they may substitute it with other information that can be inferred from the previous co-text or the culture in which the source speech is situated. This approach can ensure a fluent

information flow so the target listener will not be distracted and will not notice interpreters' incompetency. This type of explicitation is labelled as the explicitation for "gap-filling" in this study.

Example 3.5-2

ST: 但是面对着新的形势，其实对我们的教师队伍建设提出了很高的要求，新的要求，同时我们能够看到在教师队伍建设这个方面，我们要摆在更加突出的战略地位。

LT: But facing the new situation, [it] actually raises very high requirements, [and] new requirements to the building of our faculty team. Meanwhile, we can see in terms of the building of faculty team, we shall put [it] in a more prominent strategic position.

S5: And under these new circumstances, I think <uh> we need to put new requirements for all the teachers, that **those teaching staffs need to make more contributions** in under this strategic stage.

In Example 3.5-2, S5 missed the clause "在教师队伍建设这个方面，我们要摆在更加突出的战略地位 (we can see in terms of the building of faculty team, we shall put [it] in a more prominent strategic position)" in the rendition, a fact that the interpreter also admitted in retrospection. To fill in this gap, the interpreter added another idea "those teaching staffs need to make more contributions" in the rendition. Since the new idea is inferable not from the missing clause but from its previous clause "新的形势 … 对我们的教师队伍建设提出了很高的要求，新的要求 (the new situation … raises very high requirements, [and] new requirements to the building of our faculty team)", this case is regarded as an instance of explicitation for "gap-filling".

Some researchers might regard the above example as a case of omission, as there is some information lost in the rendition. However, as this study aims to identify on which occasions and in which ways interpreters add inferable information, it lays the emphasis on information which has been added rather than that has been lost in the rendition. As the added information in the above example is not explicitly mentioned by the speaker, but inferred from the context, it is labelled as a case of explicitation in this study.

From the above examples, it is clear that explicitations, no matter being attributed to the intention of time management or gap-filling, can reflect interpreters' "inadequacy in interpreting competency". To be specific, this kind of incompetency refers to failures in understanding, recalling or expressing the original information, in recognising notes as well as in performing the above processes on time.

As regards the third motivation, when no "difficulty indicator" can be found after the explicitation case, and the explicitated information is inferable from the original message s/he has to interpret, it is labelled as explicitation for "clarifying". Example 3.2-5 is a good case in point. Since there is no marked stammer, pause,

false start, vowel/consonant lengthening, correction, proper noun or figure following the addition, and the added part is a modifier for the original content, this case is labelled as explicitation for "clarifying".

For the fourth type of motivation, when no "difficulty indicator" can be found after the explicitation case, and the explicitated information is relevant to the speaker's appraisal information (including engagement-based explicitation, attitude-based explicitation and graduation-based explicitation, see Section 3.2 for a detailed elaboration), it is labelled as explicitation for "subjectivity reinforcement", which means reinforcing the speaker's attitude.

Example 3.5-3
ST: 最重要的差距就是教师队伍，教师的质量
LT: The most important difference is the faculty team, the quality of the faculty.
S5: But the core issue of this problem is that <p> <u>**we need to solve**</u> the problem of the education staff

In Example 3.5-3, the speaker only emphasises the importance of the difference in the quality of the faculty. But, in the rendition "we need to solve the problem" directly exposes the speaker's implied attitude, which is to mobilise relevant parties to take actions to enhance the quality of the faculty.

Except for these four motivations, the explicitated information sometimes can also be related to the symbols used by interpreters or the layout of interpreters' notes, which they take down while performing the interpreting task. Yet, it should be noted that notes can be regarded only as a superficial or indirect motivation because the underlying motivation can always be attributed to the four motivations listed above. For instance,

Example 3.5-4
ST: 最关键的问题是什么？是质量。
LT: What's the most crucial issue? [It] is quality.
P5: <uh> The key is teaching staffs and the quality <u>**of education.**</u>

In Example 3.5-4, a modifier "of education" has been added to specify the quality. When we refer to P4's notes, it is obvious that this substitution can be attributed to the Chinese character "教 (education)" s/he wrote down. Besides, with no difficulty indicator after this addition, the motivation for noting down the character "教", which can also be regarded as the underlying motivation for the addition, would be for clarifying. Thus, in this study, this kind of cases is counted twice, once as explicitation for clarifying and once as being related to notes.

Example 3.5-5

ST: 我们已经从一个人口大国建设成为一个人力资源大国，但我们现在要向
人力资源强国进军。

LT: We have already built ourselves from a country with a huge population into a country with huge human resources, yet we now should march towards a country with strong human resources.

S2: **In the past**, there are too many, there are a lot of populations in China; And **now** <p> this population has turned into human resources. **And later on**, we will going to improve the quality of this human resources.
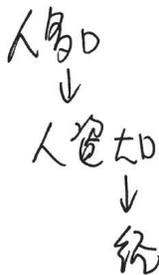
In Example 3.5-5, the special structure "In the past … now … later on …", which makes explicit the temporal relationships between these three stages, can be attributed to the layout of S2's notes. Yet, since this layout was motivated by the interpreter's intention to clarify the original logic, the underlying motivation for this case should be "for clarifying". Thus, in this study, such shifts are counted twice, once as cases attributed to the interpreter's notes and once as cases attributed to the interpreter's intention to clarify.

Due to the overlapping between notes and the other four motivations, in this study, the impact of notes on interpreters' explicitation patterns is discussed separately in Chapter 8.

3.6   Summary

The elaboration presented above intends to set up an integrated theoretical framework for the comparison of explicitation patterns both quantitatively and qualitatively between professional interpreters and student interpreters in CI as well as between interpreting from Chinese to English and the reverse.

To make a nuanced analysis of explicitation patterns, a network composed of factors like linguistic forms and cognitive motivations has been established. With the unfolding of quantitative differences between these two groups and between the two interpreting directions in Chapter 5 to 8, a qualitative analysis explaining those differences identified will be followed in Chapter 9.

CHAPTER 4

Research methods

The specific methods for collecting data through an experiment and for analysing the collected data through statistical testings are presented in this chapter. The data that were collected include interpreters' CI products, their stimulated retrospection (see Section 4.4 for details), which is a reflection of their thinking process while interpreting, and notes they take down while doing CI.

4.1   Subjects

A total of 24 subjects participated in this study. They were put into either the professional group or the student group on the basis of their interpreting experience. The professional group was composed of 12 interpreters who had an average of 4 years of interpreting experience, with working hours ranging from 540 to 3240 hours.[9] Their average age was 28. Six of them were in-house interpreters, five were interpreter trainers and one was a freelancer. The student group consisted of 12 MA students who were receiving systematic interpreting training at a university in Hong Kong at the time of data collection. Their average age was 23. They had received interpreting training for only 14 weeks by taking two interpreting courses, "Interpreting: Principles" and "Consecutive Interpreting", in which they were trained in listening and analysis, memorising, note-taking, public speaking and other basic interpreting skills. Each course required them to practice three hours in class and five hours after class per week. Their mother tongue was Chinese (Putonghua) and their second language was English. Detailed information about the subjects is summarised in Table 4-1 (For information of each subject, see Appendix 1).

Table 4-1 Information of the subjects

	Avg. age	Age span	Gender (M:F)	Training time	Remarks
Professional group	28	25–32	3:9	> 2 years	5 interpreter trainers; 1 freelancer; 6 in-house interpreters
Student group	23	22–25	2:10	1 semester	no real interpreting experience

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9.   To collect information about their working experience, the professional interpreters were asked to provide information about not only years of working but also days of working per year. They were given four choices "< 30 days," "30–60 days," "60–90 days" and "> 90 days".

4.2   Variables

Explicitation pattern, which refers to the frequency and distribution of various kinds of explicitation phenomena, is the only dependent variable in this study, and the two independent variables include:

1. *Subjects' professional experience*: Subjects have been categorised into two groups according to the length of their professional experience. One is the professional group including interpreters with > 4 years of working experience; the other is the student group comprising student interpreters who have just received their systematic interpreting training for one semester;
2. *Interpreting direction*: In order to investigate explicitation features of subjects while they are doing CI in different interpreting directions, this research asked subjects to interpret in two directions – one is from A language to B language and the other is from B language to A language. All subjects have Chinese as their A language and English as B language; thus, in this study, A language to B language refers to Chinese to English, while B language to A language refers to English to Chinese thereinafter.

4.3   Materials

With a view to testing whether explicitation in CI has any direction-specific tendency, a Chinese speech and an English speech have been chosen to ensure the implementation of bidirectional interpreting tasks. Both speeches are related to the topic of education reform so as to minimise the interference that might be caused by differences in background information requirements.

The Chinese speech was delivered by Mr. Zhou Ji, China's former Minister of Education, at a press conference of the Chinese State Council Information Office on Aug. 27th, 2009. The excerpted part (6 minutes and 50 seconds long and 1566 Chinese characters in total) is the speaker's answer to a question raised by a journalist about educational reform in China, especially in the rural areas. Similar to speeches addressed by other high-ranking Chinese officials in press conferences, Mr. Zhou's answer was interpreted consecutively through a government interpreter.

The English speech, entitled "Leading Change in Asia: Challenges for School Leaders", was addressed by an American Professor to a group of Chinese teachers in a training program on educational leadership and management in the Asia-Pacific region. In the excerpted part (7 minutes and 1 seconds long and 829 English words in total), the speaker focuses on the characteristics of good and bad leadership, the

resistance caused by changes as well as the role teaching faculty should play while facing changes.

The information of the speeches were clearly and logically presented at normal speed (the Chinese speech delivered at 229 w/m[10] while the English one at 118 w/m). There is no background noise, and the speakers' pronunciation posed no difficulty (the two speakers speak standard Chinese and English, respectively). As the speeches were also originally accompanied by CI, they can be regarded as prototypical speeches that interpreters in China usually encounter on real working occasions.

4.4   Procedure

Preparation

An introduction of the procedure and requirements of the tasks that subjects were asked to do in a controlled working environment was first briefed to each of them. Background details, such as the main idea of the speeches, the length of the speeches as well as the biography of the speakers and the audience were also provided in a handout (see Appendix 2).

Warm-up

After a 10-minute preparation during which they can read the briefing handout and search information on the internet, all subjects took part in a warm-up exercise by interpreting another snippet of a speech given by the same speaker to familiarise themselves with the voice speed and the pronunciation of the speaker as well as the working condition.

The CI Task

All subjects (12 professional interpreters and 12 student interpreters) performed the CI task in front of the researchers with their interpreting products being recorded. Since there is a retrospection section where the researchers need to ask different questions to different subjects, each time only one subject was invited to interpret. The whole experiment lasted for about three hours. As it is not easy for professional interpreters to spare such a long time out from their busy schedule, it took about four months to finish the collection of all the data. As mentioned in Section 4.3, the two

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10. "w/m" stands for words per minute.

source speeches were originally delivered segment by segment because they were accompanied by CI. To maximise the ecological validity of the CI task, subjects also interpreted the two speeches segment by segment, and the segments were the same as the source speeches were first delivered. To minimise inter-subject difference, all subjects started from the Chinese speech to the English speech. Both the linguistic and the paralinguistic information (including pauses, hesitations, false starts and vowel/consonant lengthenings) in the audio recordings were later transcribed for further analysis. The notes they wrote down while doing CI were also collected for analysis. Yet to minimise the interference to their note-taking performance, the researchers did not inform the subjects of the collection of notes in advance.

Retrospection

The retrospection in this study was cued by the written transcript of the source speeches and the audio recording of the subjects' own interpreting products. The transcription of the two source speeches had been done before the experiment by using normalised orthography and punctuation. The subjects were asked to do the retrospection about their interpreting process while they were listening to the recording of their own products and referring to the transcript of the source speeches simultaneously. They can stop the recording and start the retrospection anytime they found necessary. There is no time limit for the length of the retrospection. Since recency of the task is a key element to facilitate retrospection (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 110), the subjects were asked to report their retrospection immediately after each interpreting task. In order to keep subjects unaware about the aim of the tasks – identifying interpreters' explicitation patterns – they were initiated to make comments on their delivery where they thought they had adopted an interpreting strategy. As mentioned in Section 3.5, distortion about the process may occur in interpreters' retrospection (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 112; Zimmerman & Schneider 1987: 179 & 194); hence, the researchers had reminded the subjects that their protocols should only reflect what they thought about during the task of CI. Comments and evaluation should be avoided.

Interview

As Kalina proposed (1998: 151–159, translated by Vik-Tuovinen 2002: 63), supplementary methods are advised to be adopted because retrospective comments made by interpreters themselves may have two drawbacks: on the one hand, "not all decisions made by the interpreter during interpreting are conscious, nor are they all remembered"; on the other hand, interpreters may not comment "on everything

they remember or notice during the retrospection session, or for rationalizing or explaining their own performance". This means "memory constraints", "subjects' energy and willingness to report what they recall" (England Dimitrova & Tiselius 2009: 114) may all affect the reliability of the retrospection data. To avoid the risk of this kind of incompleteness, while subjects were doing self-retrospection, questions to stimulate their retrospection had also been raised by the researchers so as to better reveal the interpreters' cognitive and metacognitive processes in performing explicitation in CI. Questions include "Just now, you added … to …, what were you thinking about at that moment?", "You've substituted … with …, why?" and "Is this your regular practice while doing CI or not?" To help subjects express their ideas in the most comfortable way, both retrospection and interviews were conducted in Chinese, the subjects' native language.

4.5   Data analysis

On the basis of the elaboration of the procedure, it is known that the data which can be used for analysing explicitation in this study include the recorded digital audio files of interpreters' CI products, their retrospective protocols and their feedback in the interview as well as their notes. Before analysing the data, all the audio files should be transcribed. For a better quantitative analysis of explicitation patterns between professional interpreters and student interpreters as well as between interpreting from Chinese to English and the reverse, a series of statistical testing should also be conducted. The ways to transcribe and analyse the data are presented in this section.

4.5.1   Transcription of the interpreting products

The transcription of the subjects' rendition began after all the data had been duly collected. As Powney and Watts (1987: 147) mentioned, a transcription is not a full representation of everything featured in the original oral language; hence, the transcription process *per se* is "an interpretation by the transcriber of what is being said". Conversation analysts Heritage & Atkinson (1984: 12) also claimed that "conversation analysts do *not* claim that the transcription system captures the details of a tape recording in all its particularities, *or* that a transcript should (or ever could) be viewed as a literal representation of, or observationally adequate substitute for, the data under analysis".[11] Schjoldager (1996: 68) even suggested that "all transcripts

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11. The italicization in this quotation is made by Heritage & Atkinson.

will miss out some details and will be relatively subjective". So, choosing an appropriate method of transcribing the data is a decision that should be made by taking the purpose of this study into full consideration. Just as reminded by Shlesinger (2008: 239), "the norm of transcription must be tailored to the specific research goal at hand, to prevent unwarranted omissions and 'corrections.'" To minimise the subjectivity and possibility of information loss, the following three basic principles of transcription have been stipulated:

1. Both the linguistic and the paralinguistic information should be transcribed.
2. The transcription should be as orthographic as possible.
3. Paralinguistic information should be labelled with clear signs.

The first principle dictates that except verbal information, prosodic features, including pauses, stammers and vowel/consonant lengthenings, should also be transcribed.

To implement the second principle, sentences were initiated by capital letters; sentence boundaries were marked by full stops, question marks or exclamation marks; however, different from standard orthography, commas are used not to indicate semantic pauses but short pauses the subjects make (compared with pauses indicated by marker <p> as informed in Table 3-1, the pauses indicated by commas are relatively short, less than one second).

For the third principle, the transcription contains a few self-devised symbols that cannot be found in standard orthography. Table 4-2 presents the specific symbols adopted in the transcription.

Table 4-2 Symbols for transcription

Type	Symbol	Example
Pause	Marker <p>	Teachers in China have reached the number of <p> one point six million
Stammer/hesitation	Marker <uh>	Faculty's <uh> training program
Vowel/Consonant lengthening	Marker ~	For the~ festival
Unusual pronunciation	Spelling	Motoblise (should be mobilise)
False start	Spelling	The top leaders ex- extended their congratulations
Intonation	Full stop	Yesterday was our Teachers' Day.
	Question mark	What is the key point?
	Exclamation mark	Thank you for your presence!

4.5.2   Transcription of the retrospection protocols

The retrospective protocols in this study comprise two parts: one is the retrospection provided by subjects in the retrospection section; the other is the feedback subjects provided in the interview section. Since the retrospection protocols are used to identify the motivation for explicitation, each retrospection entry is coded according to the motivation. To be specific, when the subject mentions that the explicitation is made for time management, the code "M1"[12] is marked; if the retrospection shows the explicitation is for gap-filling, the code "M2" is marked; if it shows the explicitation is for clarifying, the code "M3" is marked; if it shows the explicitation is to reinforce the speaker's attitude, the code "M4" is marked and if it shows the explicitation can be traced back to the notes, the code "M5" is marked. Yet, it should be noted that the identification of the motivation does not rely totally on the subjects' retrospection. For each explicitation shift, its motivation is decided after a full consideration of all the relevant data, including the linguistic and paralinguistic information in the interpreting product, subjects' notes and their retrospection protocols. The information collected from different channels can be triangulated with each other. In some cases, they may confirm each other; in some other cases, they may contradict with each other. For instance,

Example 4.5.2-1
> ST: 为什么党中央、国务院和人民群众 …… 重视呢？
> LT: Why do the Party Central Committee, the State Council and people attach such importance to …?
> S7:   the reason why I, <uh> [EE4M2]the government and the [EE1M1]**Chinese** <uh> party has attached so much importance on …

Example 4.5.2-1 is a case where the four kinds of information confirm each other. In this example, S7 recalled that while he was noting down "CPC", he missed the following input "国务院和人民群众 (the State Council and the people)", so s/he added "Chinese" to gain some time with the hope of recalling the information missed. On the basis of the retrospection, "M1" is marked. Then, the analysis proceeds with the linguistic and paralinguistic information in the product and the notes. The linguistic information confirms that the input "国务院和人民群众 (the

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12.   In the coding system for the retrospection protocols, "M" stands for "motivation." Meanings of "M1," "M2," "M3," "M4" and "M5" can be found in Table 3-1 in Section 3.5.

State Council and the people)" has been missed. The paralinguistic information, in this case, the hesitation mark <uh> after the explicitation, shows S7 encountered some difficulty. In S7's notes, only one abbreviation "CPC" can be found for the three elements involved "党中央、国务院和人民群众 (the CPC central committee, the State Council and the people)", which confirms that S7 missed the latter two elements. Considering the four different kinds of data, this explicitation shift can be marked with the motivation for time management.

There are also cases where subjects' retrospection is not that reliable. Sometimes, it may fail to reflect or even distort the fact for various reasons. For instance,

Example 4.5.2-2

ST: 下一步要把这个制度啊，要把它制度化，我们要让我们的老师都能够到农村去接受，这个锻炼，同时要为农村输送更多的高质量的老师。

LT: The next step is to systemise it. We shall enable our teachers to go to the rural areas to get practiced. Meanwhile [we shall] send more high-quality teachers to the rural areas.

P4: What we need to do next is to institutionalise [TE1M3]this practices, [TE3M3]so that [IE3M4]more and more teachers, will be able to [EE2M3]gain experience in the rural [EE3M3]schools, and more and more teachers, especially high-quality teachers [IE2M4]<u>**are willing to**</u> work in the countryside.
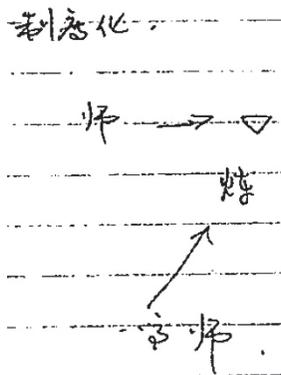
In Example 4.5.2-2, P4 made a series of explicitation shifts in this segment. When s/he was asked about the reason for expressing the idea "are willing to" in the interview section, P4's answer is that "I did not think about it". Hence, the retrospection failed to give any cue about the motivation. Since the notes only show the superficial structure of the source speech, neither can any cue be found from the notes. With no difficulty indicator in the paralinguistic information, the motivation for time management can be excluded. Finally, considering the linguistic information, the substitution of "teachers are send to the rural area" with "teachers are willing to work in the countryside" makes the speaker's implied attitude explicit. Hence, the

motivation for reinforcing the speaker's implied attitude (M4) can be marked. This example illustrates that in some cases, the explicitation is an automatic product, which the interpreter might not be aware of.

4.5.3   Statistical analysis of explicitation patterns and interpreting experience

In order to find whether there is any significant difference in the explicitation pattern between the professional group and the student group, a series of statistical tests should be conducted. Since there are only 12 subjects in each group, which is less than 30, the required minimal sample size for the parameter test (Salkind 2011: 182), the Mann-Whitney Test, a kind of non-parametric test widely adopted to show differences between two groups (Corder & Foreman 2009: 57), is conducted by using SPSS 19.0.

The threshold for statistical significance in this study is demonstrated by a p value less than 0.05. When the p value goes below 0.05, the odds of the difference between the two groups are over 95%. Furthermore, as pointed out by Field (2009: 56), "[…] a test statistic is significant does not mean that the effect it measures is meaningful or important. The solution […] is to measure the size of an effect", so this study also takes another indicator, the effect size, into account.

An effect size "is an objective and (usually) standardized measure of the magnitude of observed effect" (ibid.). Following the advice of Field (ibid. 550), r has been adopted as the effect size measure. And r can be calculated from the Z value (generated by the statistical test) and n value (the size of the study, i.e., the number of total observations) according to the following equation (Rosenthal 1991: 19):

$$r = \frac{|Z|}{\sqrt{n}}$$

The n value (the total number of observations) in this study is 24. According to the guidelines given by Cohen (1988, cited from Field 2009: 57), the thresholds for a small effect, a medium one and a big one are 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5, respectively.

In this study, when the p value is below 0.05 and the effect size r is over 0.3, the difference is regarded as a significant one. For instance, supposing that professional interpreters make a certain kind of explicitation more frequently than student interpreters, the p value is less than 0.05 and the effect size r is above 0.3. It shows that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted an over-medium effect on the number of such explicitations that interpreters make and also that professional interpreters make significantly more such explicitation shifts than their student counterparts.

4.5.4   Statistical analysis of explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

When measuring the differences between the explicitation pattern identified from the C-E CI and E-C CI, two sets of frequency coming from the same subjects need to be compared. As there are only 12 subjects in each group, less than 30, the required minimal sample size for the parameter test (Salkind 2011: 182), a non-parametric test, needs to be chosen. As the comparison is between two sets of scores coming from the same subjects, according to Field (2009: 552), the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test can be adopted to measure the difference between the 24 interpreters' explicitation patterns in C-E CI and E-C CI.

When the p value is below 0.05, it means the odds of difference between the two interpreting directions are over 95%. In addition, as mentioned in Section 4.5.3, the effect size r is also taken into account. When the effect size r is over 0.3, the lower limit of a medium effect, it represents the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerts an over-medium effect. In the case that the p value is below 0.05 and the effect size r is over 0.3, the inter-direction difference is regarded as a significant one.

Experiential explicitations

Moser-Mercer et al. (2000: 109) claims that "experts' semantic interpretation almost always being tied to the context of a speech or a text, whereas students' semantic interpretations are often entirely unrelated to the context". This statement indicates that the professional group would make more experiential explicitations than their student counterparts. Is there any difference between these two groups' performance on experiential explicitations or any difference between the experiential explicitation patterns if the CI task is in two opposite interpreting directions? These questions are addressed in this chapter. To be specific, differences in professional and student interpreters' experiential explicitation patterns in C-E CI are reported in Section 5.1; differences in their experiential explicitation patterns in E-C CI are reported in Section 5.2 and effects of interpreting direction on interpreters' experiential explicitation patterns are reported in Section 5.3.

5.1 Experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

This section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their experiential explicitation patterns in C-E CI. According to the typology framework of this study (see Figure 3-1), there are four subcategories under experiential explicitation: modifier-based explicitation, process-based explicitation, circumstantial adjunct-based explicitation and participant-based explicitation. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of experiential explicitations in C-E CI are reported in the following four subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on experiential explicitation patterns in C-E CI can be found in Section 5.1.5.

5.1.1 Results of modifier-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

For a terminological note, the word "modifier" only refers to "experiential modifier" (see Section 3.3). Table 5.1-1 gives the number of all the modifier-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made modifier-based explicitations.

Table 5.1-1 Number of modifier-based explicitations in C-E CI

EE1	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	40	5	0	5	246	20	316
CES	81	0	9	6	161	14	271

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters made more implied modifier additions for clarifying than their student counterparts.
> Observation Two: There are more implied modifier additions for time management in the student group than in the professional group.
> Observation Three: Student interpreters made more modifier-based explicitations for gap-filling than the professionals.
> Observation Four: Overall, the majority of modifier-based explicitations are made for clarifying. Yet still 16% of modifier-based explicitations in the professional group and 35% in the student group have also been used as a strategy to compensate interpreters' "inadequacy in interpreting competency" (see Section 3.5).

Illustration on the observations:

1. There are over 200 inferable modifier additions in each group (316 in professional group and 271 in student group), and all 24 subjects have made this type of explicitation (see Figure 5.1-1, 5.1-2 and 5.1-3), which demonstrates that both professional and student interpreters seem to pursue the strategy of specifying nouns or nominal groups mentioned by the speaker with additional modifiers in C-E CI. Example 5.1.1-1 and 5.1.1-2 are typical cases:

Example 5.1.1-1 [14]
> ST: 第一个问题，我想谈一谈教师队伍建设的问题。
> LT: [For] the first question, I would like to talk about the issue of faculty team building.
> P1: First, I would like to talk about the building of the faculty team [EE1M3]**in China**.

The explicitation evidenced in the above example, the addition of modifier "in China", a concept inferable from the situation, provides a precise description of the location of the mentioned faculty team building.

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14. In all the following examples, tables and figures, the coding system for type of explicitation is that the first three letters (from EE1 to TE3) stand for the form of explicitation while the last two letters (from M1 to M4) stand for the type of motivation. Therefore, in Example 5.1.1-1, EE1M3 in P1's rendition stands for "modifier-based explicitation for clarifying" (see Transcription key for details).

Example 5.1.1-2

    ST: 而现在我们教育发展到一个最关键的时刻

    LT: And now our education has developed into the most critical moment.

    S12: and now, the [EE1M3]__national__ education has come into a very critical period.

In Example 5.1.1-2, the modifier "national", a concept inferable from the co-text, has been added. As a result, it explicitates the meaning of "our".

These two examples illustrate clearly that "if a speaker [in this case, an interpreter can be regarded also as a speaker] is unsure of the accessibility of an entity in a hearer's consciousness, s/he is likely to oversupply information so that comprehension is ensured" (Toole 1996: 278).

There are 246 modifier additions for clarifying in the professional group whereas only 161 in the student group (see Table 5.1-1). The frequency of such shifts made by each subject is shown in Figure 5.1-1.
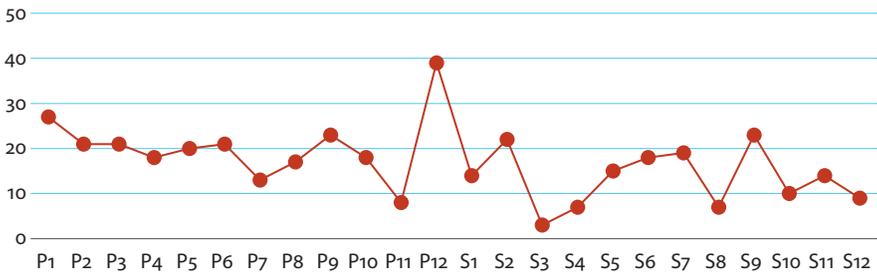
Figure 5.1-1 Frequency of EE1M3 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

As mentioned in Section 4.5.3, the Mann-Whitney Test has been employed to measure the difference between these two groups in the number of modifier-based explicitations for clarifying.

Table 5.1-2 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE1M3 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE1M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	36.00	−2.083	0.425	0.037	95%

As shown in Table 5.1-2, the test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.037$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds of difference between these two groups are more than 95%. Moreover, with the effect size r being 0.425, the magnitude of the above difference is somewhere between medium and big. In other words, the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted an over-medium effect on the number of modifier additions they make for clarifying. Thus, it is justifiable to argue that while doing C-E CI, professional

interpreters specify entities mentioned by the speaker through the addition of modifiers more often than their student counterparts. Example 5.1.1-3 and 5.1.1-4 made by professional interpreters may help illustrate the point:

Example 5.1.1-3
   ST: 召开了教师座谈会
   LT: held a meeting with the faculty members
   P1:   held a round table meeting~ with the faculty members [EE1M3]**of the school**

Example 5.1.1-4
   ST: 在这个历史时期
   LT: at this historical stage
   P6:   in this [EE1M3]**new** era [EE1M3]**of development**

In these two examples, to secure listeners' optimal processing, P1 added the modifier "of the school" to clarify where those faculty members come from, while P6 specified "the era" with two other features "new" and "of development".

2.   Altogether 40 additions of implied modifiers for time management have been identified in the professional group, while 81 additions were found in the student group (see Figure 5.1-2).
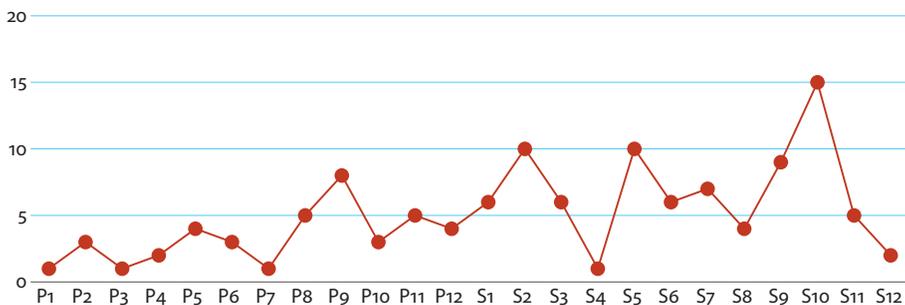
Figure 5.1-2 Frequency of EE1M1 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

As shown in Table 5.1-3, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.014$). The p value, being lower than 0.05, also indicates an over 95% possibility that a significant difference exists between these two groups in their patterns of modifier-based additions for time management.

Table 5.1-3 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE1M1(Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE1M1(Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	29.50	−2.469	0.504	0.014	95%

Furthermore, with the effect size measure *r* here being 0.504, the magnitude of the difference is big. In other words, the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted a huge effect on the number of modifier additions that interpreters make for time management. Thus, it is safe to conclude that while lacking information-processing time, student interpreters make more inferable modifier additions to gain extra time than their professional counterparts. Example 5.1.1-5 and 5.1.1-6 are typical cases from the student group:

Example 5.1.1-5
    ST: 第三件事呢，是大力加强农村教师的培训。
    LT: The third thing is to greatly enhance the training of rural teachers.
    S3: The third thing [EE1M1]**we need to do** <p> is to <p> enhance the training for teachers in rural areas.

As already indicated in his/her notes, S3 did not jot down anything for "大力 (greatly)" while listening to the source speech. It can be assumed that S3 spent some extra time in recalling the information not on the notes. For this purpose, an easily inferable modifier – the qualifier (see Section 3.2) "we need to do" – has been added, which made the concept of "the third thing" more specific to listeners.

Example 5.1.1-6
    ST: 为什么党中央、国务院和人民群众对教师队伍建设这么重视呢？
    LT: Why do the Party Central Committee, the State Council and people attach such importance to the building of the faculty team?
    S7: the reason why I, <uh> [EE4M2]the government and the [EE1M1]**Chinese** <uh> party has attached so much importance on the quality, <uh> on [EE4M2]improving the quality [IE3M4]overall is …

S7 mentioned in retrospection that the jotting down of "CPC" distracted himself/herself from listening to the other two terms "国务院 (the State Council)" and "人民群众 (people)". Therefore, while interpreting, s/he substituted "the State Council" with a more general idea "the government" in the TT. Although the addition of the modifier "Chinese" can be explained by the first "C" in the abbreviation "CPC" in the notes, the following hesitation marker <uh> suggests that this addition is a time-management strategy. It might be attributed to the interpreter's effort of trying to recall the exact names of the other two terms that he missed while uttering "Chinese <uh>".

3.   Only the student group has made modifier additions for gap-filling, and these nine cases are made by five student interpreters (see Figure 5.1-3).
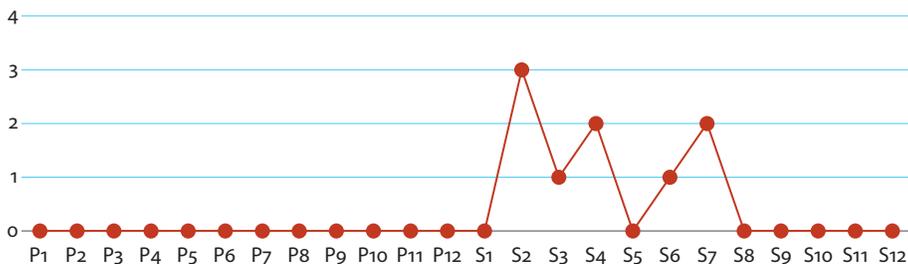
Figure 5.1-3 Frequency of EE2M2 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

As shown by Table 5.1-4, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups in adding modifiers for gap-filling ($p = 0.015$, $r = 0.498$).

Table 5.1-4 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE1M2 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE1M2 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	42.00	−2.441	0.498	0.015	95%

Yet, it should be noted that although the statistical analysis shows a significant difference between the two groups, since only nine relevant shifts were identified in this study, it could also be a result of individual divergence. Hence, the small amount of relevant data does not permit any definite conclusions to be drawn. Only future researches with more related data can provide a tenable answer. Example 5.1.1-7 and 5.1.1-8 are typical shifts made by student interpreters:

Example 5.1.1-7
ST: 在这个历史时期，我刚才说到了，是一个全面提高教育质量的新阶段。
LT: At this historical stage, [as] I mentioned just now, [it] is a new stage to improve education quality in an all-around way.
S7: Now <uh> [EE3M2]over the [EE1M2]**past** years, [IE2M2]China has been working [IE3M2]very hard on improving the quality of education endeavour.

历
会个 拾厄

Although S7 noted down the keyword "历 (history)" to represent the original idea "在这个历史时期 (at this historical stage)", s/he later misinterpreted it as "历史上 (in the past history)". That is why s/he substituted the original temporal phrase with "over the past years". Since this new idea can be inferred not from the original message but other information in the co-text, it forms an instance of explicitation for gap-filling. Within this phrase, "past" is an independent part that can be deleted without causing any loss of information; thus, it was labelled separately as an implied modifier addition for gap-filling.

Example 5.1.1-8

ST: 刘延东同志在**表彰**大会上发表了一篇重要讲话。

LT: Comrade Liu Yandong, at the awarding ceremony, delivered an important speech.

S2: ^{TE3M1}And in the, in the meeting, ^{EE1M2}**where we are going to make \<uh\> our congratulation to** ^{EE1M2}**our teachers**, Ms., Mr. Liu give a speech.

S2 mentioned in his/her verbalisation that s/he did not know the English expression for "表彰大会 (awarding ceremony)", so s/he decided to fill in this gap caused by incompetency in expressing with some explanation "where we are going to make \<uh\> our congratulation to our teachers", an idea that is inferable from the previous text rather than the original segment. Thus, this modifier should be labelled as an implied modifier addition for gap-filling. This explanation makes explicit to listeners some conventional routine that would occur in an awarding ceremony.

4. There are 50 modifier-based explicitations made for time management or gap-filling in the professional group while there were 96 in the student group, which demonstrates that not all modifier-based explicitations are made for clarifying; in some cases, they are made to compensate interpreters' inadequate interpreting competency. This point can be well illustrated by the above Example 5.1.1-5, 5.1.1-6, 5.1.1-7 and 5.1.1-8.

5.1.2   Results of process-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 5.1-5 gives the number of process-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. The qualitative analysis, as is shown in the table, has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made process-based explicitations.

Table 5.1-5 Number of process-based explicitations in C-E CI

EE2	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	3	1	0	3	17	98	122
CES	2	1	1	6	26	94	130

The following observations can be made from the table:

Observation One: There are more inferable process additions for clarifying in the student group than in the professional group.

Observation Two: There is a similar number of inferable process substitutions for clarifying in both groups.

Observation Three: There is a similar number of process-based explicitations made for earning extra processing time in both groups.

Observation Four: There is a similar number of process-based explicitations made for gap-filling in both groups.

Observation Five: Overall, the majority of process-based explicitations are made for clarifying. Yet, there are still interpreters in both groups who use such shift as a strategy to solve the problems in their process (see Section 3.5).

Illustration on the observations:

1. Altogether, there are 17 process-based additions for clarifying in the professional group while there are 26 in the student group. The Mann-Whitney Test, as shown in Table 5.1-6, reveals the difference between the two groups in the number of adding process-based information for clarifying is not significant ($p = 0.360$), there is no sufficient evidence to conclude that student interpreters are more prone to specify the original information by providing additional processes than their professional counterparts.

Table 5.1-6 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE2M3 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE2M3 (Add)	U	Z	R	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	56.50	−0.915	0.187	0.360	No significant difference
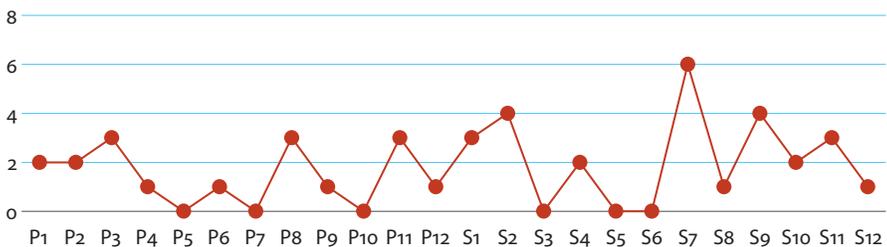
Figure 5.1-4 Frequency of EE2M3 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

Yet, as is graphically represented in Figure 5.1-4, the majority of professional and student interpreters (18 out of 24) did make this type of explicitation, which means it is common for both professional and student interpreters to pursue the strategy

of adding processes for clarifying the original message. This point can be well illustrated by Example 5.1.2-1 and 5.1.2-2:

Example 5.1.2-1

ST: 所以，为什么我觉得你问的，第一个问题特别重要呢？

LT: So, why do I think the first question you asked is very important?

P1: So I [IE2M4]would like to say the first~ issue you mentioned is very important. [EE2M3]**It's about building of the faculty team**.

Except expressing the speaker's emphasis on the importance of the first question, P1 added another process "It's about building of the faculty team" to specify what the first question refers to.

Example 5.1.2-2

ST: 城乡之间教育还存在着比较大的差距 …… 我们正在继续努力

LT: there is still [a] relatively large gap between education in rural and urban areas … We are continuing in making efforts

S11: We are [EE3M3]now working [IE3M4]very hard [EE2M3]**to, narrow down the differences** [EE4M3]between the <uh> faculty in the rural [TE2M3]area and the urban area.

In the original, the speaker did not mention what kind of effort they are making, so this information is leaving for listeners to think about by themselves. Yet, S11, as a listener and a communication mediator, added a process "to narrow down the differences", which further elucidates to listeners what the purpose of "努力 (making efforts)" is.

2. There are around 100 inferable process substitutions for clarifying in both groups, and as shown in Figure 5.1-5, every interpreter has made this kind of explicitation.
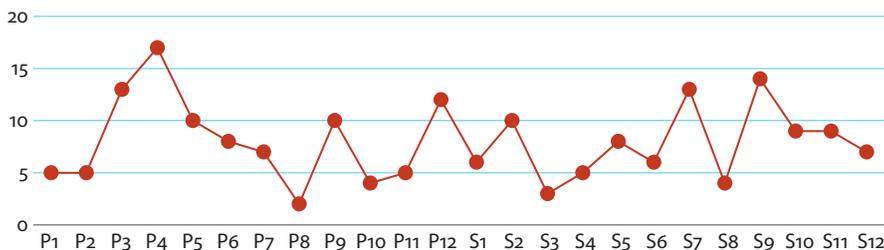
Figure 5.1-5 Frequency of EE2M3 (Sub) made by each subject in C-E CI

Hence, it is justifiable to claim that professional and student interpreters regularly rephrase the original process for listeners' better comprehension. Example 5.1.2-3 and 5.1.2-4 can illustrate this point:

Example 5.1.2-3

ST: 在教师队伍建设这个方面，我们要**摆在更加突出的战略地位**

LT: In terms of the building of faculty team, we shall put [it] in a more prominent strategic position

P3: We need to [EE2M3]**improve the strategic, significance** of the team building of the faculty.

The original process "摆在更加突出的战略地位 (put in a more prominent strategic position)" has been rephrased into the more straightforward idea "improve the strategic, significance". P3 mentioned in his/her retrospection that s/he found the logic of the original quite unclear so s/he did not render it literally. Instead, s/he substituted it with the general idea "increase the strategic significance", which is his/her understanding after processing this original information.

Example 5.1.2-4

ST: 党和政府特别重视农村教师队伍建设

LT: the Party and the government attached great importance to the building of rural faculty team.

S11: the [EE1M3]Communist Party and the government have [IE2M4]made a lot of efforts [EE2M3]**to improve** [EE4M3]the quality of the <uh> teaching faculty in the rural areas.

The original process "重视 (attach importance to)" has been paraphrased into "made efforts to improve". In this phrase, "made efforts" is a judgemental addition emphasising the contribution made by "the Party and the government" while "to improve" is a process substitution of "重视 (attach importance to)".

3. Process-based explicitations for time management and gap-filling are very rare in both groups (seven cases in the professional group and ten in the student group), so it is not regular for professional or student interpreters to earn extra time or fill in gaps resulting from information loss through the addition or substitution of processes.

5.1.3   Results of circumstance-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 5.1-7 gives the number of all the circumstance-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. As is shown in the table, the qualitative analysis has identified three types of situation, where the interpreters have made this type of explicitation.

Table 5.1-7 Number of circumstance-based explicitations in C-E CI

EE3	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	18	0	0	1	100	8	127
CES	52	1	1	3	58	7	122

The following observations can be yielded from the above table:

> Observation One: There are more inferable circumstance-based additions for clarifying in the professional group than in the student group.
>
> Observation Two: There are more circumstance-based additions for time management in the student group than in the professional group.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 100 additions of inferable circumstantial adjuncts have been found in the professional group, while there are 58 such shifts in the student group, which demonstrates that it is common for both professional and student interpreters to add circumstantial adjuncts in C-E CI as an approach to facilitate listeners' comprehension.

Table 5.1-8 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE3M3 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE3M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	34.50	−2.176	0.444	0.030	95%

In addition, as shown in Table 5.1-8, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.030$). With the p value lower than 0.05, the odds of the difference are above 95%. Furthermore, with the effect size measure r being 0.444, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere between medium and big. This shows that there is an interaction between the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – and the number of circumstance-based additions interpreters have made. Therefore, we can conclude that compared with their student counterparts, professional interpreters are more prone to make circumstance-based additions as a way to facilitate the communication than their student counterparts in C-E CI. Example 5.1.3-1 and 5.1.3-2 are typical instances from each group:

Example 5.1.3-1

ST: 在这个历史时期，我刚才说到了，是一个全面提高教育质量的新阶段。

LT: At this historical stage, [as] I mentioned just now, [it] is a new stage to improve the education quality in an all-around way.

S6:   [TE2M3]We have [EE3M3]**already** entering into a new stage. As just, as I just mentioned that we need to improve [TE1M3]our quality of education.

In this example, the original circumstantial adjunct "在这个历史时期 (at this historical stage)" has been elaborated into "we have already entering into a new stage", which is a concept that is inferable from the previous clause "我们教育 [......] 发展到了一个新的历史时期 (Our education […] has developed into a new historical stage)". S6 reported in the verbalisation that this new structure was formed while looking at "历时 (historical stage)" in the notes. Within this shift, the implied actor "we" has been complemented. So the "we have … entered into" part is labelled as an "ellipsis-based explicitation". Furthermore, the added temporal element "already" is labelled as "a circumstance-based explicitation", reiterating the current state of being in a new development stage. Since no difficulty indicator (see Section 3.5) can be found following these shifts, they were put into the category of being motivated by the intention of clarifying.

Example 5.1.3-2

ST: 硬件差距还有，但是不是最重要的

LT: There is still [a] gap in infrastructure, but [it] is not the most important [one].

P2:   [EE2M1]we could see <uh>the hardware <uh> facility [EE1M3]of the schools are not the most <uh> critical [EE4M3]difference [EE3M3]**between the two areas**

In this case, the participant "difference" in the second clause has been provided by P2 so as to provide listeners with more details. Furthermore, a circumstantial adjunct "between the two areas" has been added to inform listeners about the specific areas of the difference.

2.   There are 18 inferable circumstantial adjunct additions for time management in the professional group, while there are 52 in the student group.

Table 5.1-9 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE3M1 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

EE3M1 (Add)	U	Z	*r*	*p*	Remarks
CEP vs CES	21.00	−3.045	0.622	0.002	95%

The Mann-Whitney Test, as shown in Table 5.1-9, reveals a significant difference ($p = 0.002$). The p value, below 0.05, suggests an over 95% possibility for the existence of a significant difference between the two groups. Moreover, as the effect size measure r reaches 0.622, the magnitude of the difference is markedly big. In other words, the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted a huge effect on the number of inferable circumstantial adjunct additions interpreters made for time management. This demonstrates that while lacking information-processing time, student interpreters tend to gain extra time by adding inferable circumstantial adjuncts more frequently than their professional counterparts. Example 5.1.3-3 and 5.1.3-4 are typical cases of adding circumstantial adjuncts for time management made by student interpreters:

Example 5.1.3-3
    ST: 我们已经 …… 建设成为一个人力资源大国
    LT: we have already … built into a country with huge human resources
    S8:   we … [EE3M1]**now** [TE2M1]we <p> have changed into, transformed into <p> a~ country [IE3M4]full of human resources

In this example, S8 did not take any notes. The pause and repetition indicate the additions of the circumstantial adjunct "now" and the elliptical subject "we" as strategies of time management. It seems plausible that S8 was using the extra time thus gained to figure out ways of expressing the ensuing term "人力资源大国 (a country with huge human resources)".

Example 5.1.3-4
    ST: 我们已经建立起一支有1600万人的一支教师队伍
    LT: We have already built a faculty team with 16 million people.
    S5:   I think we have [EE3M1]**now** [EE3M1]**in China** <uh> 16 million teaching staffs [EE3M3]in all

1600万 教队

Here two circumstantial adjuncts "now" and "in China" have been added, which illustrate the time and the location of the process "建立起一支 …… 教师队伍 (built a faculty team)" in the original. The hesitation marker "<uh>" suggests these two additions could result from the time-management intention. It is likely that S5 made the above two explicitations to gain time in processing the rendition of the figure "16 million".

5.1.4   Results of participant-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 5.1-10 gives the number of participant-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made such explicitations.

Table 5.1-10 Number of participant-based explicitations in C-E CI

EE4	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	2	0	0	20	37	100	159
CES	1	0	0	23	41	88	153

This table allows us to make the following observations:

> Observation One: There is a similar number of inferable participant additions for clarifying in both groups.
>
> Observation Two: There is a similar number of inferable participant substitutions for clarifying in both groups.
>
> Observation Three: There is a similar number of participant-based explicitation shifts for gap-filling in both groups.
>
> Observation Four: Although the majority of participant-based explicitations are made for clarifying, 14% such shifts in the professional group and 16% in the student group have been made for compensating interpreters' inadequate interpreting competency (see Section 3.5).

Illustration on the observations:

1. As displayed in Figure 5.1-6, every subject has added participants for clarifying.
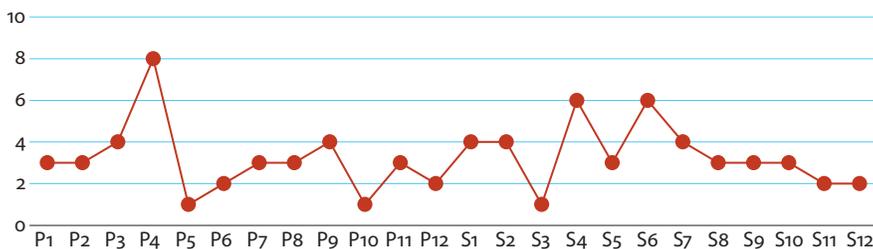
Figure 5.1-6 Frequency of EE4M3 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

Specifically speaking, with about 40 inferable participant additions for clarifying in both groups (37 in the professional group and 41 in the student group) and

the involvement of every interpreter, it could be concluded that the addition of inferable participants to facilitate listeners' comprehension is a regular practice for both professional and student interpreters. Example 5.1.4-1 and 5.1.4-2 are typical instances from each group:

Example 5.1.4-1
ST: 这是一支很好的队伍，是一支能战斗、能奉献的队伍

LT: This is a very good team, is a team [that] can fight and contribute.

P2: in this <uh> this team, they are really very good and [TE2M3]they have the capacity to fight and [TE3M3]also to contribute [EE4M3]**to the education** [EE1M3]of China.
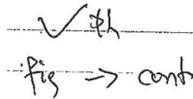
In this example, although it has not been noted down in P2's notes, s/he added the participant "to the education" to the original process "to contribute". This is a concept inferable from the co-text. Since no difficulty indicator (see Section 3.5) can be found following the addition, this addition is labelled as a participant addition for clarifying, informing listeners of the exact area that the contributions are dedicated to.

Example 5.1.4-2
ST: 同时我们能够看到在教师队伍建设这个方面，我们要摆在更加突出的战略地位。

LT: Meanwhile, we can see in terms of the building of faculty team, we shall put [it] in a more prominent strategic position.

S6: And we saw, we've [EE3M1]already~ seen that <uh> we need to <uh> [EE2M3]lay out the strategic <uh> strategic measures of <uh> building up a [IE2M4]good teaching faculty [EE4M3]**for** [TE1M3]our **children**.
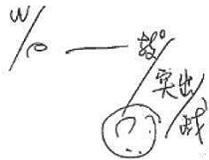
Here, "children", the beneficiary[15] of the original process "摆在更加突出的战略地位 (put … in a more prominent strategic position)", has been provided by S6, which illustrates directly to listeners who is the receiver of this process.

---

15. A "beneficiary" is a kind of participant in Systemic Functional Grammar. According to Halliday (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 293), the beneficiary is the one to whom or for whom the process is said to take place.

2. Figure 5.1-7 displays every subject's frequency in making participant substitutions for clarifying.
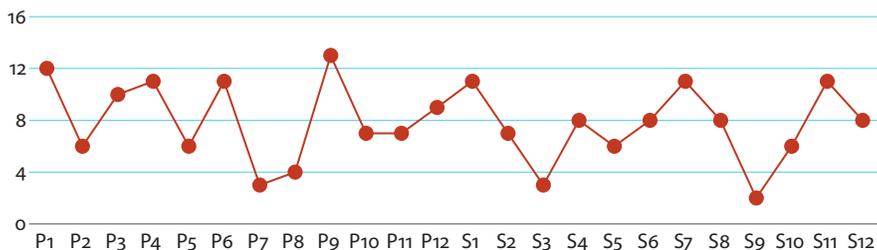
Figure 5.1-7 Frequency of EE4M3 (Sub) made by each subject in C-E CI

With 100 inferable participant substitutions for clarifying in the professional group and 88 in the student group as well as every interpreter's involvement, it can be safely concluded that to optimise communication through rephrasing the original participants is regularly made by professional and student interpreters in C-E CI. Example 5.1.4-3 and 5.1.4-4 are typical cases from each group:

Example 5.1.4-3

ST:　下一个阶段我们就是要想办法让孩子们能够**上好学**。

LT:　[In] the next stage, we shall think out ways to let children be able to receive good education.

S1:　^{TE3M3}And in the next stage, our ^{EE2M3}target is ^{EE4M3}**to improve the quality of education**.

In this example, the original participant "上好学 (to receive good education)" has been rephrased into "to improve the quality of education". If the original participant is children-oriented, the substituted one can be regarded as government-oriented, stating clearly to listeners what the government needs to do so as to fulfil the task of letting children receive good education.

Example 5.1.4-4

ST:　所以大家都知道，百年大计，教育为本；教育大计，教师为本。

LT:　So you all know [that], the fundamental issue of the one hundred year's great [development] plan lies in education; the fundamental issue of the educational [development] plan lies in the teachers.

P6:　<uh> That is what we call <uh> <uh> the long range <uh> ^{EE2M3}that is what we call ^{EE4M3}**the future** lies in a ^{IE3M4}long-range program of education, ^{TE3M3}and ^{TE2M3}that is what we call ^{EE4M3}**the future of education** lies in a ^{IE2M4}good <uh> ^{EE1M3}troop of teachers.

P6 did not take down any notes for this segment. S/he mentioned in the retrospection that for those "four-character structures" in the original, s/he needed extra time to decode them. That is why s/he uttered some hesitations and repetitions at the beginning. Making full use of the time thus earned, s/he was able to explicitate the original information by rephrasing "百年大计" with "the future" and "教育" with "the future of education". With the repeated use of "the future … lies in" at the beginning of each clause, a parallel structure has been achieved, which to some extent echoes the original structure " …… 大计 …… 为本; …… 大计 …… 为本 (the fundamental issue of … plan lies in …; the fundamental issue of … plan lies in …)".

3. There are two inferable participant additions made for time management in the professional group while there is one in the student group. Due to the scarcity of such shifts, hardly can any judgment be made on whether the quantity of this type of explicitation has any relationship with the interpreters' professional experience. This has to be explored by further studies with a larger sample size and longer interpreting material. Yet, some common features can still be identified from the three cases.

Example 5.1.4-5
    ST: 从有学上到上好学
    LT: from having access to education to receiving good education
    P8:   from [EE4M1]**the period** of <uh> from the period that [TE2M3]children has the opportunity <uh> have the opportunity to go to school into <uh> [TE2M3]the period that [TE2M3]they have <uh> the opportunity to receive better education

Here, the hesitation marker suggests that P8 added the category word "the period" so as to gain extra time in reorganising the following idea. As a result, P8 also complemented the process "have access to education" with its implied subject "children". Similar explanation also applies to the following case, where the category word "a measure of" has been added for gaining extra time in figuring out ways of rendering the following complex program name.

Example 5.1.4-6
    ST: 我们这几年来推广了一个"农村义务教育阶段特设岗位计划"
    LT: We have promoted a "special post program for the rural compulsory education" over these years
    P2:   in recent years, we have [TE3M3]also adopted [EE4M1]**a measure of** <p> compulsory education special <p> [EE1M3]teachers' position system

Example 5.1.4-7

> ST: … 能够为我们农村的孩子们，能够提供更加优质的教育资源，使得他们接受良好的教育
>
> LT: … can provide our rural children with better education resources, to let them receive good education
>
> S10:   … give the children there \<uh> [EE4M1]**the chance** \<p> to have \<uh> a better education.

In this example, the hesitation marker, the illegible symbol[16] in the notes and the missing of "更加优质的教育资源 (better education resources)" suggest that S10's addition of the participant "the chance" was for earning some time in recognising notes and dealing with the following key information.

The above analysis shows that for time-management purpose, the participants that interpreters added are all category words. In other words, while lacking information-processing time, professional and student interpreters might both earn extra time through the addition of category words before the original participants.

4.   As shown in Figure 5.1-8, only two interpreters from each group did not perform participant substitutions for gap-filling.
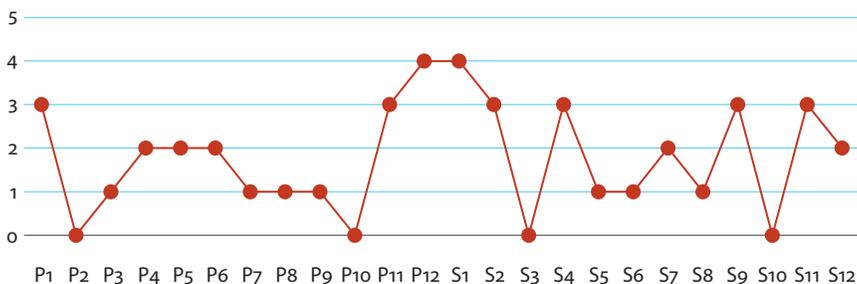
Figure 5.1-8 Frequency of EE4M2 (Sub) made by each subject in C-E CI

With the involvement of the majority of interpreters in both groups in substituting participants for gap-filling, it is justifiable to conclude that while missing participant elements in the original, both professional and student interpreters tend to substitute this information loss with another participant that is inferable from other information in the context. The following are typical examples from each group:

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16. The first word in the notes is an illegible one, a wrongly written Chinese character, whereas the second character is a correctly written Chinese character "良 (good)."

Example 5.1.4-8
ST: 刘延东同志
LT: Comrade Liu Yandong
P3:   ^{EE4M2}one of the leader
P4:   ^{EE4M2}Another of our colleagues
P12: ^{EE4M2}one of ^{TE1M3}our ^{EE1M3}government leaders
S9:   ^{EE4M2}another leader
S11: ^{EE4M2}One member of the Communist Party

Names of person, especially names that the interpreter is not familiar with, usually require extra processing effort while interpreting. In the above rendition, while missing the exact name, the interpreters tried to substitute the name they cannot recall with the person's title, which is inferable from the situation (in the national reception ceremony, important speeches are usually delivered by national leaders).

Example 5.1.4-9
ST: 为什么 […] 对教师队伍建设这么重视呢？
LT: Why […] attach such importance to the building of the faculty team?
P1:   […] pays special attention and great importance to~ ^{EE4M2}the issue of ^{EE4M2}**education**
P4:   […] has attached great importance to ^{EE4M2}**education**.
P5:   the constant importance has been ^{EE1M3}constantly played […] on ^{EE4M2}**education**
P6:   […] attach great importance to ^{EE4M2}**education**
P8:   […] pay a lot of attention to ^{EE4M2}**education**
P9:   […] valued ^{EE4M2}**education**, a lot
P11: […] pay close attention to ^{EE4M2}the topic of ^{EE4M2}**education**.
P12: […] attach great importance to ^{EE4M2}**education**
S1:   […] are concerned with ^{EE4M2}the quality of ^{EE4M2}**education**
S5:   […] have paid great attention to ^{EE4M2}**education**
S7:   […] has attached so much importance on the quality, <uh> on ^{EE4M2}**improving the quality**
S8:   Why […] emphasise on the importance of ^{EE4M2}**education**?
S9:   […] think that ^{EE4M2}**education** is very important
S11: […] attach great importance to the ^{EE4M2}**education**
S12: […] pay great attention to ^{EE4M2}**national education development**

While rendering this clause, the majority of interpreters, both professionals and students, have substituted the original participant "教师队伍建设" with "education", a more general concept. This substitution can be related to the following clause "中国人就有尊师重教的传统 (in history Chinese people have embraced the tradition of respecting teachers and valuing education)", where "尊师重教 (respecting teachers and valuing education)" appears as the key information. So inferring from the idea of the following clause, interpreters extended the implication of "the building of

faculty team" to the more general scope of "education". And since the inferential source is not the original information but the following clause, the above substitution is labelled as participant-based explicitation for gap-filling.

5.1.5 Results of experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

On the basis of the above analysis about the four subcategories of experiential explicitations, it is found that in C-E CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made experiential explicitations. Table 5.1-11 sums up the total number of experiential explicitations made by each group:

Table 5.1-11 Number of experiential explicitations in C-E CI

EE	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	63	6	0	29	400	226	724
CES	136	2	11	38	286	203	676

The data have been further measured by the Mann-Whitney Test. As shown in Table 5.1-12, significant differences between the two groups can be identified in the number of adding inferable experiential content for time management ($p = 0.004$), gap-filling ($p = 0.015$) and clarifying ($p = 0.043$) purposes.

Table 5.1-12 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of CEEEM1 (Add),[17] CEEEM2 (Add)[18] and CEEEM3 (Add)[19] between the two groups in C-E CI

CEP vs CES	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEEEM1 (Add)	22.50	−2.865	0.585	0.004	95%
CEEEM2 (Add)	42.00	−2.440	0.498	0.015	95%
CEEEM3 (Add)	37.00	−2.024	0.413	0.043	95%

Moreover, with the three relevant effect size r being 0.585, 0.498 and 0.413, the magnitude of the above differences are all over medium (the magnitude of the inter-group difference in making experiential additions for time management is a big one). In other words, the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted an over-medium effect on the number of experiential additions they make

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17. CEEEM1 (Add) represents experiential additions for time management in C-E CI.

18. CEEEM2 (Add) represents experiential additions for gap-filling in C-E CI.

19. CEEEM3 (Add) represents experiential additions for clarifying in C-E CI.

for time management, gap-filling and clarifying. To be specific, it is justifiable to argue that while doing C-E CI, professional interpreters added significantly more inferable experiential information for clarifying while student interpreters added more inferable experiential information for time management and gap-filling.

5.2 Experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Similar to the previous Section 5.1, this section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their experiential explicitation patterns in E-C CI. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of experiential explicitation in E-C CI are reported in the following four subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on experiential explicitation patterns in E-C CI can be found in Section 5.2.5.

5.2.1 Results of modifier-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 5.2-1 gives the number of modifier-based explicitation shifts[20] found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made modifier-based explicitations.

Table 5.2-1 Number of modifier-based explicitations in E-C CI

EE1	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	8	0	2	0	154	10	174
ECS	12	0	6	1	111	8	138

The numbers lead to the following observations:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters made more inferable modifier additions that aim for clarifying than student interpreters did.
> Observation Two: Although the majority of modifier-based explicitations are for clarifying, there are still cases where inferable modifiers were added for compensating interpreters' inadequate interpreting competency (see Section 3.5).
> Observation Three: There is a similar number of inferable modifier additions for time management in both groups.

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20. As mentioned in 5.1.1, "modifier" in this volume refers only to "experiential modifier" (see Section 3.2).

Illustration on the observations:

1. Figure 5.2-1 displays that each of the 24 subjects has made modifier additions for clarifying in E-C CI.
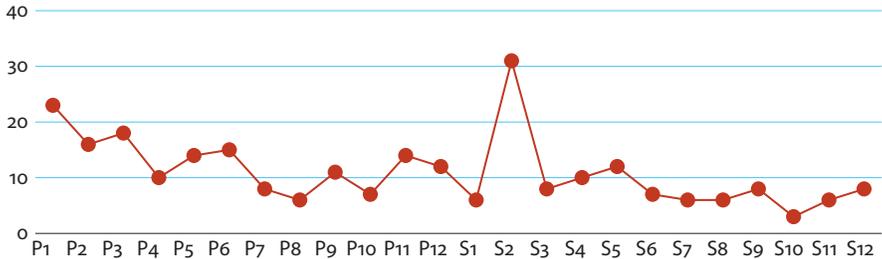
Figure 5.2-1 Frequency of EE1M3 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

Furthermore, with the majority (94% for the professional group and 86% for student group) of modifier-based explicitations in E-C CI made for the purpose of clarifying, it is justifiable to claim that both professional and student interpreters tend to specify nouns or nominal groups with modifiers that are implied in the source speech for clarifying. Example 5.2.1-1 and 5.2.1-2 are typical instances from each group:

Example 5.2.1-1

ST: But the two important points are: one, not China. But also I am not talking about managing change in America.

P12: 那^EE3M1今天<p>^EE1M3我们要讲的重点呢~^IE3M4实际上^IE3M4并不是关注美国^EE1M3**在学校管理方面**面临的一些^EE4M3挑战

LT: ^EE3M1Today <p> the focus ^EE1M3that we are going to talk about~^IE3M4actually ^IE3M4just does not focus on any ^EE4M3challenges America faces ^EE1M3**in school management**.

Example 5.2.1-2

ST: Their bosses created the resistance because they did not take time to explain the purpose, the benefit, explain what they will need to do.

S2: ^TE3M1所以<p> ^EE3M1现在~^IE2M4我们应该要^IE3M4更好地去解释^TE1M3我们这种^EE1M3**改变的**目的和^EE1M3根本的^EE4M2原因 。

LT: ^TE3M1Therefore <p> ^EE3M1now~ ^IE2M4we should explain ^IE3M4in a better way ^TE1M3our purpose ^EE1M3**of change** and ^EE1M3fundamental ^EE4M2motivation

In Example 5.2.1-1, P12 specified the change that American faces with a modifier "在学校管理方面 (in school management)", an idea that can be inferred from the handouts provided in the briefing session. Through this addition, P12 narrowed down the scope of the word "change" so as to optimize listeners' comprehension. Similarly, in Example 5.2.1-2, S2 specified the word "purpose" with the modifier "改变的 (of change)", which can be inferred from the context.

Moreover, 154 modifier-based additions for clarifying were found in the professional group while 111 were found in the student group. The Mann-Whitney Test has been employed to measure this difference, and the results are listed in Table 5.2-2.

Table 5.2-2 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE1M3 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

EE1M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	32.00	−2.327	0.475	0.020	95%

Table 5.2-2 reveals that for modifier additions that are attributed to the intention of clarifying, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.020$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds for the difference between the two groups can be more than 95%. Also, with the effect size measure r being 0.475, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere between medium and big. This means that interpreters' professional experience has exerted an over-medium (close to big) impact on the number of modifier additions interpreters might make for clarifying. Therefore, the data show that professional interpreters are more likely to add implied modifiers before nouns or nominal groups as a strategy to minimise listeners' comprehension efforts than their student counterparts. Example 5.2.1-3 and 5.2.1-4 are typical modifier-based additions for clarifying from each group:

Example 5.2.1-3
- ST: So I will share from my research and personal experience of managing change in Asia
- P3: 所以我[IE2M4]希望可以[EE4M3]跟大家分享一下我的[EE4M3]研究所得还有个人的[EE1M3]**工作**经验
- LT: So I [IE2M4]hope [I] can share [EE4M3]with you my [EE4M3]research findings and personal [EE1M3]**working** experience.

Example 5.2.1-4
- ST: So even though change is difficult, we must adapt.
- P4: 所以呢即使变革很难，我们都必须[EE2M3]要<uh>解决人们[EE1M3]**恐惧变革的**心理。
- LT: So even if change is difficult, we must [EE2M3]deal with people's mentality [EE1M3]**of being afraid of change**.

In Example 5.2.1-3, the specific scope of the experience the speaker would like to share has been pointed out by the word "工作 (working)", a modifier added by P3. In Example 5.2.1-4, the original process "adapt" has been specified as "解决人们 …… 心理 (deal with people's mentality)" by P4. Moreover, an additional modifier "恐惧变革的 (of being afraid of change)" has been provided to elaborate the mentality.

2. 12 modifier additions for time management can be found in the student group while there are eight in the professional group. Notwithstanding the rather small number, some common features can be found in these cases. Example 5.2.1-5, 5.2.1-6 and 5.2.1-7 are typical cases:

Example 5.2.1-5
ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.
S1: ^{TE3M3}所以^{EE1M1}**在座**^{TE1M1}各位领导<p>的一个^{IE2M4}重要作用，就是^{EE4M3}实现这个平衡。
LT: ^{TE3M3}So [for the] ^{EE1M1}**present** ^{TE1M1}leaders <p> one of the ^{IE2M4}important function, is ^{EE4M3}to realise the balance.

$$ n | job | s $$

Example 5.2.1-6
ST: The focus today of my presentation is leading change in Asia.
S2: 今天我<p> ^{EE1M1}**所要讲的**题目呢~就是要讲讲^{EE1M3}我们在亚洲所面临的^{IE3M4}一系列的改变和调整
LT: Today I <p> the topic ^{EE1M1}**that will be mentioned**~ is to talk about ^{IE3M4}a series of changes and adaptions ^{EE1M3}that we face in Asia.

$$ 图 \downarrow \ 改 \ in \ Aisa $$

Example 5.2.1-7
ST: The focus today of my presentation is leading change in Asia.
S11: 我今天所要讲，^{EE1M1}**所要讲的**主题是亚洲的主要变化
LT: The topic I will talk about today, ^{EE1M1}**will talk about** is major changes in Asia.

$$ focus) $$

The three examples all adopted the syntactic structure of "X is Y". For the first two examples, although the participant "Y" has been noted down by the interpreters (S1, S2), they all made revision to it: S1 changed "find speed" into "实现平衡 (keep balance)"; S2 added a modifier "一系列的 (a series of)". In the last example, S11 did not write

down the participant. It may thus be concluded that for the structure "X is Y", the interpreter tends to add modifier for "X" when s/he encounters problems in dealing with "Y", so as to gain extra time in figuring out ways of expressing the idea of "Y".

Moreover, the added modifiers above, "在座的 (present)" and "所要讲的 (that will be mentioned/will be talked about)" are both formulaic expressions with little information value. In other words, the meaning of the whole sentence would be more or less the same even without them. This feature also applies to the other 16 instances of modifier additions that aim for time management in E-C CI. Hence, it is reasonable to claim that when lacking information-processing time, both professional and student interpreters are prone to add low information modifiers before nouns or nominal groups as a strategy for gaining extra time.

5.2.2 Results of process-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 5.2-3 gives the number of the three types of process-based[21] explicitations found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made process-based explicitations.

Table 5.2-3 Number of process-based explicitations in E-C CI

EE2	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	10	0	2	30	72	87	201
ECS	15	1	1	50	46	69	182

The following observations can be made from the table:

Observation One: Professional interpreters made more process-based explicitations for clarifying.

Observation Two: A similar number of process-based explicitations are made for time management in both groups.

Observation Three: Student interpreters made more process-based substitutions as a gap-filling strategy;

Illustrations on observations:

1. The professional group made 159 process-based explicitations for clarifying while the student group made 115 such explicitations.

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21. The "process-based" here is in a Hallidayan sense (see Section 3.2 for details).

Table 5.2-4 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE2M3 between the two groups in E-C CI

EE2M3	U	Z	R	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	47.00	−1.448	0.296	0.148	No significant difference

Notwithstanding the higher frequency observed in the professional group, the Mann-Whitney Test, as shown in Table 5.2-4, displays that the difference does not reach significance ($p = 0.148$). Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.296, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere close to medium. Thus, interpreters' professional experience only exerted a small effect on interpreters' performance of process-based explicitation for clarifying.

Yet, as shown in Figure 5.2-2, every subject made process-based explicitations for clarifying.
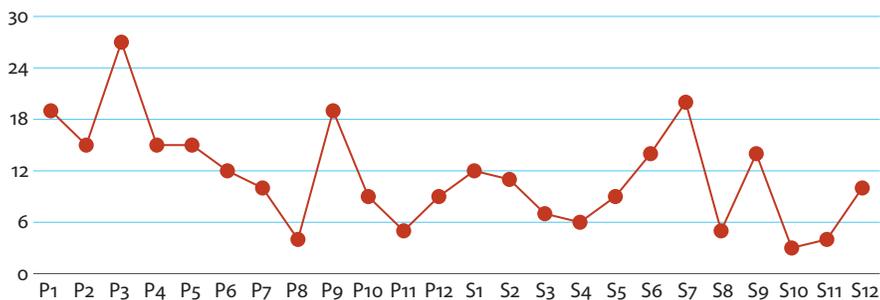
Figure 5.2-2 Frequency of EE2M3 made by each subject in E-C CI

Therefore, with every subject's involvement in practicing this type of explicitation and over one hundred such shifts in each group, it still can be claimed that both professional and student interpreters seem to pursue the strategy of clarifying the original message through adding inferable processes or rephrasing the original processes. Example 5.2.2-1 and 5.2.2-2 are typical instances from each group.

Example 5.2.2-1
    ST: When you were younger, we look at the leader above us.
    P10: …… 当我们比较年轻的时候呢，都[EE2M3]**会对领导做出评判** 。
    LT: … when we are younger, [we] all [EE2M3]**made judgments on leaders**.

The phrase "looked at" actually means "to judge" or "to evaluate", a meaning which can be inferred from its following sentence "If he was a bad leader, he will make our job very difficult". Instead of rendering the second clause literally as "我们会看我们的上级领导", P10 intended to minimise listeners' comprehension efforts by stating directly its implication "对领导做出评判 (make judgments on leaders)". A

similar rephrasing case can also be found in Example 5.2.2-2, where "move up in career" has been substituted by "成为 …… 领导层 (become … leadership)", which elaborates to listeners a specific position involved in the promotion.

Example 5.2.2-2

ST: But sometimes when we move up in our own career

S7:   你们获得了职业的提升，[EE2M3]**成为了**[EE1M3]学校的**领导层**

LT: you get promotion in [your] career, [EE2M3]**becomes [one of] the** [EE1M3]school's **leadership**

2.   Figure 5.2-3 displays clearly that eight professional interpreters and seven student interpreters have made process additions as a way to gain extra time.
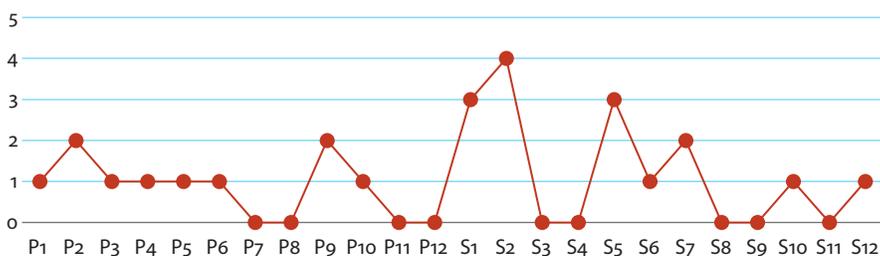
Figure 5.2-3 Frequency of EE2M1 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

With the majority of subjects' involvement (15 out of the 24) in practicing this type of explicitation, it is justifiable to conclude that for both professional and student interpreters, process-based additions may be used for earning extra information-processing time. Example 5.2.2-3 and 5.2.2-4 are typical cases from each group:

Example 5.2.2-3

ST: So today, I'd also want to have you look into the mirror.

P4:   所以今天我希望大家[EE2M1]**做的一件事情就是**<p>可以看一下镜子，[EE2M3]反思一下自己 ……

LT: So today [EE2M1]**what I hope you to do is** <p> to look into the mirror, [EE2M3]do some introspection …

In this example, P4 added a process "做的一件事情就是 (what … to do is)" and a pause to get more time in dealing with the phrase "look into the mirror". Since P4 wrote down the keyword "mirror" in his/her notes, s/he has the choice of rendering the original clause literally. Instead, s/he provided not only a literal rendition but also its metaphoric implication. It can be inferred that with the time gained through making the above explicitation, P4 was searching for an optimal way of expressing the idea that the keyword "mirror" in his/her notes represents.

Example 5.2.2-4

ST: but today I want you to look into the mirror and think about your own leadership

S2: 但是我今天\<uh\> [EE2M1]**目的呢~就是**想要大家自己能够很真诚地问一下自己，自己是属于怎样的领导者

LT: but I today \<uh\> [EE2M1]**the aim~ is** hope you can sincerely ask yourself, what kind of leader are you belong to

Two words "今 (today)" and "自省 (self-introspection)" were noted down in the above example. S2 did not render according to his/her notes. This suggests that s/he had reorganised the message mainly relying on his/her memory rather than notes. This makes it plausible that his/her addition of the process "目的呢~就是 (the aim~ is)" is to slow down the delivery and gain extra time to search for a better way of expressing the ensuing key information.

Similar to those two cases analysed above, the processes interpreters added in all the other 23 relevant cases are more form-oriented than information-oriented. Since the added processes have particularly low information value, it may be safely concluded that while lacking information-processing time, professional and student interpreters may add semantically weak processes as a way of earning extra processing time.

3. There are 30 process-based substitutions used as a gap-filling strategy in the professional group and 50 in the student group.

Table 5.2-5 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE2M2 (Sub) between the two groups in E-C CI

EE2M2 (Sub)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	33.00	−2.292	0.468	0.220	No significant difference

As shown in Table 5.2-5, the Mann-Whitney Test shows the difference between these two groups in process substitutions that were attributed to gap-filling is not significant ($p = 0.220$). Yet, with the effect size measure r being 0.468, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere between medium and big. In other words, although the odds of difference between the two groups in the number of this type of explicitation cannot be assured, interpreters' professional experience exerted an over-medium effect on interpreters' performance in this respect. Example 5.2.2-5 and 5.2.2-6 are typical instances made by student interpreters to illustrate process substitutions for gap-filling:

Example 5.2.2-5

ST: Their bosses created the resistance because they did not take time to explain the purpose, the benefit, explain what they will need to do.

S11: ^{TE3M3}所以^{EE2M2}**有些人会进行反抗**^{TE1M1}这些^{EE4M1}变化呢~是因为他们\<uh\> 没有^{EE4M3}向人们解释^{EE1M3}变化的目的。

LT: ^{TE3M3}Therefore [the fact that] ^{EE2M2}**some people will resist** ^{TE1M1}these ^{EE4M1}changes~ is because they \<uh\> do not explain ^{EE4M3}to people the purpose ^{EE1M3}of change.
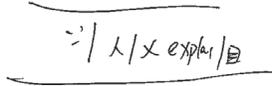
S11 did not record the actor of the original process in his/her notes. S/he also mentioned in verbalisation that s/he missed some information while listening to the source speech. Therefore, for the substitution of "their bosses created the resistance" with "有些人会进行反抗 (some people will resist)" in the rendition, a reasonable explanation could be the missing of the original actor and misinterpretation of the symbol "人 (people)" in his/her notes. As a result, S11 chose to fill in the gap with another inferable idea "some people will resist".

Example 5.2.2-6

ST: So it's very important to understand why people resist. Or else, we cannot solve the problem of change.

S4:   那么我们要理解为什么他们要反对^{TE1M3}这些^{EE4M3}计划。^{EE2M2}**我们\<uh\> 怎样才能够去实现这些变化**。

LT: So we shall make clear why they will resist ^{TE1M3}these ^{EE4M3}plans. ^{EE2M2}**How can we \<uh\> realise these changes**.
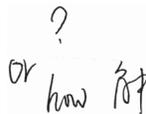
In this example, a process substitution can be identified. S4 reported in his/her retrospection that s/he did not catch the exact words of the last clause so s/he organised an idea based on the context. His/her retrospection explained the appearance of "how 解 (solve)" in his/her notes. On the basis of this notes, S4 filled the information loss with "我们怎样才能够去实现这些变化 (how can we realise these changes)".

5.2.3   Results of circumstance-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 5.2-6 gives the number of the three types of circumstance-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made circumstance-based explicitations.

Table 5.2-6 Number of circumstance-based explicitations in E-C CI

EE3	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	60	0	13	1	148	12	234
ECS	48	0	22	1	77	9	157

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters made more circumstance-based explicitations for clarifying than their student counterparts.
> Observation Two: For both groups, circumstance-based explicitations were added to compensate interpreters' inadequate interpreting competency (32% in the professional group and 45% in the student group).
> Observation Three: Professional interpreters added more inferable circumstantial adjuncts for time management than their student counterparts.
> Observation Four: Student interpreters made more circumstance-based explicitations for gap-filling than their professional counterparts.

Illustration on the observations:

1. Figure 5.2-4 displays that every interpreter has made circumstance-based additions for clarifying.
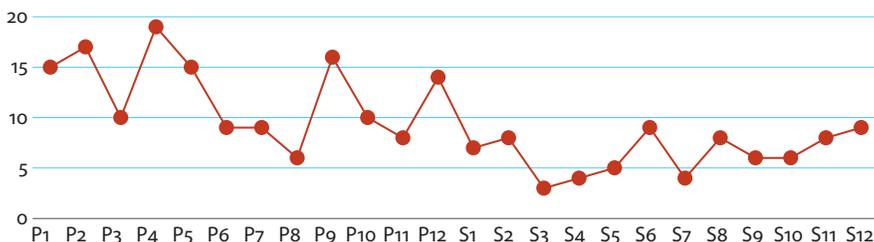
Figure 5.2-4 Frequency of EE3M3 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

With around 100 such shifts in both groups and every subject's involvement in using this type of explicitation, the addition of implied circumstantial adjuncts

to facilitate listeners' comprehension can be regarded as a common practice for both professional and student interpreters. Example 5.2.3-1 and 5.2.3-2 are typical instances from each group:

Example 5.2.3-1

ST: And it's easy to become the leader that your staff don't like.

S5:   [IE3M1]其实~你会[EE3M3]**<u>不由自主地</u>**变成了那种[EE4M2]你自己[EE2M3]认为不好的领导。

LT: [IE3M1]actually~ you will [EE3M3]**<u>spontaneously</u>** become the kind of leader that [EE4M2]you [EE2M3]think is bad.

In this example, the student interpreter substituted the original "easy" with "不由自主地 (spontaneously)", a manner which is inferable from the original "it's easy to", which revealed leaders' lack of awareness of how good leaders could become bad ones.

Example 5.2.3-2

ST: Ok, so all of you have opinion about good leadership and bad leadership.

P3:   好了，大家[EE3M3]**<u>通过讨论之后</u>**，都对优秀的领导和糟糕领导有了一定的看法

LT: Ok, [EE3M3]**<u>through discussions</u>**, you all have certain opinion about good leadership and bad leadership.

In this example, the original clause was a summary of the previous discussion, where listeners provided their description of good and bad leaders. Inferring from this idea, P3 added the circumstantial adjunct "通过讨论之后 (through discussion)", which made explicit that the relevant opinions were based on a previous discussion.

Moreover, 148 circumstantial adjunct additions for clarifying can be found in the professional group while only 77 were found in the student group. The Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.001$) as shown in Table 5.2-7.

Table 5.2-7   Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE3M3 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

EE3M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	12.50	−3.456	0.705	0.001	95%

In addition, with the effect size measure r being 0.705, the magnitude of the difference is markedly big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts a huge effect on the quantity of circumstantial adjunct additions that interpreters made for clarifying. Therefore, it validates that professional interpreters tend to add more circumstantial adjuncts as a way to ease listeners' comprehension than student interpreters. Example 5.2.3-3 and 5.2.3-4 are typical instances from the professional group:

Example 5.2.3-3

    ST: And write down three characteristics that make that person a good leader.

    P1:   那么[TE2M3]你[EE3M3]**现在**就可以列这样的一个人的三个[EE1M3]主要的特性。

    LT: So [TE2M3]you [EE3M3]**now** can write down three [EE1M3]major characteristics of a person like this.

The original clause represents a requirement made by the speaker to ask the listeners to start to "write". The temporal adverb "现在 (now)", which is a circumstantial adjunct indicating the exact time of the process "write down" was added by P1 to further illustrates the speaker's expectation that listeners could start this action as soon as possible.

Example 5.2.3-4

    ST: But sometimes when we move up in our own career, we forget.

    P12: 那么，[EE3M3]**随着我们年龄的增长**，我们自己也会[EE3M3]**慢慢**晋升到[EE3M3]到领导的这个层次，那可能我们就会忘记所有的[TE1M3]这些<uh>[EE4M3]差领导的[TE1M3]这些特质了

    LT: So, [EE3M3]**as we get older**, we ourselves will also [EE3M3]**gradually** move up to [EE3M3]to the leader's level, so it is possible we will forget all [TE1M3]these characteristics of [TE1M3]these [EE4M3]bad leaders.

In the above example, "move up in one's career" refers to "get a promotion". Usually, getting a promotion is a relatively slow process, which needs a certain period of time. To reflect this feature of the idea "getting promotion" to listeners, P12 added two circumstantial adjuncts "随着我们年龄的增长 (as we get older)" and "慢慢 (gradually)".

2.   Figure 5.2-5 displays that every subject has added circumstantial adjuncts for time management, which demonstrates that it is a regular practice for professional interpreters and student interpreters to add circumstantial adjuncts to gain extra information-processing time. Example 5.2.3-5 and 5.2.3-6 are typical instances from each group:
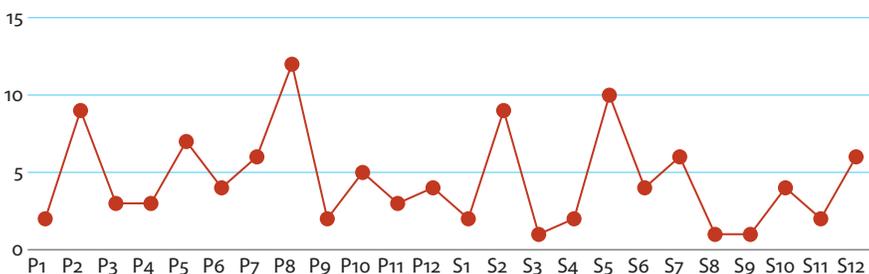
Figure 5.2-5 Frequency of EE3M1 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

Example 5.2.3-5

ST: they will be quiet when they resist the change. But they will still resist.

S1:   但是他们[EE3M1]**通常**<p>[EE2M1]选择的<p>是<p>安静[IE2M4]礼貌地来[EE2M3]表示[TE1M3]他们的一些不满

LT: but [what] they [EE3M1]**usually** <p> [EE2M1]choose <p> is <p> [EE2M3]to express some of [TE1M3]their dissatisfaction in quiet and [IE2M4]polite way.

In this example, S1 did not take down any notes. To retrieve the information, s/he had to rely totally on his/her memory. It seems possible that due to the lack of notes, s/he added the manner indicator "通常 (usually)" as well as a pause so as to slow down the production of the following key information "be quiet when resisting change".

Example 5.2.3-6

ST: So the focus is about Asia.

P9:   我们[EE3M1]**今天**<p>关注的[EE4M3]这个区域是亚洲 。

LT: [EE3M1]**Today** <p> [EE4M3]the district <p> we focus on is Asia.

<p>丶 ⊙ 亚</p>

In the above example, a temporal indicator "今天 (today)" has been added. The pause indicates this addition may be a time-management strategy. What did P9 earn the time for? On the basis of his/her notes, P9 could have rendered the original message as "so we focus on Asia" or "so the focus is Asia". Yet s/he rephrased it into a longer version "the district we focus on is Asia". This indicates that while uttering the added "today" and the pause, P9 may be thinking about ways of expressing the character "亚 (Asia)" in his/her notes.

Table 5.2-8 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE3M1 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

EE3M1 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	53.50	−1.078	0.220	0.281	No significant difference

As shown in Table 5.2-8, the Mann-Whitney Test shows that there is no significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.281$) in this respect. What is more, with the effect size measure r being 0.220, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere between small and medium. Hence, no statistically significant effect of interpreters' professional experience on interpreters' addition of circumstantial adjuncts for time-management could be found in the present study. This testifies that there is no significant interaction between interpreters' professional experience and the circumstantial adjuncts they add to earn extra information-processing time.

3. As shown in Figure 5.2-6, there are six professional interpreters and one student interpreter who did not add circumstantial adjuncts for gap-filling.

Figure 5.2-6 Frequency of EE3M2 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

Besides, only 13 circumstance-based additions were made by professional interpreters for gap-filling, and 22 such shifts were made by student interpreters. Since the quantitative difference is marginal ($p = 0.102$) and more than half of the subjects did not perform this type of explicitation, no generalisation about any difference between the two groups can be made. But still, 11 out of 12 student interpreters have filled in the gap resulting from information loss by adding implied circumstantial adjuncts, which indicates that this type of explicitation is made commonly among student interpreters. Example 5.2.3-7 and 5.2.3-8 are typical cases from the student group:

Example 5.2.3-7

ST: And this is the yin-yang. There is change and there is resistance. And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.

S12: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ²**从抗拒变化，到适应力**，你们需要做的呢，就是~ᴱᴱ⁴ᴹ²要来适当的来引导这些变化。

LT: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ²**From resisting change to adaption**, [what] you need to do, is~ to properly, ᴱᴱ⁴ᴹ²lead these changes.

S12 did not take any notes for the first clause and for the second clause s/he only jotted down two characters, "变 (change)" and "抗 (resistance)". Moreover, the three question marks in his/her notes clearly show S12 missed some information in the third clause. This suggests that it is likely that s/he might need more time to deal with the missed message. While doing so, it seems plausible that s/he filled that time slot with "从抗拒变化, 到适应力 (from resisting change to adaption)", an idea s/he can infer from the two Chinese characters s/he noted down and the previous idea – "So even though change is difficult, we must adapt" – which has been emphasised by the speaker.

Example 5.2.3-8

ST: And now in your own career, you move up to a higher level. When you were younger, we look at the leader above us.

S7: [TE3M3]假设一下你[EE3M3]现在可以年轻个<uh>[EE3M2]**十几二十岁**，那么你正在职业上升期，假设你们都拥有了上述的这些的优秀的质量，[EE3M3]然后你们获得了职业的提升，[EE2M3]成为了[EE1M3]学校的领导层

LT: [TE3M3]if you [EE3M3]now can be [EE3M2]**ten or twenty years** younger, you are in a rising stage in your career, if you have all the good qualities mentioned above, [EE3M3]then you got professional promotion, [EE2M3]becomes a leader [EE1M3]of the school.

S7 reported that s/he did not note down anything for this segment because s/he encountered difficulties in understanding the original message. Referring from her retrospection and rendition, it seems plausible that due to the failing in grasping the idea "look at leaders above us", S7 added "十几二十岁 (ten or twenty years)" to specify the extent of "年轻 (getting younger)" so as to fill in the gap which should be used to express the idea "look at leaders above us".

5.2.4   Results of participant-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 5.2-9 gives the number of all the participant-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made this type of explicitations.

Table 5.2-9 Number of participant-based explicitations in E-C CI

EE4	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	5	1	0	8	101	63	178
ECS	2	1	1	10	86	56	156

The following observations can be made from the table:

  Observation One: Professional interpreters made more participant-based explicitations for clarifying than student interpreters.

  Observation Two: Overall, for both groups, participant-based explicitation is mainly made for clarifying. Yet, in spite of the small number, for both groups, there are still around 10% of participant-based explicitations (8% for professional group and 9% for the student group) that can be attributed to their inadequate interpreting competency.

Illustration on the observations:

1. As shown in Figure 5.2-7, each interpreter has made participant-based explic-
    itations for clarifying in E-C CI.
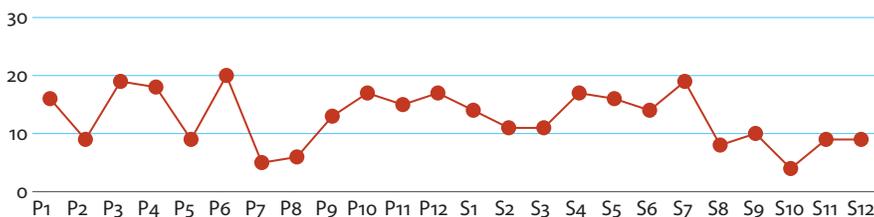
Figure 5.2-7 Frequency of EE4M3 made by each subject in E-C CI

There are 164 such shifts in the professional group while 142 in the student group.
As shown in Table 5.2-10, the Mann-Whitney Test shows the differences between
these two groups in adding or substituting participants for clarifying are not signif-
icant. In addition, with the two effect size measure r less than 0.3, the magnitude of
these differences is small. In other words, interpreters' professional experience only
exerted a small effect on interpreters' performance in this respect.

Table 5.2-10 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of EE4M3 between the two groups
in E-C CI

ECP vs ECS	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
EE4M3	55.00	−0.985	0.201	0.324	No significant difference

Yet with over one hundred relevant shifts in both groups and every interpreter's
involvement, this still can verify that professional and student interpreters reg-
ularly add or specify participants for reducing listeners' comprehension efforts.
Example 5.2.4-1 and 5.2.4-2 from each group can well illustrate this point:

Example 5.2.4-1
> ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.
> P8:   [TE3M3]那么你们就是要找出[EE3M3]这中间的一个适应的[EE4M3]**方法**。
> LT: [TE3M3]Thus you should find [EE4M3]**a method** to adapt [EE3M3]between them.

In this example, what is the purpose of "finding the right speed"? The context in-
forms us that the purpose is to keep a balance between change and resistance. In
this connection, "找出 …… 一个适应的方法 (to find the method of adapting)"
is a reasonable rephrasing of the original and it clarifies the purpose of the original
participant.

Example 5.2.4-2

    ST: And this is the yin-yang. There is change and there is resistance

    S7:   改、[EE4M3]**改革的必须性**以及[EE4M3]**改革的困难**是一个阴阳体，它是一个 [EE4M3]**矛盾体**

    LT: [EE4M3]**The necessity of chan**, change and [EE4M3]**the difficulty of change** is yin yang. It is a [EE4M3]**paradox**.

In the above example, S7 specified the original participant "change" into "改革的必须性 (the necessity of change)", "resistance" into "改革的困难 (the difficulty of change)" so as to facilitate listener's comprehension. Moreover, a participant "矛盾体 (paradox)" has been added to inform the listeners of the paradoxical feature of "yin-yang".

2.   Professional group made five participant additions for time management while the student group made two. A common feature of these shifts can be identified from the following typical examples:

Example 5.2.4-3

    ST: So it's very important to understand why people resist.

    P5:   所以[EE2M3]我们要思考[EE4M1]**一个问题**<p>为什么有阻力

    LT: so [EE2M3]we have to think about [EE4M1]**one question**<p> why there's resistance.

？了

In this example, "一个问题 (one question)" is a participant for the process of "thinking" and also an appositive of the following clause "why there's resistance". Since P5 did not take any notes for the original participant, it seems possible that s/he added a very general term that can always be collocated with the predicate "think about" and during this period of time s/he can recall the concrete idea of the original participant.

Example 5.2.4-4

    ST: So I think, a very important part of your job is managing the change in your school

    S5:   所以说[IE2M1]我们想谈的[EE4M1]**问题**呢~就是<p>我们[EE4M3]如何能够有效地去做一些改变

    LT: So [EE4M1]**the issue** [IE2M1]that we want to talk about~ is <p> [EE4M3]how can we effectively make some changes.

manage. changes

In Example 5.2.4-4, with the hint of the stretching pronunciation and the pause, S5's addition of the process "the issue is" can be regarded as a time-management strategy. In the notes, s/he clearly noted down "manage change", which suggests that s/he could have rendered this clause literally as "your job is managing change". However, since s/he paraphrased the idea of "managing change" in the rendition, it

is reasonable to claim that the addition of the process "问题呢~就是 (the issue is)" and the modifier "我们想谈的 (that we want to talk about)", which are ideas easily inferred from the situation, is to gain extra time in rephrasing the idea of "manage change" into "how can we effectively make some changes".

As illustrated by those two examples, the participant added for earning extra time are category words functioned as an appositive to the original participant. This explanation also applies to the other five cases. It demonstrates that in E-C CI professionals and student interpreters might add category words as appositives to the original participants so as to gain more information processing time.

3. Figure 5.2-8 displays that more than half of all the subjects have made participant substitutions for gap-filling.
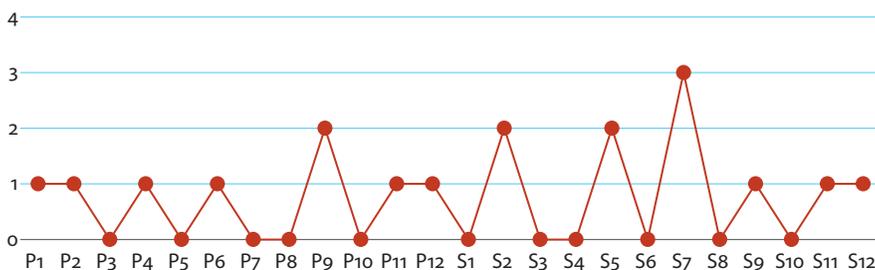
Figure 5.2-8 Frequency of EE4M2 (Sub) made by each subject in E-C CI

This indicates that both professional and student interpreters tend to substitute the original concept with another one that is inferable from other information in the context so as to fill in the gap resulting from information loss. Example 5.2.4-5 and 5.2.4-6 from each group can illustrate this point:

Example 5.2.4-5
    ST: And I also have the experience of being the **Dean** of a business school in Thailand
    P2:   另外我自己也是[EE3M3]曾经担任一个商学院的<uh>[EE4M2]**领导**
    LT: Besides I myself also [EE3M3]once took the position of <uh> **the leader** in a Business School

In this example, there is nothing written down in P2's notes to represent "Dean". The hesitation shows P2 encountered some problem in rendering the word "Dean". It is possible that s/he failed to recall the word or s/he forgot the way to express it in Chinese. Instead, s/he substituted it with a more general term "领导 (the leader)", which is inferable from the following clause "where I manage change" (It is the leader not the staff who manages changes. For staff, they only carry out changes.).

Example 5.2.4-6

ST: They resisted because they didn't know why … Their bosses created the resistance because they did not take time to explain the purpose, the benefit, explain what they will need to do.

S2: ^EE3M3很多情况下人们^TE3M3之所以抵触是因为他们不知道原因是什么 …… ^TE3M1所以<p> ^EE3M1现在~^IE2M4我们应该要^IE3M4更好地去解释^TE1M3我们这种^EE1M3改变的目的和^EE1M3根本的^EE4M2<u>原因</u> 。

LT: ^EE3M3In may cases ^TE3M3the reason that people resist is because they don't know what is the motivation … ^TE3M1Therefore <p> ^EE3M1now~ ^IE2M4we should explain ^IE3M4in a better manner ^TE1M3our purpose ^EE1M3of change and ^EE1M3fundamental ^EE4M2**motivation**.

In this example, "原因 (motivation)" is a concept that can be inferred from the previous sentence "They resisted because they didn't know why". His/her notes show that S2 only recorded one out of the three elements that the speaker mentioned. In order to fill in the gap of the other two points s/he missed, s/he made the above addition.

5.2.5 Results of experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

On the basis of the above analysis on four subcategories of experiential explicitations, it can be found that in E-C CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made experiential explicitations. Table 5.2-11 sums up the number of experiential explicitations made by each group for different motivations:

Table 5.2-11 Number of experiential explicitations in E-C CI

EE	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	83	1	17	39	475	172	787
ECS	77	2	30	62	320	142	633

The data have been further measured by the Mann-Whitney Test. As shown in Table 5.2-12, significant differences between the two groups can be identified in the number of substituting experiential content for gap-filling ($p = 0.021$) and adding experiential information for clarifying ($p = 0.009$).

Table 5.2-12 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of ECEEM2 (Sub)[22] and ECEEM3 (Add)[23] between the two groups in E-C CI

ECP vs ECS	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECEEM2 (Sub)	33.00	−2.304	0.470	0.021	95%
ECEEM3 (Add)	26.5	−2.630	0.537	0.009	95%

Moreover, with the two relevant effect size r being 0.470 and 0.537, the magnitudes of the above differences are both over medium (the magnitude of the inter-group difference in making experiential additions for clarifying is a big one). In other words, the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – has exerted an over-medium effect on the number of experiential substitutions they make for gap-filling and experiential additions they make for clarifying. To be specific, it is justifiable to argue that while doing E-C CI, professional interpreters added significantly more inferable experiential information for clarifying while student interpreters substituted more inferable experiential information for gap-filling.

5.3   Experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

This section focuses on the effects of interpreting direction on interpreters' experiential explicitation patterns. Its effects on each subcategory of experiential explicitations are reported in the following four subsections while a summary of its effects on experiential explicitation patterns can be found in Section 5.3.5.

5.3.1   Results of modifier-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 5.3-1 displays the number of modifier-based explicitation according to motivation and interpreting direction. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made modifier-based explicitations in both interpreting directions.

Table 5.3-1 Number of modifier-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

EE1	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	121	5	9	11	407	34	587
E-C	20	0	8	1	265	18	312

---

22. ECEEM2 (Sub) represents experiential substitution for gap-filling in E-C CI.

23. ECEEM3 (Add) represents experiential additions for clarifying in E-C CI.

Observations from the above table are as follows:

Observation One: More modifier-based explicitations for clarifying can be found in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Observation Two: More modifier additions for time management can be found in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 441 modifier-based explicitations for clarifying have been found in C-E CI while there are only 283 in E-C CI. Figure 5.3-1, which displays each subject's frequency of modifier-based explicitations for clarifying according to the interpreting direction of the CI task, shows a clear effect of interpreting direction on the frequency of modifier-based explicitations for clarifying of both professional and student interpreters.
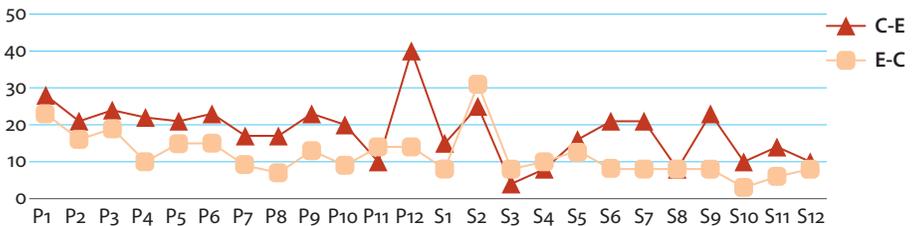
Figure 5.3-1 Frequency of EE1M3 made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As mentioned in Section 4.5.4, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test[24] has been applied to measure the inter-direction difference. As shown in Table 5.3-2, the Test reveals a highly significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.000$). With the p values below 0.05, the odds of difference between these two interpreting directions for both groups are more than 95%.

Table 5.3-2 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE1M3 according to interpreting direction

EE1M3	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.592	0.518	0.000	95%

Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.518, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere over big, suggesting that the independent variable – interpreting

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24. All the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test results which show significant differences are reported and discussed in the text.

direction – exerts a huge effect on interpreters' frequency in making modifier-based explicitations for clarifying. It demonstrates that interpreters are inclined to make modifier-based explicitations for clarifying more frequently in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

2. In C-E CI, 121 additions of implied modifiers for time management have been found, while in E-C CI there are only 20 relevant shifts. Figure 5.3-2 clearly illustrates the frequency of modifier additions for time management made by each professional and student interpreter in different interpreting directions.
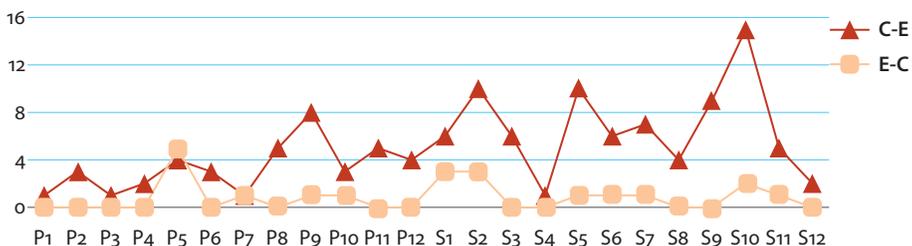
Figure 5.3-2 Frequency of EE1M1 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

It can be elicited in this figure that in the C-E direction, every subject has made modifier additions for time management; yet in E-C, only four professional interpreters and seven student interpreters did so.

Table 5.3-3 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE1M1 (Add) according to interpreting direction

EE1M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−5.128	0.596	0.000	95%

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, as shown in Table 5.3-3, reveals a significant difference in the number of modifier additions for time management between C-E and E-C CI. The p value below 0.05 suggests a higher than 95% possibility of the existence of a significant difference between these two interpreting directions. What is more, the effect size measure r being 0.596 also displays a strong effect of interpreting direction on interpreters' frequency in adding modifiers for time-management. In other words, interpreters tend to add modifiers for time-management more frequently in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

5.3.2 Results of process-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 5.3-4 displays interpreters' frequency of process-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made process-based explicitations in both interpreting directions.

Table 5.3-4 Number of process-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

EE2	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	5	2	1	9	43	192	252
E-C	25	1	3	80	118	156	383

The following observations can be made from the table:

> Observation One: Interpreters made more process-based additions for clarifying in the E-C direction than in the C-E direction.
> Observation Two: Interpreters made more process-based substitutions for clarifying in the C-E direction than in the E-C direction.
> Observation Three: Interpreters made more process-based additions for time management in the E-C direction than in the C-E direction.
> Observation Four: Interpreters made more process-based substitutions for gap-filling in the E-C direction than in the C-E direction.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 118 process-based additions for clarifying have been made by subjects in the E-C direction, while 43 were made in the C-E direction. Figure 5.3-3 displays that the majority of subjects have made such explicitation shifts more frequently in E-C CI.
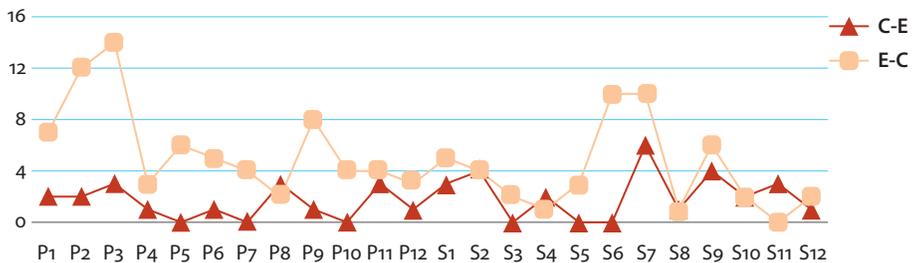
Figure 5.3-3 Frequency of EE2M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, as shown in Table 5.3-5, reveals a highly significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.000$).

Table 5.3-5 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE2M3 (Add) according to interpreting direction

EE2M3 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.487	0.503	0.000	95%

The effect size measure r being 0.503 suggests the magnitude of the difference between the two interpreting directions is big, implying that the independent variable – interpreting direction – actually exerted a big effect on interpreters' frequency of adding process for clarifying. This verifies that interpreters tend to add inferable processes as a way to clarify information in E-C CI more often than in C-E CI.

2. 192 process-based substitutions for clarifying have been found in the C-E direction, while there are only 156 such shifts in the E-C direction. Figure 5.3-4 shows that the majority of subjects have made more process-based substitutions for clarifying in C-E CI than in E-C CI.
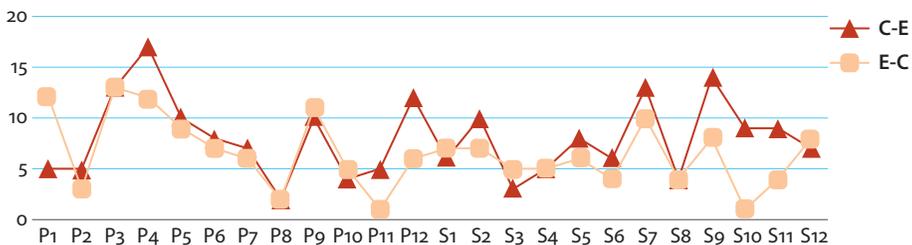
Figure 5.3-4 Frequency of EE2M3 (Sub) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, as shown in Table 5.3-6, shows a significant difference between the frequency of process substitutions in the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.023$).

Table 5.3-6 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE2M3 (Sub) according to interpreting direction

EE2M3 (Sub)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.272	0.328	0.023	95%

In addition, the effect size ($r = 0.328$) suggests the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerted an over-medium effect on interpreters' frequency of substituting process for clarifying. It can be concluded that interpreters are prone to rephrase processes for clarifying more frequently in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

3. 25 inferable process additions for time management have been identified in E-C CI, while there were only five in C-E CI. Figure 5.3-5 clearly displays that over half of the interpreters made more process additions for time management in E-C CI.
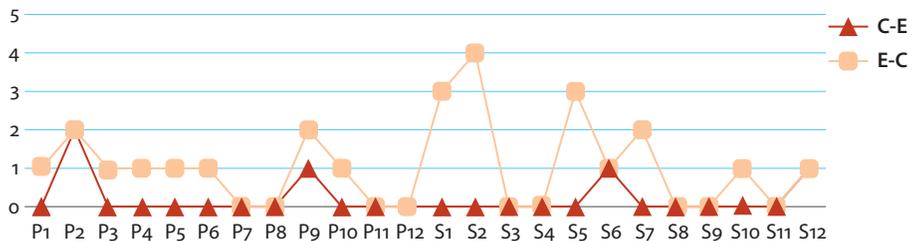
Figure 5.3-5 Frequency of EE2M1 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

Also, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, as shown in Table 5.3-7, reveals a significant difference between the number of process additions for time management in the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.002$).

Table 5.3-7 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE2M1 (Add) according to interpreting direction

EE2M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.165	0.457	0.002	95%

With the p value below 0.05, there is over 95% possibility that this difference exists. The effect size measure r being 0.457 confirms that the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerts an over-medium effect on the quantity of process additions that interpreters made for time management. It suggests that professional and student interpreters tend to add processes for time management more frequently in E-C than C-E CI.

4. 80 process substitutions for gap-filling have been found in E-C CI while there were only nine such shifts in C-E CI. As shown in Figure 5.3-6, a clear effect of interpreting direction on interpreters' performance of rephrasing processes for gap-filling can be observed.
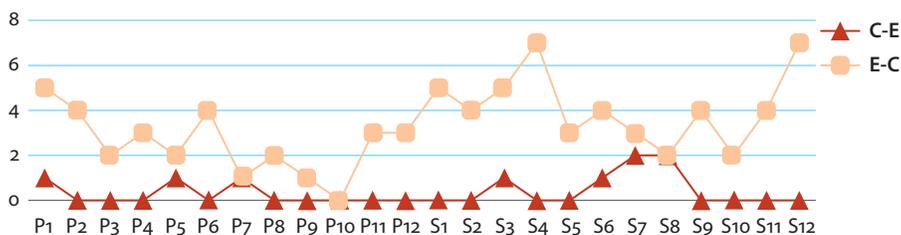
Figure 5.3-6 Frequency of EE2M2 (Sub) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

Measured by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 5.3-8), a highly significant difference has been identified ($p = 0.000$). Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.579, the magnitude of this difference is big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerts a big effect on the quantity of process substitutions that interpreters made for gap-filling.

Table 5.3-8 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE2M2 (Sub) according to interpreting direction

EE2M2 (Sub)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−4.041	0.579	0.000	95%

Therefore, it can be concluded that interpreters encountered more information loss in E-C CI, and they tend to substitute the processes they lost with other ones that can be inferred from other contextual information.

5.3.3   Results of circumstance-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 5.3-9 gives the number of circumstance-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made circumstance-based explicitations in both interpreting directions.

Table 5.3-9 Number of circumstance-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

EE3	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	70	1	1	4	158	15	249
E-C	108	0	35	2	225	21	391

The following observations can be made from the table:

> Observation One: Interpreters made more circumstance-based additions for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
>
> Observation Two: Interpreters made more circumstance-based additions for time-management in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
>
> Observation Three: Interpreters made more circumstance-based additions for gap-filling in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. Interpreters made 158 circumstance-based additions for clarifying in C-E CI while 225 such shifts in E-C CI. Figure 5.3-7 reveals a general higher frequency of interpreters' additions of circumstantial adjuncts for clarifying in E-C CI based on each interpreter's performance.
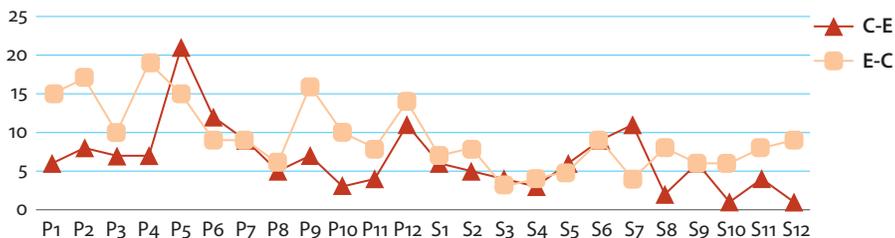
Figure 5.3-7 Frequency of EE3M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 5.3-10, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test reveals a significant difference ($p = 0.011$), suggesting that interpreters made significantly more circumstance-based additions for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Table 5.3-10 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE3M3 (Add) according to interpreting direction

EE3M3 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.544	0.367	0.011	95%

Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.367, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere between medium and big, suggesting that the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerts an over-medium effect on interpreters' frequency in making circumstance-based additions for clarifying. It demonstrates that interpreters are inclined to make circumstance-based additions for clarifying more frequently in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

2. In C-E CI, interpreters made 70 circumstantial adjunct additions for time man-
    agement, while in E-C CI they made 108 such shifts.
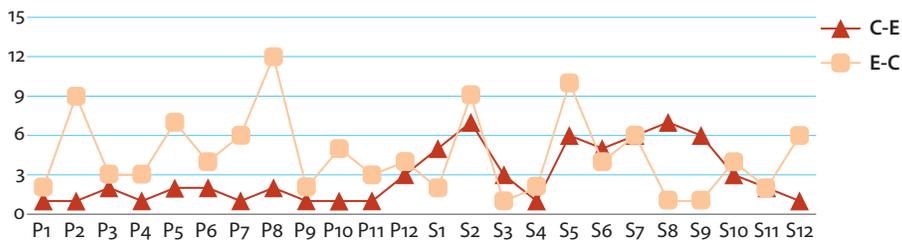
Figure 5.3-8 Frequency of EE3M1 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting
direction

As displayed in Figure 5.3-8, a higher frequency in E-C CI can be found clearly
among professional interpreters. For the student group, there is no clear tendency.
Thus, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was implemented to measure only the
inter-direction difference in the professional group.

Table 5.3-11 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE3M1 (Add) in the
professional group according to interpreting direction

EE3M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.077	0.444	0.002	95%

As shown in Table 5.3-11, there is a significant difference in the professional
group's performance between the two interpreting directions (p = 0.002). In addi-
tion, the effect size r being 0.444 suggests the independent variable – interpreting
direction – exerts an over-medium effect on interpreters' frequency in making
circumstance-based additions for time management. It can thus be concluded that
professional interpreters added significantly more inferable circumstantial adjuncts
for time management in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

3. With 35 additions of circumstantial adjuncts for gap-filling in E-C CI and only
    one in C-E CI, it is obvious that interpreters encountered more information loss
    in E-C CI and while encountering those information losses, it is rare for inter-
    preters to add circumstantial adjuncts as the method of gap-filling in C-E CI.

5.3.4 Results of participant-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 5.3-12 displays the number of participant-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made participant-based explicitations in both interpreting directions.

Table 5.3-12 Number of participant-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

EE4	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	3	0	0	43	78	188	312
E-C	7	2	1	18	187	119	334

> Observation One: Interpreters made more participant additions for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
>
> Observation Two: Interpreters made more participant substitutions for clarifying in C-E CI than in E-C CI.
>
> Observation Three: Interpreters made more participant substitutions for gap-filling in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. Interpreters made 78 circumstantial adjunct additions for clarifying in C-E CI, while there were 187 in E-C CI. Figure 5.3-9 clearly displays a generally higher frequency of interpreters' addition of participants for clarifying in E-C CI based on each subject's performance.
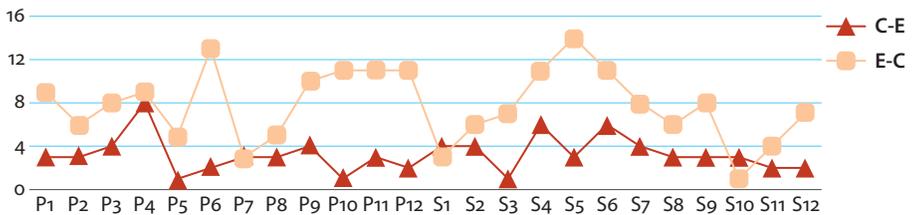
Figure 5.3-9 Frequency of EE4M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 5.3-13, a highly significant difference between different interpreting directions can be observed by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test ($p = 0.000$). The effect size measure r being 0.580 reveals that the magnitude of the difference is huge. These two indicators suggest that interpreters added significantly more participants for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Table 5.3-13 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE4M3 (Add) according to interpreting direction

EE4M3 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−4.022	0.580	0.000	95%

2. In C-E CI, interpreters made 188 participant substitutions for clarifying, while in E-C CI, they made 119 such shifts. As displayed in Figure 5.3-10, a general higher frequency in interpreters' substitution of participants for clarifying can be observed in C-E CI based on each interpreter's performance.
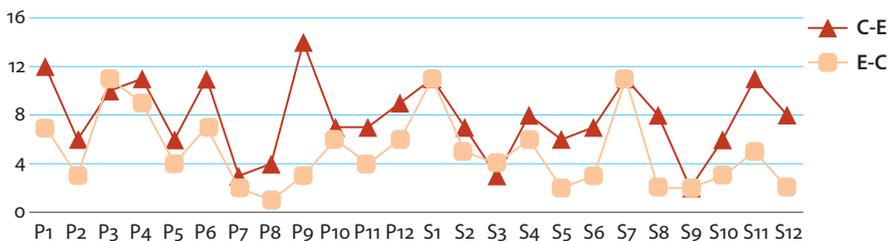
Figure 5.3-10 Frequency of EE4M3 (Sub) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 5.3-14, a significant difference between the two different interpreting directions can be observed ($p = 0.020$) through the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test.

Table 5.3-14 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE4M3 (Sub) according to interpreting direction

EE4M3 (Sub)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.335	0.337	0.020	95%

In addition, the effect size r being 0.337 also suggests the independent variable – interpreting direction – exerts an over-medium effect on interpreters' frequency in making participant-based substitutions for clarifying. It can thus be concluded that interpreters made significantly more participant substitutions for clarifying in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

3. 43 participant substitutions for gap-filling have been found in C-E CI, while only 18 such shifts were found in E-C CI. A general higher frequency in interpreters' substitution of participants for gap-filling can be seen in C-E CI based on each interpreter's performance (see Figure 5.3-11).
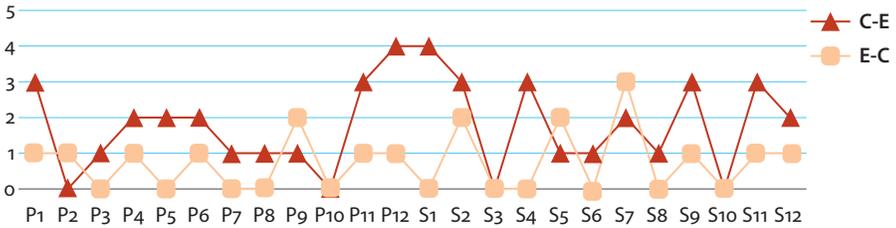
Figure 5.3-11 Frequency of EE4M2 (Sub) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

To measure the difference, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has been implemented (see Table 5.3-15), where a significant difference between the two interpreting directions in the frequency of participant substitutions for gap-filling has been revealed ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.452$).

Table 5.3-15 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EE4M2 (Sub) according to interpreting direction

EE4M2 (Sub)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.134	0.452	0.002	95%

It suggests that interpreters encountered more participant losses in C-E CI and they are inclined to substitute the original participant with another one that can be inferred from other information in the context.

5.3.5 Results of experiential explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

On the basis of the above analysis about the four subcategories of experiential explicitations, it can be found that in C-E and E-C CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made experiential explicitations. Table 5.3-16 sums up the number of experiential explicitations in each interpreting direction according to different motivations:

Table 5.3-16 Number of experiential explicitations in C-E and E-C CI

EE	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	199	3	11	67	686	429	1395
E-C	160	3	47	101	795	314	1420

The data have been further measured by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. As shown in Table 5.3-17, significant differences between the two interpreting directions can be identified in the number of adding experiential content for gap-filling ($p = 0.000$), substituting experiential content for gap-filling ($p = 0.003$), adding experiential information for clarifying ($p = 0.000$) and substituting experiential information for clarifying ($p = 0.000$).

Table 5.3-17 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of EEM2 (Add),[25] EEM2 (Sub),[26] EEM3 (Add)[27] and EEM3 (Sub)[28] between the two groups in E-C CI

C-E vs E-C	Z	r	p	Remarks
EEM2 (Add)	−3.767	0.544	0.000	95%
EEM2 (Sub)	−2.988	0.431	0.003	95%
EEM3 (Add)	−5.259	0.615	0.000	95%
EEM3 (Sub)	−5.117	0.594	0.000	95%

Moreover, with the four relevant effect size r being 0.544, 0.431, 0.615 and 0.594, the magnitude of the above differences are all over medium (only the magnitude of the inter-direction difference in making experiential substitutions for gap-filling is an over-medium one, the magnitude of the other three differences are big). In other words, the independent variable – interpreting direction – has exerted an over-medium effect on the number of experiential additions and substitutions they make for gap-filling and clarifying. To be specific, it is justifiable to argue that interpreters added significantly more experiential information for gap-filling and clarifying in E-C direction, substituted significantly more experiential information for gap-filling in E-C direction and substituted significantly more experiential information for clarifying in C-E CI.

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25. EEM2 (Add) represents experiential additions for gap-filling.

26. EEM2 (Sub) represents experiential substitutions for gap-filling.

27. EEM3 (Add) represents experiential additions for clarifying.

28. EEM3 (Sub) represents experiential substitutions for clarifying.

CHAPTER 6

Interpersonal explicitations

Previous studies on explicitation mainly focus on form-oriented shifts (Blum-Kulka 1986/2004; Vehmas-Leto 1989; Shlesinger 1995; Olohan & Baker 2000; Olohan 2001, 2002a, 2002b; 2004; Wang 2003; Puurtinen 2004; Kenny 2005; Huang 2007), like the addition of connectives, and the lexicalisation of personal pronouns. In recent years, more studies have turned to the meaning-oriented shifts (Weissbrod 1992; Klaudy 1993; Englund Dimitrova 1993; Perego 2003; Pápai 2004; House 2004; Ke 2005; Gumul 2006a & 2006b; Kamenická 2007b; Xue 2007; Zhang 2009; Becher 2011; Wang 2012, 2013a; Xiao 2012), such as lexical specification, disambiguating metaphors and culture-related additions. Yet, so far, the explicitation of attitude-based information has rarely been systematically explored (Zhang 2002: 17). This chapter intends to fill in this gap by investigating interpersonal explicitations.

6.1 Interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

This section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their interpersonal explicitation patterns in C-E CI. According to the typology framework of the present study (see Figure 3-1 and 3-2), there are three subcategories under interpersonal explicitation: engagement-based explicitation, attitude-based explicitation and graduation-based explicitation. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of interpersonal explicitation in C-E CI are reported in the following three subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on interpersonal explicitation patterns in C-E CI can be found in Section 6.1.4.

6.1.1 Results of engagement-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 6.1-1 displays all the engagement-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. As shown in the table, the qualitative analysis has identified two motivations for which interpreters make such shifts. One situation is when interpreters lack information-processing time, and the other is when interpreters want to clarify who is responsible for the ensuing point of view.

Table 6.1-1 Number of engagement-based explicitations in C-E CI

IE1	M1		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	3	0	4	0	7
CES	29	1	3	0	33

This table provides evidence for the following observations:

Observation One: More additions of inferable engagement elements for time management can be found in the student group.

Observation Two: Engagement elements were added mainly for time management rather than for reinforcing.

Illustration on the observations:

1. As displayed in Figure 6.1-1, among the 24 subjects, two professional interpreters and five student interpreters made engagement-based additions for time-management. Yet, 59% of such shifts was made only by one subject S5, which indicates that it may be S5's individual preference rather than interpreters' regular performance to gain extra time by adding engagement information.
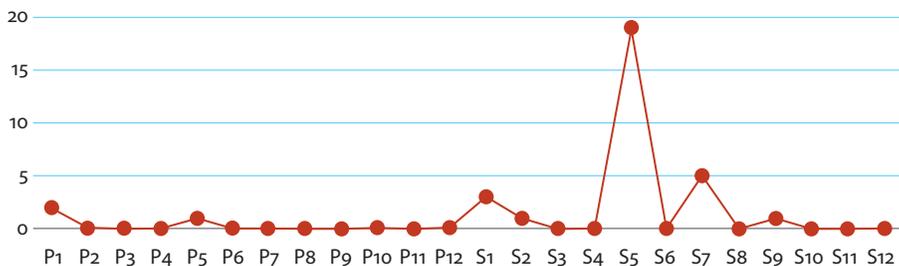
Figure 6.1-1 Frequency of IE1M1 (Add) made by each participant in C-E CI

Moreover, as shown in Table 6.1-2, no significant difference can be found between these two groups ($p = 0.150$). With the effect size measure r being 0.294, the magnitude of this difference is small.

Table 6.1-2 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE1M1(Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

IE1M1 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	52.00	−1.439	0.294	0.150	No significant difference

Therefore it could be concluded that interpreters' professional experience only exerts a small effect on their frequency of making engagement-based additions for time management, and no significant difference could be found between the two groups in this regard.

Besides, for student interpreters, 87% of engagement-based additions can be attributed to the intention of time management, which suggests that for student interpreters, additions of engagement elements are mainly for gaining extra information-processing time rather than increasing listeners' awareness about who shares the responsibility for the ensuing comments. Typical examples from the student group are shown below:

Example 6.1.1-1

ST: 最关键的问题是什么？是质量。而提高教育质量的最核心的问题是什么？最关键的问题是什么？是教师，是教师队伍建设。

LT: What's the most important issue? [It] is quality. And what's the critical issue in improving the quality of education? What's the most important issue? [It] is the faculty, is the building of the faculty team.

S5: [IE1M1]**I think** \<p\> the most important part and also the essence of this issue is that we should have good \<uh\> [TE2M3]we should have [IE2M4]good teachers.
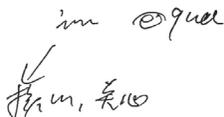
S5 reported that s/he failed to note down "质量 (quality)" in his/her notes, which led to the substitution of "质量 (quality)" with "教师 (teachers)". Referring to his/her notes, it shows that the original "关键 (critical)" has been mistakenly noted down as "关心 (care)". This might to some extent trigger the confusion in S5's mind and require him/her to slow down the information delivery. Hence, s/he added the engagement element "I think" and a pause as the way to earn extra time in connecting ideas s/he noted down. For the addition of "I think" *per se*, as the engagement information, it emphasises the speaker's intention to draw listeners' attention in developing education and teachers' quality.

Example 6.1.1-2

ST: 如果说现在城乡之间教育还存在着比较大的差距的话，硬件差距还有，但是不是最重要的，最重要的差距就是教师队伍，教师的质量。

LT: If [you] say there is still [a] relatively large gap between education in rural and urban areas, there is still [a] gap in infrastructure, but [it] is not the most important [one]. The most important gap is the faculty team, the quality of the faculty.

S9: <uh> Now if we say there is also gap between the education in cities or in rural areas [IE1M1]**we think that** <uh> the points [EE1M3]that make [IE3M4]such a large gap is the quality of teachers rather than <uh> the hardware [EE1M3]in school.

In this case, the phrase "we think that" has been added, removing the ambiguity of who shares the idea that the key to education development in the rural and urban areas lie in the quality of the faculty. The hesitation marker following this phrase indicates S9's intention of gaining extra processing time. In S9's retrospection, s/he reported that "I noted down '硬件 (hardware)' on my notes, but did not find a proper way to express this concept in English, so I put the latter part first". On the basis of this, it can be assumed that while adding the phrase "we think that", S9 is on the one hand searching for the English equivalent of "硬件" and on the other hand trying to reconstruct the original information.

2. The major manifestation of engagement-based explicitation is the addition of phrases like "I/we think/believe (that)" and "in my opinion" in C-E CI. Although interpreters may not be aware of it, all of the above phrases they added generate a reinforcement effect, emphasising the speaker's engagement in commenting. And since the speaker, as the Minister of Education, is speaking on behalf of the government, this kind of addition also strengthens the authoritativeness and enhances the credibility of those comments.

6.1.2 Results of attitude-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 6.1-3 gives the number of all attitude-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. As is shown, the qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made this type of explicitation. They are (1) for earning extra processing time; (2) for compensating information loss and (3) for reinforcing the speaker's implied attitude.

Table 6.1-3 Number of attitude-based explicitations in C-E CI

IE2	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	2	1	2	9	94	89	197
CES	2	0	6	13	65	68	154

This table justifies the following observations:

> Observation One: More attitude-based additions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude can be identified in the professional group than in the student group.
> Observation Two: More attitude-based substitutions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude can be found in the professional group than in the student group.

Illustration on the observations:

1. There are over one hundred attitude-based explicitation shifts for reinforcing the speaker's attitude in both groups. Moreover, as shown in Figure 6.1-2, every subject has made this type of explicitation.
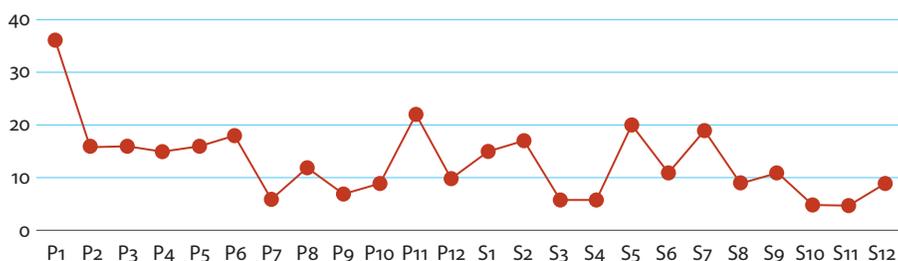
Figure 6.1-2 Frequency of IE2M4 made by each participant in C-E CI

These two indicators suggest that it is common for professional and student interpreters to reinforce the speaker's attitude in C-E CI. Example 6.1.2-1, 6.1.2-2, 6.1.2-3 and 6.1.2-4 originated from both groups may well illustrate this point:

Example 6.1.2-1
- ST: 在这个历史时期，我刚才说到了，是一个全面提高教育质量的新阶段。
- LT: At this historical stage, [as] I mentioned just now, [it] is a new stage to improve the education quality in an all-around way.
- S12: In this great, in this historical era, [IE2M4]**we should** pay attention to developing <p> overall, comprehensive and <uh> quality of education.

The original information is a statement of the fact that "this moment is a new stage to develop education". Yet, the speaker's intention of stating the fact is to motivate people to take actions and make contributions. With this in mind, S12 shifted the original into an appeal by introducing a request "we should", which explicitly shows that people, including all the listeners, should shoulder the responsibility of developing education. In this sense, the explicitation changes the original one-way announcement to a two-way interaction.

Example 6.1.2-2
ST: 而现在我们教育发展到一个最关键的时刻，发展到了一个新的历史时期。
LT: And now our education has developed into the most critical moment, developed into a new historical stage.
P10: And at this new stage, [IE2M4]**we should** [IE3M4]further more **develop education**.

The original message is just an observation about the current status of Chinese education, namely "education developed into a critically new stage". Yet this indicates the speaker's underlying intention to arouse people's attention to the development of education. In the rendition, P10 expressed this implied attitude of the speaker by directly asking listeners to get involved in this task, markedly increasing the interactionality.

Example 6.1.2-3
ST: 尊师重教的传统
LT: the tradition of respecting teachers and valuing education
P7: the tradition of [IE2M4]**advocating** <uh> education and also admiring our respecting [TE1M3]our teachers

The original "重 (value or attach importance to)" has been paraphrased as "advocate". Compared with "value", "advocate" depicts the speaker's intention of "encourage people to participate in enhancing the quality of education" in a more explicit way, because "value" only illustrates an individual's attitude while "advocate" foregrounds the intention of persuading others to share the same view.

Example 6.1.2-4
ST: 现在这批老师能够有60%到90%都能够留在当地的农村，继续地当老师。
LT: Now 60% to 90% of this group of teachers can stay at the local rural areas and continue to be teachers.
P10: And 60–90% of those teachers [IE2M4]**have chosen to**, remain teaching in the rural areas.

The original information is just a statement of the situation that "teachers will stay at rural areas to teach". Yet P10 employed the process "chose to", which constitutes an addition of attitudinal information, to reinforce the initiative of those teachers in making this decision.

2. 183 attitude-based explicitations can be found in the professional group, while 133 such shifts were found in the student group. A Mann-Whitney Test was conducted to measure the difference between groups.

Table 6.1-4 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE2M4 between the two groups in C-E CI

IE2M4	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	49.00	−1.334	0.272	0.182	No significant difference

As shown in Table 6.1-4, no significant difference can be found between these two groups ($p = 0.182$). With the effect size measure r being 0.272, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere between small and medium. Therefore, it could be concluded that interpreters' professional experience only exerts a small effect on interpreters' frequency of making attitude-based explicitations for reinforcing the speaker's attitude, and no significant difference could be found between the two groups in this regard.

6.1.3 Results of graduation-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 6.1-5 gives the number of all the graduation-based explicitation shifts identified in C-E CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters made graduation-based explicitations.

Table 6.1-5 Number of graduation-based explicitations in C-E CI

IE3	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	14	0	0	3	135	8	160
CES	6	0	9	0	114	14	143

The following observations can be made from the table:

> Observation One: More inferable intensifier additions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude can be identified in the professional group.
> Observation Two: More inferable intensifier additions for time management have been identified in the professional group.
> Observation Three: Only student interpreters made intensifier-related additions as a strategy for gap-filling.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 135 intensifier additions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude have been found in the professional group, while 114 such shifts were found in the student group. As shown in Table 6.1-6, the Mann-Whitney Test shows that no significant difference can be observed between the frequency of intensifier additions for subjectivity reinforcement in the two groups.

Table 6.1-6 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE3M4 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

IE3M4 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	50.00	−1.278	0.261	0.201	No significant difference
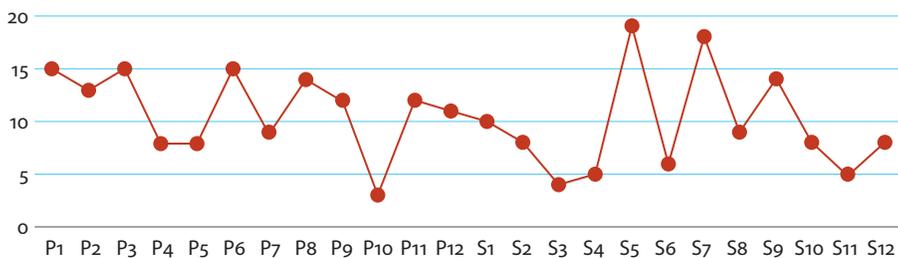
Figure 6.1-3 Frequency of IE3M4 (Add) made by each participant in C-E CI

Yet, it should be noted that with over 100 relevant additions in both groups and every subject's involvement in making this type of explicitation (see Figure 6.1-3), it can be concluded that to reinforce the speaker's attitude through adding intensifiers is a regular practice shared by both professional and student interpreters. Example 6.1.3-1, 6.1.3-2 and 6.1.3-3 from each group can well illustrate this point:

Example 6.1.3-1
    ST: 所以这几年来，党和政府特别重视农村教师队伍建设
    LT: So over these years, the Party and the government attached great importance to the building of rural faculty team.
    S11:   <uh> For [IE3M4]**many** years, the [EE1M3]Communist Party and the government have [IE2M4]made a lot of efforts to [EE2M3]improve [EE4M3]the quality of the <uh> teaching faculty in the rural areas.

In this example, "many" has been added to intensify the efforts made by the Party and the government in developing a good faculty team, which conforms to the speaker's intention in reinforcing that the Party and the government have given priority to this issue for a long period of time.

Example 6.1.3-2
    ST: 下一个阶段我们就是要想办法让孩子们能够上好学
    LT: [In] the next stage, we shall think out ways to let children be able to receive good education.
    P4:   In the next stage, what we need to do is to [EE2M3]come up with [IE3M4]**various** ways to [EE2M3]provide quality education to these children.

In the above example, "various" has been added to intensify the government's determination in improving education quality. Compared with the original wording "想办法 (think out ways to)", the new version depicts vividly that the government will spare no efforts so as to fulfil this task.

    In Example 6.1.3-3, the importance of the moment has been reinforced by adding the intensifier "very" in the TT.

Example 6.1.3-3
    ST: 在这个历史时期
    LT: at this historical stage
    P2:   And ^{TE3M3}so ^{EE3M3}now ^{IE2M4}it is a ^{IE3M4}**very** critical moment in history

2.   As displayed in Figure 6.1-4, the 14 intensifier additions for time management in the professional group were made by four professional interpreters, while the six relevant shifts in the student group were made by five student interpreters.
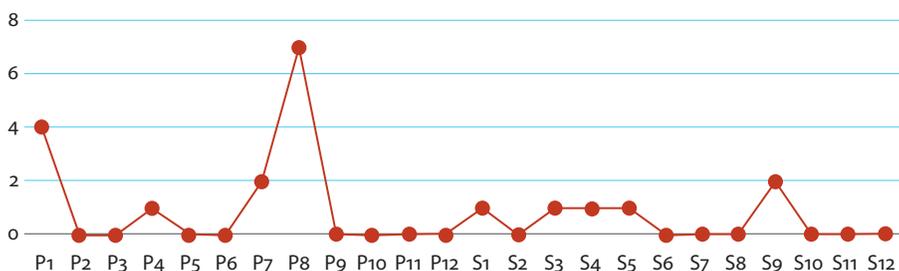
Figure 6.1-4 Frequency of IE3M1 (Add) made by each participant in C-E CI

It suggests that for both professional and student interpreters, if there is a lack of information-processing time, intensifiers may be added as the way to earn extra information-processing time. Example 6.1.3-4 and 6.1.3-5 from each group can illustrate this point:

Example 6.1.3-4
    ST: 这样我们就组织了大批优秀的师资到农村去从事教学工作。
    LT: In this way, we organised a large number of excellent teachers to go to rural areas to teach.
    P2: ^{IE2M4}This can help us to increase, improve the teacher's quality. ^{TE3M1}And~ ^{IE3M1}**of course** <uh> these schemes are quite successful.

P2 reported in the retrospection that s/he did not hear this segment clearly. But based on the notes, s/he was able to organise an idea inferable from the original segment. Actually, "organizing lots of excellent teachers to teach in rural areas" can obviously "help improve the teacher's quality". Yet, since P2 is not sure whether this rendition conforms to the original information, s/he decided to complement this with an additional idea that is easily inferable from the previous text "these schemes are quite successful". Before making a decision, a conjunctive adjunct "and", an intensifier "of course" and a hesitation marker "uh" have been uttered to gain extra processing time.

Example 6.1.3-5

ST: 所以这几年来，党和政府特别重视农村教师队伍建设

LT: So over these years, the Party and the government attached great importance to the building of rural faculty team.

P1: [IE3M1]**Actually** \<uh\> recent years have witnessed [EE2M4]the efforts, of the [EE4M3]party leaders and the government [EE1M3]to solve the issues of the teachers in the rural area.

In this example, the intensifier "actually" has been added at the very beginning. Since it foregrounds the importance of the following information, it is labelled as a graduation-based explicitation. The following hesitation marker also suggests this addition as a time-management strategy. What was P1 thinking about at that moment? P1 did not take any notes for the process of this clause. In his/her rendition, rather than expressing this idea literally, s/he substituted it with another process "witness the efforts". Thus, during the time gained through uttering "actually" and "uh", it may be plausible that P1 is trying to recall from his/her working memory the original process, which cannot be found in his/her notes. Later resulting from the failure to retrieve that message, s/he reorganised another inferable process.

Example 6.1.3-6

ST: 前天上午胡锦涛、温家宝、李长春、习近平等党和国家领导人亲切地接见了全国的优秀教师代表

LT: The day before yesterday, the Party and State leaders Hu Jintao, Wen Jiabao, Li Changchun [and] Xi Jinpin, etc., cordially greeted the representatives of excellent teachers all around the country

S4: [TE3M3]And the day before yesterday, [IE3M1]**a lot of** \<uh\> national leaders \<uh\> went to visit the teachers and [EE2M3]to~ celebrate the holiday with them

S4's notes show clearly that s/he did not record the names of those leaders. S4 also reported that s/he did not keep the names of those leaders in mind, so s/he had to use a very general term "national leaders" instead. Before making this decision, the phrase "a lot of" has been added to gain extra processing time. This addition foregrounds the importance the government has attached to the issue of celebrating with excellent teachers' representatives and can assure listeners of the government's devotion to education development.

3. Intensifier additions for gap-filling can only be found in the student group and these nine cases were made by five student interpreters (see Figure 6.1-5).
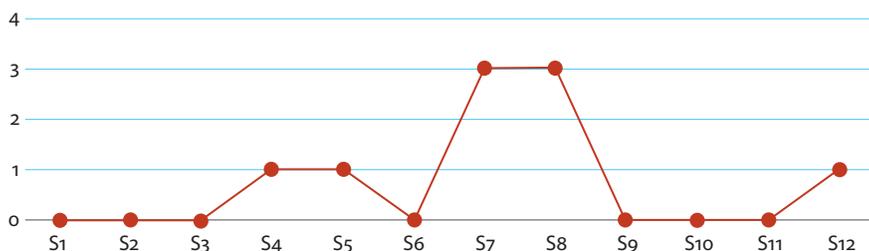
Figure 6.1-5 Frequency of IE3M2 (Add) made by each student interpreter in C-E CI

As shown in Table 6.1-7, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.015$, $r = 0.499$).

Table 6.1-7 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE3M2 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

IE3M2 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	42.00	−2.444	0.499	0.015	95%

However, it should be noted that although the statistical analysis shows a significant difference between the two groups, since only nine relevant shifts were identified in this study, it could also be a result of individual divergence. Hence, the small amount of relevant data does not permit any definite conclusions to be drawn. Only future researches with more related data can provide a tenable answer.

Example 6.1.3-7 and 6.1.3-8 are typical instances made by student interpreters to illustrate the intensifier additions for gap-filling:

Example 6.1.3-7
ST: 在这个历史时期，我刚才说到了，是一个全面提高教育质量的新阶段。
LT: At this historical stage, [as] I mentioned just now, [it] is a new stage to improve the education quality in an all-around way.
S7: Now <uh> [EE3M2]over the [EE1M2]past years, [IE2M2]China has been working [IE3M2]**very** hard on improving the quality of education endeavour.

S7 did not take down any notes for this segment. The original information is concerning about the speaker's expectation for future development. Yet, in S7's rendition, s/he formed an idea about China's efforts in improving education in the past. Since this idea can be inferred not from the original segment but the previous

paragraph, it is labelled as a gap-filling strategy. In this way, the added "very", which intensifies the degree of hard working, is labelled as a graduation-based explicitation for gap-filling.

Example 6.1.3-8

ST: 绩效工资制度不仅仅是收入的提高，同时也是一次人事分配制度的改革

LT: The performance payment system is not only the increase of income, but also is a reform of the personnel distribution system.

S4: [TE3M3]And this plan is not only [TE3M3]concerning about the increasing salary [EE1M3]of the teachers, but also [TE2M1]it is the <uh> [EE4M2]quality improvement for [IE3M2]**all** the teachers' education.

In S4's retrospection, s/he reported that s/he encountered a difficulty in rendering "人事分配制度 (reform of the personnel distribution system)", so s/he chose to fill in this gap with a general concept that can easily be inferred from the context, namely "quality improvement for all the teachers' education". Since the substituted information can be inferred not from the original information, it is labelled as a gap-filling strategy. Within this substitution the intensifier "all" is labelled as a separate graduation-based explicitation for gap-filling (see Section 3.4.1).

6.1.4   Results of interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

On the basis of the above analysis on three subcategories of interpersonal explicitations, it can be identified that in C-E CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made interpersonal explicitations. Table 6.1-8 shows the number of interpersonal explicitations made by each group according to different motivations:

Table 6.1-8 Number of interpersonal explicitations in C-E CI

IE	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	19	1	2	12	233	97	364
CES	37	1	15	13	182	82	330

The Mann-Whitney Test proves that no significant difference can be found in the number of interpersonal explicitation for time management and reinforcing. Yet, as shown in Table 6.1-9, a significant inter-group difference in the number of the addition of inferable appraisal information for gap-filling ($p = 0.026$) has been identified.

Table 6.1-9 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of CEIEM2 (Add)[29] between the two groups in C-E CI

CEP vs CES	U	Z	*r*	*p*	Remarks
CEIEM2 (Add)	36.00	−2.227	0.455	0.026	95%

With the *p* value below 0.05, the odds of difference are 95% above. In addition, as the effect size measure *r* being 0.455, the magnitude of the difference between medium and big, indicating that student interpreters tend to add more attitude-based information as a strategy to compensate information loss.

6.2 Interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Similar to the previous Section 6.1, this section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their interpersonal explicitation patterns in E-C CI. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of interpersonal explicitation in E-C CI are reported in the following three subsections respectively, while a summary of its effects on interpersonal explicitation patterns in E-C CI can be found in Section 6.2.4.

6.2.1 Results of engagement-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 6.2-1 displays all the engagement-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made such explicitations. They are for time management, gap-filling and subjectivity reinforcement.

Table 6.2-1 Number of engagement-based explicitations in E-C CI

IE1	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	10	0	1	0	4	0	15
ECS	7	0	3	0	4	0	14

---

29. CEIEM2 (Add) represents interpersonal additions for gap-filling in C-E CI.

On the basis of the figures in this table, the following conclusion can be drawn:

With about 73% engagement-based explicitations made for time management and gap-filling in the professional group and 71% such shifts in the student group, it is justifiable to conclude that in E-C CI, engagement elements were added mainly to compensate interpreters' inadequate interpreting competency. Example 6.2.1-1 and 6.2.1-2 originated from each group may well illustrate this point:

Example 6.2.1-1

ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.

P4: ^{TE3M3}所以^{IE1M1}**我觉得**~我们^{EE3M3}今天所有人要做的事情，就是要找到这个合适的^{EE4M3}平衡点，找到^{EE4M3}解决的办法。

LT: ^{TE3M3}So ^{IE1M1}**I think**~ the thing we ^{EE3M3}today all the people need to do, is to find the appropriate ^{EE4M3}balance, find ^{EE4M3}the solution.
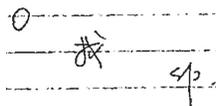
In P4's retrospection, s/he reported that although s/he heard the phrase "to find the right speed" and jotted down "sp" to represent this idea, s/he was still not sure about its meaning while reading the notes. Referring to the previous idea "yin-yang", s/he formed an idea "find a balance and solution". During this thinking process, s/he uttered in a stretching way the phrase "我觉得 (I think)", an engagement component making explicit who is responsible for the ensuing idea, so as to gain extra processing time.

Example 6.1-2

ST: Their bosses created the resistance because they did not take time to explain the purpose, the benefit, explain what they will need to do.

S7: ^{TE3M2}所以^{IE1M2}**我认为**^{IE2M2}这点非常得重要。

LT: ^{TE3M2}So ^{IE1M2}**I think** ^{IE2M2}this point is very important.

In Example 6.1-2, S7 did not took any notes. His/her rendition shows that s/he failed to recall the original content and chose to make a substitution with an implied idea "this point is very important". To be exact, this idea can be inferred from the speaker's elaboration on the issue "why people resist". The speaker's detailed explanation on this issue reveals his/her intention to foreground its importance. Since the whole segment of this rendition are adopted for filling out the time slot resulting from the information loss, and the added part "我认为 (I think)" can be deleted without generating any information loss to the idea S7 expressed, this engagement component is labelled as a separate explicitation case (see Section 3.4.1), more specifically, an engagement-based explicitation for gap-filling.

Altogether, the engagement-based explicitations found in E-C CI include expressions like "我想/我觉得/我认为 (I think)" and "我相信 (I believe)". The above

analysis confirms that professional and student interpreters are prone to add engagement components like "I think" and "I believe" as a way to compensate their interpreting incompetency, that is, for gaining extra information-processing time or filling in gaps triggered by information loss.

6.2.2 Results of attitude-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 6.2-2 gives the number of all the attitude-based explicitation shifts identified in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made such explicitations.

Table 6.2-2 Number of attitude-based explicitations in E-C CI

IE2	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	0	0	0	3	30	20	53
ECS	7	1	0	7	33	20	68

This table provides evidence for the following observations:

> Observation One: Attitude-based explicitations were usually made for reinforcing the speaker's attitude.
> Observation Two: There are still cases where attitude-based explicitations were made to compensate for interpreters' inadequate competency.

Illustration on the observations:

1. The majority of attitude-based explicitations are for reinforcing the speaker's attitude. Figure 6.2-1 displays each subject's frequency in making attitude-based explicitations for foregrounding the speaker's attitude.
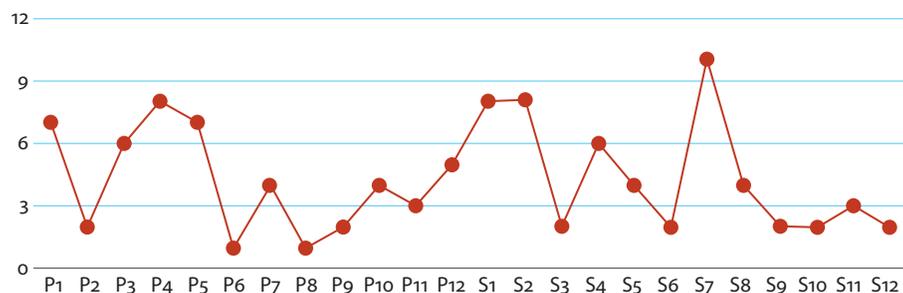
Figure 6.2-1 Frequency of IE2M4 made by each subject in E-C CI

All the 24 participating interpreters used this type of explicitation. Altogether there were 50 such shifts in the professional group, while there were 53 in the student group, which demonstrates that it is common for professional and student interpreters to explicitate the speaker's implied affectional, judgmental and appreciational messages. This point can be well illustrated by Example 6.2.2-1, 6.2.2-2, 6.2.2-3 and 6.2.2-4 from both groups:

Example 6.2.2-1
ST: I think, will be quite relevant to you.
P10: 对于大家[IE3M4]都非常得<uh>[IE2M4]**有这个借鉴的意义**
LT: quite <uh> [IE2M4]**inspiring** to you [IE3M4]all

In this example, the original "relevant" is a neutral word. Yet in the rendition, P10 substituted it with "有借鉴的意义 (inspiring)", a commendatory idea inferable from the context. In this way, the speaker's implied idea "you can learn something from my speech" has been explicitly illustrated. Similar explanation also applies to Example 6.2.2-2 where "relevant to" has been substituted by an evaluative modifier "比较有用的 (somewhat helpful)", which highlights the speakers' confidence in the usefulness of his speech.

Example 6.2.2-2
ST: The lessons, I think, will be quite relevant to you.
S12: 我相信呢~在[TE1M3]亚洲这一块，应该是对你们来说会[IE2M4]**比较有用的**
LT: I believe~ this section [TE1M3]about Asian, should be [IE2M4]**somewhat helpful** to you.

Example 6.2.2-3
ST: I will share from my research and personal experience of managing change in Asia.
P10: 我[IE2M4]**希望**[EE3M3]今天能够[EE4M3]给大家分享一下我在这方面的经验还有一些个人的经历。
LT: I [IE2M4]**hope** [EE3M3] today [I] can [EE4M3]share with you my experience and some personal undergoing in this aspect.

The source speech of Example 6.2.2-3 belongs to a factual statement. Yet, in the rendition, through P10's addition of "希望 (hope)", the speaker's implied willingness to deliver this speech has been reinforced.

Example 6.2.2-4
ST: … to work with the leaders at the school level
S5:   … 和学校的领导人共同[IE2M4]**努力**
LT: … to [IE2M4]**make effort** with leaders at the school level

In the above example, the original action "to work" expresses a neutral meaning. Yet, the context shows the speaker's intention of getting people work hard so as to fulfil

changes. To make explicit this implied attitude of the speaker, S5 rephrased the original word "work" into a positive expression "努力 (make effort)" in the rendition.

2. Despite the fact that the majority of attitude-based explicitations are for reinforcing the speaker's attitude, there are still cases where appraisal information were added for compensating interpreters' incompetency (5% of the professional group and 22% of the student group). Example 6.2.2-5 and 6.2.2-6 are typical cases from each group that may well illustrate this point:

Example 6.2.2-5

ST: Leaders cannot make the change happened alone.

S2: … 因此[TE1M3]我们的这些领导呢不能够[IE2M2]**很好地**，实施[EE1M2]自己[IE3M2]这一系列的改变的[EE4M2]措施和计划。

LT: … therefore [TE1M3]our leaders cannot [IE2M2]**very well**, carry out [our] [EE1M2]own [IE3M2]series of [EE4M2]measurement and plan of change.

In Example 6.2.2-5, due to the missing of "alone" in S2's notes and memory, s/he failed to render the original meaning in a precise way. Instead on the basis of his/her notes and previous context, s/he came up with the idea "leaders cannot carry out changes very well". Since this new idea is inferred not from the segment the interpreter should have rendered, it was regarded as a "gap-filling strategy". And as "很好地 (very well)" is a separable constituent, it is labelled as a case illustrating "attitude-based explicitation for gap-filling". The same consideration also applies to Example 6.2.2-6, where the lost original idea has been substituted with a new idea "能够使你们更加的成功 (can make you more successful)", which is one of the speaker's implied judgment and can be inferred from the previous co-text.

Example 6.2.2-6

ST: your job is […] being able to work with the leaders at the school level to make change happen successfully.

S12: 你们的工作 …. 在学校层面呢，对于变化进行有效地处理，[IE2M2]**能够使你们更加的成功**。

LT: Your job … At the school level, effectively deal with changes, [IE2M2] [this] **can make you more successful**.

6.2.3   Results of graduation-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 6.2-3 gives the number of all the graduation-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI. The qualitative analysis, as is shown, has identified three motivations for which interpreters made graduation-based explicitations.

Table 6.2-3 Number of graduation-based explicitations in E-C CI

IE3	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	19	0	4	0	172	1	196
ECS	12	0	13	0	111	5	141

The following observations can be yielded from this table:

>   Observation One: Professional interpreters made more intensifier additions for subjectivity reinforcement than their student counterparts.
>   Observation Two: Professional interpreters made more intensifier additions for time management than their student counterparts.
>   Observation Three: Student interpreters made more intensifier additions for gap-filling than their professional counterparts.

Illustration on the observations:

1.   Table 6.2-3 shows that the majority of graduation-based explicitations for subjectivity reinforcement are in the form of additions. Professional interpreters made 172 implied intensifier additions while their student counterparts made only 111 such additions.

Table 6.2-4 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE3M4 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

IE3M4 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	37.50	−1.999	0.408	0.046	95%

As shown in Table 6.2-4, the Mann-Whitney Test displays that there is a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.046$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds of difference between these two groups are above 95%. Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.408, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere between medium and big, which refers to an over-medium effect of the independent variable, interpreters' professional experience, on their performance of reinforcing the speaker's attitude through the addition of inferable intensifiers. These suggest

that professional interpreters add implied intensifiers for reinforcing the speaker's appraisal message more frequently than their student counterparts. Example 6.2.3-1 and 6.2.3-2 are typical instances from each group:

Example 6.2.3-1

> ST: I am not a professional on leading change in China.
> P7: [IE3M4]**当然**对于中国的变化来说呢~我[IE3M4]**的确**算不上一个专家.
> LT: [IE3M4]**Of course** as to changes in China, I [IE3M4]**indeed** cannot be counted as an expert.

In this example, with the addition of the intensifiers "当然 (of course)" and "的确 (indeed)", P7 foregrounded the speaker's acknowledgment of not being an expert in a certain area, which may strengthen the contrast with the following clause "but I have been doing research on managing change in Asian countries for twenty years".

Example 6.2.3-2

> ST: So even though change is difficult
> S2: 虽然[EE1M3]我们面临这些改变[IE3M4]**都**是[IE3M4]**十分**困难的
> LT: Although these changes [EE1M3]that we face are [IE3M4]**all** [IE3M4]**very** difficult.

In Example 6.2.3-2, S2 added two intensifiers "都 (all)" and "十分 (very)", which intensified the speaker's emphasis on the scope and degree of the difficulty that they are facing.

2. Table 6.2-3 shows that all graduation-based explicitations made for time management are in the form of additions. Among them, 19 were made by professional interpreters while 12 were made by students. The Mann-Whitney Test proves such difference is only marginal ($p = 0.738$, $r = 0.068$).

Table 6.2-5 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE3M1 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

IE3M1 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	66.50	−0.334	0.068	0.738	No significant difference
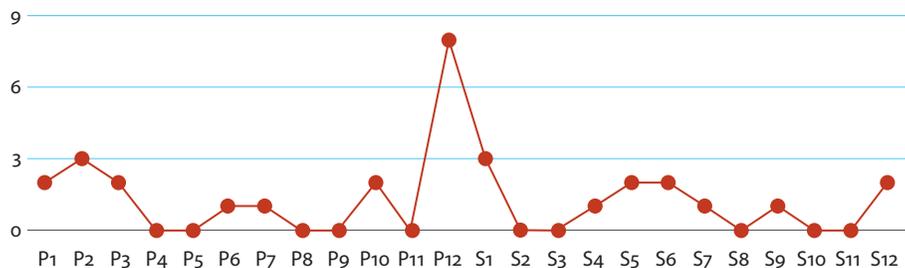
Figure 6.2-2 Frequency of IE3M1 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

Yet, as shown in Figure 6.2-2, seven interpreters in both groups did perform this type of explicitation; thus, it could be claimed that for both professional and student interpreters, adding intensifiers while lacking processing time is a common practice. Example 6.2.3-3 and 6.2.3-4 are typical cases from each group that can well illustrate this point:

Example 6.2.3-3

ST: Gentle

P10: ^{TE2M1}要^{IE3M1}**非常得**这个\<uh>温\<uh>温柔

LT: ^{TE2M1}should be ^{IE3M1}**very** \<uh> gen \<uh> gentle

In the source speech, several other adjective words followed "Gentle", which forms a long list of characteristics for good leaders. To gain extra time in recalling those features, the intensifier "非常得 (very)" and the hesitation marker \<uh> were added.

Example 6.2.3-4

ST: I think also very important is to be a model. Be the change you want to see.

S1: ^{IE3M1}**其实**\<p>^{EE2M3}让人们接受变革的一个方法就是，^{TE2M3}自己身体力行，展示这个变化^{EE3M3}之后的好处。

LT: ^{IE3M1}**As a matter of fact** \<p> ^{EE2M3}one method of making people accept changes is, to implement it ^{TE2M3}yourself, [and] show the benefit ^{EE3M3}following this change.

Although "model" has been noted down as "榜 (model)" in S1's notes, s/he reported in the retrospection that s/he thought that instead of rendering "model" literally, it was better to redefine this concept. So s/he rephrased "be a model" into "展示这个变化之后的好处 (show the benefit following this change)". Thus, it is reasonable to infer that while uttering the added intensifier "其实 (as a matter of fact)" and the pause \<p>, S1 was searching for ways to rephrase the concept "being a model".
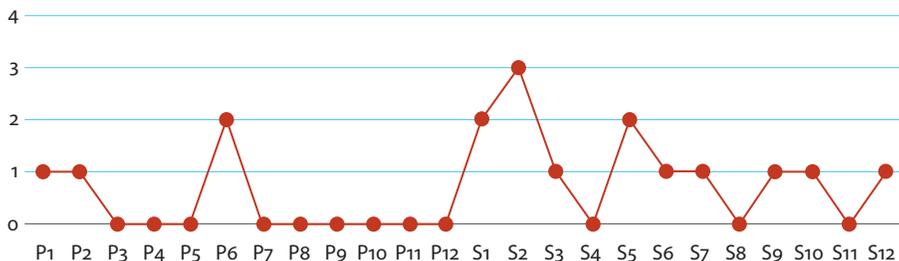
Figure 6.2-3 Frequency of IE3M2 (Add) made by each student interpreter in E-C CI

3. As shown in Table 6.2-3, all graduation-based explicitations made for gap-filling are in the form of additions. Among them, four additions are made by three professional interpreters and 13 other additions are made by nine student interpreters (see Figure 6.2-3 above).

As shown in Table 6.2-6, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.021$). With the p value below 0.05, there is an over 95% possibility for the existence of a significant difference.

Table 6.2-6 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of IE3M2 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

IE3M2 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	35.50	−2.303	0.470	0.021	95%

Moreover, with the effect size measure r up to 0.470, the magnitude of the difference is between medium and big. This confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts an over-medium effect on the quantity of intensifier additions that interpreters made for gap-filling. It suggests that while encountering information loss, student interpreters make more additions of intensifiers to the message they use to fill in the gap resulting from information loss than their professional counterparts. Example 6.2.3-5 is a typical example to illustrate the intensifier additions made by student interpreters for gap-filling:

Example 6.2.3-5

ST: Many changes are happening at the same time, we will tend to have more resistance.

S5: <uh>[TE3M3]其次呢~[IE2M1]我想讲一下<p>就是[EE2M2]变化呢[IE3M2]**其实**能够引起很多的问题，因为所有的很多的变化在同一时间变化[TE1M3]这样[EE2M3]就会使人们产生这种抗拒[EE4M3]的心理。

LT: <uh>[TE3M3]Next~ [IE2M1][What] I would like to talk about <p> is [EE2M2]changes [IE3M2]**actually** can trigger many problems, because all many changes are happening at the same time [TE1M3]hence [EE2M3][it] will make people generate this resistance [EE4M3]mentality.

S5 did not make any retrospection on this segment. S/he took down one abbreviation ("C" for "change") and two words ("同时" representing "same time" and "倾向" representing "tend to"). In the rendition, except delivering the original meaning, S5 added an idea "changes can actually trigger many problems". Since this idea can

be inferred from the co-text and also this segment itself, the added part can be re-garded as a gap-filling strategy. In this way, the added intensifier "其实 (actually)" is labelled as a graduation-based explicitation for gap-filling.

6.2.4   Results of interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

On the basis of the above analysis on the three subcategories of interpersonal explici-tation, it can be identified that in E-C CI, there are three motivations for which in-terpreters have made interpersonal explicitations. Table 6.2-7 shows the number of interpersonal explicitations made by each group according to different motivations:

Table 6.2-7 Number of interpersonal explicitations in E-C CI

IE	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	29	0	5	3	206	21	264
ECS	26	1	16	7	148	25	223

The Mann-Whitney Test proves that there is no significant difference in the number of explicitating appraisal information for time-management and reinforcing. Yet, as shown in Table 6.2-8, a significant inter-group difference can be identified in the number of explicitating appraisal information for gap-filling ($p = 0.032$).

Table 6.2-8 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of ECIEM2[30] between the two groups in E-C CI

ECP vs ECS	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECIEM2	36.50	−2.148	0.438	0.032	95%

The effect size measure *r,* being 0.438 also shows an over-medium effect of inter-preters' professional experience on their performance of making attitude-based ex-plicitations for gap-filling. Therefore, it could be concluded that student interpreters reinforce the speaker's appraisal information when encountering information loss more frequently than their professional counterparts. Example 6.2.4-1 and 6.2.4-2 made by one of the student interpreter can well illustrate this point:

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30. ECIEM2 represents interpersonal explicitations for gap-filling in E-C CI.

Example 6.2.4-1

- ST: We are not a king, so we cannot make people change with just an order.
- S5: 所以说[EE2M2]我们[IE3M2]**真正**要做的就是如何能够使人们，<uh>使领导力在这一方面发挥应有的作用。
- LT: So [EE2M2]what we [IE3M2]**really** need to do is how to make people, <uh> make leadership exert due impact.

In this case, S5 did not take any notes. His/her rendition does not relate to the original content but is a point inferable from the previous text. The addition of "真正 (really)" reinforces the speakers' affirmative attitude on making leadership working properly. Since this whole idea is expressed as a gap-filling strategy, the adjunct "really" has to be labelled as an "intensity-related explicitation for gap-filling".

Example 6.2.4-2

- ST: Many changes are happening at the same time
- S5: <uh>[TE3M3]其次呢~[IE2M1]**我想讲一下**<p>就是[EE2M2]变化呢[IE3M2]**其实**能够引起很多的问题
- LT: <uh>[TE3M3]secondly~[IE2M1]**I would like to talk about** <p> is [EE2M2]change [IE3M2]**actually** can trigger many problems.

change → same

Similarly, in this case, while notes failed to remind S5 of the original content, s/he first added "我想讲一下 (I would like to talk about)", an expression revealing the speaker's willingness to talk, to win extra processing time and then chose to substitute the following clause with what can be inferred from the previous text. Within this substituted part "change actually can trigger many problems", the intensifier "其实 (actually)" is labelled as a "gap-filling strategy".

6.3 Interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

This section focuses on the effects of interpreting direction on interpreters' interpersonal explicitation patterns. Its effects on each subcategory of interpersonal explicitation are reported in the following three subsections respectively, while a summary of its effects on interpersonal explicitation patterns can be found in Section 6.3.4.

6.3.1 Results of engagement-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 6.3-1 displays the number of engagement-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction.

Table 6.3-1 Number of engagement-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

IE1	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	32	1	0	0	7	0	40
E-C	17	0	4	0	8	0	29

The above table shows that more engagement-based additions for time management can be found in C-E CI. A Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has been conducted to measure the difference.

Table 6.3-2 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE1M1 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

IE1M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−0.241	0.035	0.810	No significant difference

As shown in Table 6.3-2, the test result shows that there is no significant difference in interpreters frequency of adding engagement-based information for time management between C-E and E-C CI ($p = 0.810$, $r = 0.810$).

6.3.2 Results of attitude-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 6.3-3 displays the number of attitude-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction.

Table 6.3-3 Number of attitude-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

IE2	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	4	1	8	22	159	157	351
E-C	7	1	0	10	63	40	121

The following observations can be made from the above table:

Observation One: More attitude-based additions for reinforcement can be found in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Observation Two: More attitude-based substitutions for reinforcement can be identified in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Observation Three: More attitude-based explicitations for gap-filling can be found in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 159 attitudinal additions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude have been found in C-E CI while only 63 occurred in E-C CI. As shown in Figure 6.3-1, the majority of subjects (apart from three exceptions) have made more such shifts in C-E CI.
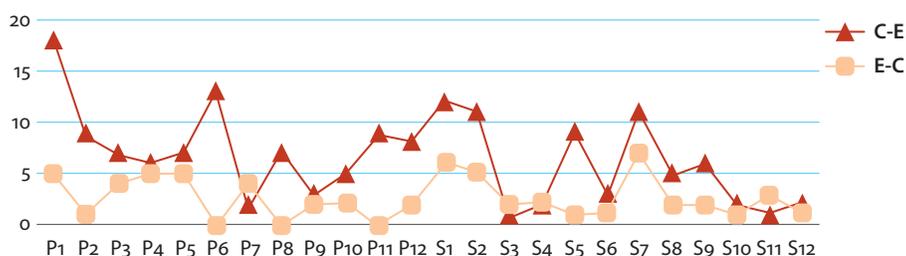
Figure 6.3-1 Frequency of IE2M4 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, as shown in Table 6.3-4, reveals a significant difference in the frequency of using attitudinal additions for reinforcement between different interpreting directions ($p = 0.000$).

Table 6.3-4 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE2M4 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

IE2M4 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.658	0.528	0.000	95%

Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.528, the magnitude of this difference is somewhere above big, which refers to a huge effect of interpreting direction on the frequency of attitudinal additions for reinforcement. Hence, it is safe to conclude that interpreters are more likely to add attitudinal information as a way to reinforce speakers' attitude in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

2. The frequencies of attitudinal substitutions for reinforcing the speaker's attitude in C-E CI and E-C CI are 157 and 40, respectively. Figure 6.3-2 displays that the majority of subjects (with only one exception) made more such substitutions in C-E CI.
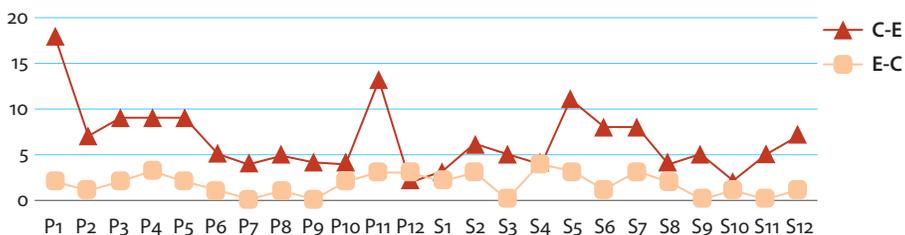
Figure 6.3-2 Frequency of IE2M4 (Sub) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 6.3-5, the result of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test also reveals a significant difference between C-E and E-C CI ($p = 0.000$).

Table 6.3-5 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE2M4 (Sub) between C-E and E-C CI

IE2M4 (Sub)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−5.144	0.598	0.000	95%

In addition, with the effect size measure r being 0.598, the magnitude of this difference is above big, implying that there is a strong effect of interpreting direction on interpreters' performance in making attitudinal substitutions for subjectivity reinforcement. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that interpreters are more likely to make attitudinal substitutions as a way to reinforce the speaker's attitude in C-E CI than E-C CI.

3. 30 attitude-based explicitations for gap-filling have been found in C-E CI, while only 10 such shifts were found in E-C CI.

Table 6.3-6 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE2M2 between C-E and E-C CI

IE2M2	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.229	0.322	0.026	95%

As shown in Table 6.3-6, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has revealed a significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.026$). The effect size measure r being 0.322 also suggests an over-medium degree effect of interpreting direction on the frequency of attitude-based explicitations interpreters made for gap-filling.

Therefore, it is justifiable to conclude that interpreters encountered more information loss in C-E CI and they tend to use attitude-based explicitation as an approach to fill in the gap resulting from information loss in C-E CI more frequently than in E-C CI.

6.3.3 Results of graduation-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 6.3-7 displays the number of graduation-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction.

Table 6.3-7 Number of graduation-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

IE3	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	20	0	9	3	249	22	303
E-C	31	0	17	0	283	6	337

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: More graduation-based additions for subjectivity reinforcement can be found in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
> Observation Two: More graduation-based substitutions for subjectivity reinforcement can be identified in C-E CI than in E-C CI.
> Observation Three: More graduation-based explicitations for time management can be found in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
> Observation Four: More graduation-based additions for gap-filling can be observed in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. In C-E CI, there are 271 graduation-based explicitations for reinforcing the speaker's attitude, while in E-C, there are 289 such shifts. Figure 6.3-3 shows that the majority of professional interpreters made more such explicitations in E-C CI. Yet for the student interpreters, no clear tendency could be observed.
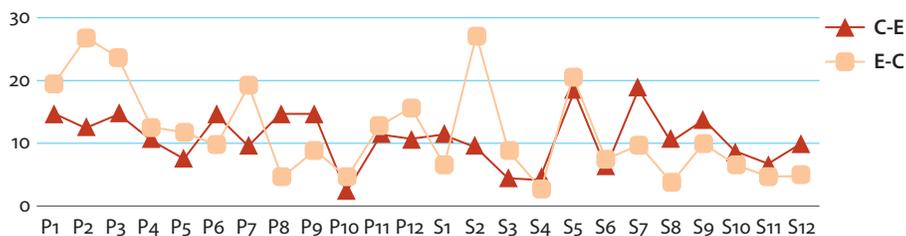
Figure 6.3-3 Frequency of IE3M4 made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As regards the professional group's performance, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test reveals there is no significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.271$, $r = 0.206$, see Table 6.3-8).

Table 6.3-8 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE3M4 in the professional group between C-E and E-C CI

IE3M4	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−1.101	0.206	0.271	No significant difference

In other words, professional interpreters' performance in graduation-based explicitation for reinforcing does not change significantly from C-E CI to E-C CI.

2. The numbers of intensifier additions for time management in C-E CI and E-C CI are 20 and 31, respectively. Table 6.3-9 displays the result of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test.

Table 6.3-9 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE3M1 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

IE3M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−1.392	0.201	0.164	No significant difference

As shown in Table 6.3-9, no significant difference can be found between interpreters' performance on intensifier additions for time management in C-E and E-C CI ($p = 0.164$). In addition, the effect size measure r being 0.201 also indicates a small impact of interpreting directions on interpreters' frequency in making such shifts.

4. Nine intensifiers have been added for gap-filling in C-E CI while 17 in E-C CI. Table 6.3-10 displays the result of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test.

Table 6.3-10 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IE3M2 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

IE3M2 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−1.330	0.048	0.184	No significant difference

The test result reveals the difference between interpreters' frequency in adding intensifiers for gap-filling in C-E CI and E-C CI ($p = 0.184$) is not significant. With the effect size measure r being 0.048, the magnitude of difference is quite small, suggesting a lack of interaction between the independent variable, interpreting direction, and interpreters' frequency in adding intensifiers for gap-filling.

6.3.4 Results of interpersonal explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

On the basis of the above analysis on the three subcategories of interpersonal explicitation, it can be found that in C-E and E-C CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made interpersonal explicitations. Table 6.3-11 shows the number of interpersonal explicitations in each interpreting direction according to different motivations:

Table 6.3-11 Number of interpersonal explicitations in C-E and E-C CI

IE	M1		M2		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	56	2	21	25	415	179	698
E-C	55	1	21	10	354	46	487

The data have been further measured by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. As shown in Table 6.3-12, significant differences between the two interpreting directions can be identified in the frequency of total interpersonal explicitations ($p = 0.002$), substituting appraisal information for gap-filling ($p = 0.034$) and for subjectivity reinforcing ($p = 0.000$).

Table 6.3-12 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of IEM2 (Sub),[31] IEM4 (Sub)[32] and IE[33] between C-E and E-C CI

C-E vs E-C	Z	r	p	Remarks
IEM2 (Sub)	−2.121	0.306	0.034	95%
IEM4 (Sub)	−5.173	0.602	0.000	95%
IE	−3.070	0.443	0.002	95%

In addition, with the three relevant effect size all above 0.3, the magnitude of the three inter-direction differences is also over-medium. This proves that interpreters made significantly more interpersonal explicitations in C-E direction and substituted significantly more interpersonal information for gap-filling and reinforcing the speakers' attitude in C-E direction.

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31. IEM2 (Sub) represents interpersonal substitutions for gap-filling.

32. IEM4 (Sub) represents interpersonal substitutions for reinforcing.

33. IE represents interpersonal explicitation.

Textual explicitations

Previous studies on explicitation have "mainly investigated explicitation as textual cohesion" (Sergio & Falbo 2012: 24). In Künzli and Moser-Mercer's empirical research (1995: 304–306) on translation process, they concluded that novice translators and interpreters tend to treat each sentence in an isolated manner and fail to establish discourse links. On the basis of their findings, it would be fair to assume that student interpreters might also make less textual explicitation shifts than their professional counterparts. Is there a higher frequency of textual explicitations in the professional group? Is there any difference in interpreters' adoption of textual explicitations while they are interpreting in different interpreting directions? This chapter intends to analyse these questions by investigating textual explicitations.

7.1 Textual explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

This section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their textual explicitation patterns in C-E CI. According to the typology framework of the present study (see Figure 3-1), there are three subcategories under textual explicitation: reference-based explicitation, ellipsis-based explicitation and conjunction-based explicitation. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of textual explicitations in C-E CI are reported in the following three subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on textual explicitation patterns in C-E CI can be found in Section 7.1.4.

7.1.1 Results of reference-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 7.1-1 gives the number of all the reference-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. Qualitative analysis, as is shown in this table, has found out that there are two kinds of situation where interpreters have made reference-based explicitations. They are for time management and clarifying.

Table 7.1-1 Number of reference-based explicitations in C-E CI

TE1	M1		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	0	1	8	23	32
CES	9	3	15	18	45

This table allows us to make the following observations about the two groups' explicitation patterns:

1. There are 23 proform-lexicalisation shifts made for clarifying in the professional group and 18 in the student group. Each subject's frequency in lexicalising proforms for clarifying is graphically represented as Figure 7.1-1.
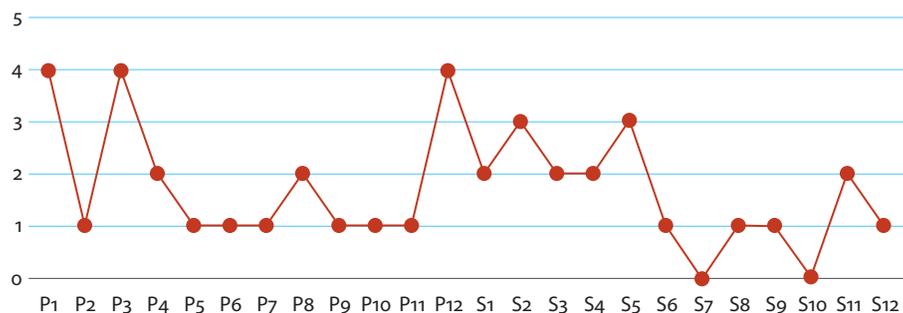
Figure 7.1-1 Frequency of TE1M3 (Sub) made by each subject in C-E CI

As is shown, 22 out of the 24 interpreters made this type of explicitation. This clearly demonstrates that the lexicalisation of proforms in C-E CI for clarifying is a regular practice shared by professional and student interpreters. This point can be well illustrated by Example 7.1.1-1 and 7.1.1-2 from each group:

Example 7.1.1-1
ST: 经过60年的努力，我们已经建立起一支有1600万人的一支教师队伍，这是一支很好的队伍 …

LT: After six decades' efforts, we have already built a faculty team with 160 million people. This is a very good team …

S8: ^{TE3M1}And after <uh> 60 years hard working, ^{EE3M1}now~ we have <uh> more than <uh> 66 <p> million teachers. ^{TE3M1}And~ ^{IE3M4}all of ^{TE1M3}**the teachers** are of good quality …

The relationship between the proform "这 (this)" and "teachers" is implied in the original and waiting for the listeners to figure out by themselves. However, in the rendition, S8 clarified "这 (this)" by lexicalising it into "the teachers". A similar

explanation is also applicable to the following case, where P9 lexicalised the pro-form "我们 (we)" into "Our country" to facilitate listeners' comprehension.

Example 7.1.1-2

ST: 我们已经从一个人口大国建设成为一个人力资源大国

LT: We have already built [ourselves] from a country with a huge population into a country with huge human resources.

P9: [TE1M3]**Our country** has already transformed from a country with a big population into a country with big human resource, hu-, big, hu-, human resources.

2. As graphically represented in Figure 7.1-2, seven student interpreters have made referential explicitations as a strategy for time management, while only one professional interpreter did so.
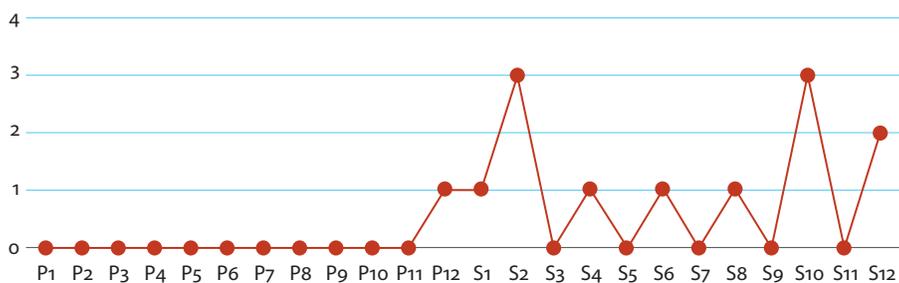
Figure 7.1-2 Frequency of TE1M1 made by each subject in C-E CI

This clearly demonstrates that it is only a common practice among student interpreters to perform reference-based explicitations for time management. Typical examples are Example 7.1.1-3 and 7.1.1-4:

Example 7.1.1-3

ST: 温家宝总理 …… 他说他用这种方式来表达对教师的, 教师节的慰问

LT: Premier Wen Jiabao … He said he use this approach to express [his] greetings to teachers for Teachers' Day.

S6: Premier Wen Jiabao …[TE1M1]**Premier Wen Jiabao** <uh> sent his sincere <uh> sincere <uh> <uh> sent, sent his wishes [IE3M4]best wishes to them

In this example, the proform "he" has been lexicalised by "Premier Wen Jiabao". As is suggested by the following repetition and hesitation marker, this shift is employed as a time-management strategy. To be specific, upon referring to S6's notes, a question marker besides "问 (greet)" could be found, which indicates that S6 failed to figure out the English equivalent of "慰问 (greetings)". Actually, "慰问" is a very formal Chinese expression and it refers to either "to show sympathy to somebody" or "to greet somebody". Here, judging from the context, it means "Premier Wen would like to greet teachers in China for Teachers' Day and also to thank them for their hard work". It seems possible that S6 did not know how to express this concept "慰问", so s/he lexicalised the proform with a longer expression it refers to and try to gain extra time in figuring out the proper equivalent.

Example 7.1.1-4

ST: … 发表了一篇重要讲话，**它**的题目是"国家发展，希望在教育；办好教育，希望在教师"。

LT: … delivered an important speech, the topic of it is "The hope of national development lies in education; the hope of good education lies in teachers"

S4: … give a speech … the topic ^{TE1M1}**of the speech** is <uh> the development of ^{TE1M3}China depends on the team of the teachers, ^{TE3M1}and <p> the development of the teachers' team depend on the development of the students.

In this case, S4 lexicalised "它 (it)" with "the speech". S4 did not take any notes for this segment. The ensuing hesitation marker suggests this shift as a strategy for time-management. The original topic in Chinese is with a parallel syntactic structure and relatively high information density. Despite the fact that S4 failed to recall the relationship between "education" and "teachers", s/he kept the rendition of the title in a parallel structure. Moreover, there is a structural transformation from "the hope of X is Y" into "X depends on Y". So it is possible that while making the above lexicalisation, S4 is trying to on the one hand, search for the original information from his/her working memory and on the other hand think about a proper parallel structure.

3. As shown in Table 7.1-2, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.015$) in adding referential information for time-management. With the p value below 0.05, there is an over 95% possibility for the existence of a significant difference.

Table 7.1-2 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE1M1(Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

TE1M1(Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	42.00	−2.441	0.498	0.015	95%

Moreover, with the effect size measure *r* up to 0.498, the magnitude of the difference is quite close to big. This confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts an over-medium (very close to big) effect on the quantity of reference-based additions that interpreters may make for time-management. It suggests that while encountering difficulties in interpreting, student interpreters tend to make more referential additions for time-management than their professional counterparts. Example 7.1.1-5 from the student group is a good case in point:

Example 7.1.1-5
- ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京35中听了5节课
- LT: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing
- S8: Premier Wen had <uh> come to the thirty five <uh> high school in Beijing. [TE1M1]**There**~ he had listened to five classes

S8 added a proform "there" to refer to the aforementioned "the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing". And the marker "~" shows that its pronunciation has been lengthened, which indicates this addition is a time-management explicitation. Since S8 did not write down the number of the classes Premier Wen listened to, which is "5", in the notes, possibly while uttering the referential element "there" in a lengthened manner, S8 was trying to retrieve the exact number from his/her mind. It is this reference-based addition and its lengthened pronunciation that allow a longer period of time for S8 to think about the following number.

7.1.2 Results of ellipsis-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

All the ellipsis-based explicitation shifts identified in C-E CI are in the form of addition and are shown in Table 7.1-3. Qualitative analysis has found out that there are three motivations for which interpreters have made ellipsis-based explicitations. They are for time management, clarifying and subjectivity reinforcement.

Table 7.1-3 Number of ellipsis-based explicitations in C-E CI

TE2	M1	M3	M4	Total
	Add	Add	Add	
CEP	7	56	10	73
CES	19	28	8	55

The following observations can be made from this table:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters made more ellipsis-based additions for clarifying than their student counterparts.
>
> Observation Two: Student interpreters conducted more ellipsis-based additions for time management than their professional counterparts.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 56 elliptical additions for clarifying have been found in the professional group while 28 such shifts occurred in the student group.

Table 7.1-4 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE2M3 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

TE2M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	26.50	−2.680	0.547	0.007	95%

As shown in Table 7.1-4, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.007$). With the effect size measure r being 0.547, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere above big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts a big effect on the quantity of ellipsis-based additions that interpreters may make for clarifying. This indicates that professional interpreters tend to provide in their renditions the elliptical processes or participants that have been omitted in the original for clarifying more often than their student counterparts. Example 7.1.2-1 is a typical example made by a professional interpreter:

Example 7.1.2-1
> ST:　从有学上到上好学
> LT:　from having access to education to receiving good education
> P1:　^TE2M3**you see the change** from \<p\> having access to schooling to having access to good schooling

In this example, P1 added the omitted process "you see the change", which elucidates the speaker's intention to increase the interaction with the listeners.

2. Seven ellipsis-based additions made for time management have been identified in the professional group, while 19 such shifts were identified in the student group. The Mann-Whitney Test, as shown in Table 7.1-5, reveals a significant difference between professional and student interpreters ($p = 0.024$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds for the difference are above 95%.

Table 7.1-5 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE2M1 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

TE2M1 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	35.00	−2.260	0.461	0.024	95%

Moreover, the effect size measure *r* being 0.461 suggests that the magnitude of the difference is somewhere between medium and big, implying that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerted an over-medium effect on interpreters' frequency of adding elliptical components for time-management purpose. Therefore, it is fair to claim that student interpreters make more ellipsis-based additions for time management than their professional counterparts. Example 7.1.2-2 and 7.1.2-3 are typical instances from each group:

Example 7.1.2-2

ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京35中听了5节课，这个，召开了教师座谈会，发表了重要讲话

LT: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing, held a meeting with the faculty members, [and] delivered an important speech.

S1: Premier Wen Jiabao ^{TE2M3}visited <p> Beijing <uh> thirty <p> fifth <uh> middle school, ^{TE3M1}and~ visited five lessons, ^{EE3M3}with students ^{TE1M3}there and ^{TE2M1}**he** ^{TE3M1}also <p> have a had a meeting with staff ^{TE1M1}there <p> by rendering an~ important speech.

Example 7.1.2-3

ST: 我们还动员了大批的城镇教师去到农村支援，还有师范生到农村实习支教。

LT: we also motivated a large number of teachers from urban and town to go to rural areas to help, and also students from Normal University to go to rural areas to support education.

P12: we also <uh> motivated <uh> lots of teachers from urban areas to work in rural, ^{EE3M3}in schools in rural areas, and also ^{TE2M1}**we will encourage** <uh> students graduated from, normal universities or teachers' colleges, to support education in rural areas.

In Example 7.1.2-2 and 7.1.2-3, as two relevant clauses share the same actors and they are connected by "and", it is grammatically justifiable to omit the actors in the latter clause. However, both S1 and P12 complemented the elliptical actor in the rendition. The hesitation markers following these two shifts indicate these two cases are time-management strategies. For case 7.1.2-2, the original "座谈会 (a meeting where people sit together to discuss certain issues)" has been noted down as "座话 (sit, talk)", which fails to be a straightforward reflection of "座谈会". It seems plausible that S1 made the above addition so as to gain extra time to search for a proper equivalent for the concept "座谈会" in English; for Example 7.1.2-3, in P12's retrospection, s/he claims that while uttering the elliptical actor and predicate as well as the hesitation, s/he was searching for proper equivalent of "师范生 (normal university students)" in the source speech. S/he reported that "I think it refers to not only students from Normal Universities but also from Teachers' College".

7.1.3   Results of conjunction-based explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 7.1-6 gives the number of all the conjunction-based explicitation shifts found in C-E CI. As is shown in this table, qualitative analysis has identified two motivations for which interpreters have made conjunction explicitation. They are for time management and clarifying.

Table 7.1-6 Number of conjunction-based explicitations in C-E CI

TE3	M1		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	69	0	281	5	355
CES	146	1	145	3	295

The following observations about two group's explicitation patterns can be made from the table:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters made more inferable conjunction-based additions for clarifying than their student counterparts.
> Observation Two: Student interpreters made more conjunction-based explicitations for time management than their professional counterparts.

Illustration on the observations:

1. Table 7.1-6 shows that the majority of conjunction-based explicitation shifts for clarifying are in the form of addition. Each subject's frequency in adding conjunctive adjuncts for clarifying is graphically delineated in Figure 7.1-3.
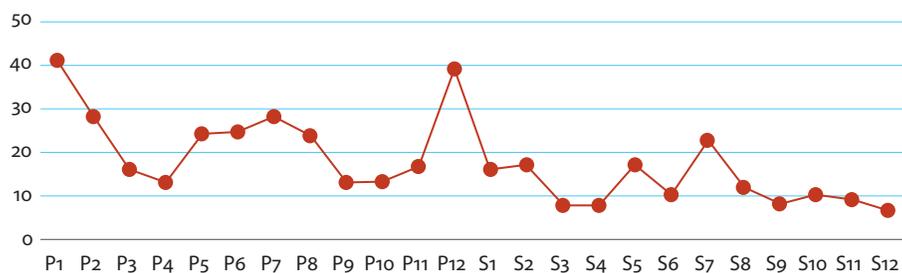
Figure 7.1-3 Frequency of TE3M3 (Add) made by each subject in C-E CI

Both groups made over 100 conjunctive adjunct additions for clarifying, and every interpreter has made this type of explicitation (see Figure 7.1-3), which demonstrates that it is common for both professional and student interpreters to pursue the strategy of adding conjunctive adjuncts so as to reveal the implied logical relations between clauses. Example 7.1.3-1 and 7.1.3-2 are typical cases from each group:

Example 7.1.3-1

ST: 因为历史上中国人就有尊师重教的传统，而现在我们教育发展到一个最关键的时刻，发展到了一个新的历史时期。

LT: Because in history Chinese people have embraced the tradition of respecting teachers and valuing education. And now our education has developed into the most critical moment, developed into a new historical stage.

S1: [EE3M1]Partly~ [TE2M3]it is because Chinese has the tradition of, valuing and respecting teachers, and teaching. [TE3M3]**On the other hand**, I think [TE1M3]Chinese education has entered a new stage of development.

These clauses are the two reasons adopted by the speaker to explain why the building of a faculty team has attracted great attention. On the basis of this idea, it can be assumed that S1 may add "on the other hand" in the rendition to clarify the relationship between the two facts the speaker proposed.

Example 7.1.3-2

ST: 我们要让我们的老师都能够到农村去接受这个锻炼，同时要为农村输送更多的高质量的老师。

LT: We shall enable our teachers to go to the rural areas to get practiced. Meanwhile [we shall] send more high-quality teachers to the rural areas.

P2: [TE3M1]And~ we want to [IE2M4]encourage more teachers to the rural areas [TE3M3]**in order to**, [EE2M3]improve the quality, of the teachers' team for the rural areas.

Here "输送更多的高质量的老师 (send more high quality teachers)" has been paraphrased as "improve the quality, of the teachers' team", which is actually the result of the original action. If we claim the original "让 …… 去接受锻炼 (let … to get practiced)" and "输送 …… 老师 (send teachers)" are action-oriented, "improve the quality" tends to be goal-oriented. To emphasise this relation, the conjunctive adjunct "in order to" was added. In this way, the logical relation between the two clauses has been revealed explicitly rather than leaving listeners to find this out all by themselves.

2.   281 additions of conjunctive adjuncts for clarifying have been identified in the professional group, while there were only 145 such shifts in the student group.

Table 7.1-7 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE3M3 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

TE3M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	17.50	−3.158	0.645	0.002	95%

As shown in Table 7.1-7, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.002$). With the p value below 0.05, there is an over 95% possibility for the existence of a significant difference. Moreover, with the effect size measure r up to 0.645, the magnitude of the difference is quite big. It suggests that professional interpreters can better perceive the inter-clause relations and are inclined to reveal them through the addition of conjunctive adjuncts more frequently than their student counterparts. Example 7.1.3-3 and 7.1.3-4 made by the professional interpreters can well illustrate this point:

Example 7.1.3-3
  ST: 一个最突出的就是我们农村教师队伍的建设，刚才你提的这个问题确实是一个非常重要的问题。
  LT: One of the most prominent is the building of our rural faculty team. The question you have just raised is indeed an extremely important question.
  P12: one of [TE1M3]our prominent education is, [EE4M3]the quality of teaching stuff in rural areas of [TE1M3]China. [TE3M3]**So that's why**, [EE2M3]I have mentioned [IE3M4]for several times that your question is a very important one.

In the above example, the implied causal relation of the ST has been revealed through the addition of the adjunct "so". Since the added phrase "that's why" functions more or less the same as "so" in revealing the inter-clausal causal relation here, these two additions are combined and labelled as only one explicitation shift.

Example 7.1.3-4

ST: 同时我们能够看到在教师队伍建设这个方面，我们要摆在更加突出的战略地位。所以我们教师队伍建设还存在着很严峻的挑战

LT: Meanwhile we can see in terms of the building of faculty team, we shall put [it] in a more prominent strategic position. Therefore, there are still severe challenges in the building of faculty team.

P5: [TE3M3]And [IE1M1]in my opinion~ we need to \<p> prioritise [EE4M3]the roles of teachers from, a~ strategic perspective. \<uh> [TE3M3]**However**, we are still \<p> met with formidable challenges [EE1M3]to improve education.

$$\text{``} \quad \textit{challen}$$

The clausal relation is actually adversative rather than causal. The speaker's adoption of "所以 (therefore)" may just intend to change the topic. However, P5 did not render it literally. S/he reported that although s/he noted down the causal connector, s/he did not follow it, because s/he mainly relied on his/her memory rather than notes. S/he added that in the previous text, the speaker mentioned "competent teaching team", but here the speaker mentions "challenges", so the underlying relation should be an adversative one.

3. In C-E CI, almost all the conjunction-based explicitation shifts motivated by time-management purpose are in the form of adding conjunctive adjuncts. Altogether 69 such shifts were found in the professional group, while 146 were found in the student group.

Table 7.1-8 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE3M1 (Add) between the two groups in C-E CI

TE3M1 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CEP vs CES	24.00	−2.779	0.567	0.005	95%

As shown in Table 7.1-8, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.005$). A more than 95% possibility for the existence of a significant difference can be revealed from the p value, which is far below 0.05. Moreover, the effect size measure r being 0.567 also suggests the magnitude of the difference between the two groups is above big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts a big effect on the quantity of conjunctive adjunct additions that interpreters made for time management. Therefore, it is justifiable to claim that in C-E CI, student interpreters are more likely than their professional counterparts to provide implied conjunctive adjuncts as an effective way to gain extra processing time. Example 7.1.3-5 and 7.1.3-6 are typical instances made by student interpreters:

Example 7.1.3-5

ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京35中听了5节课，这个，召开了教师座谈会

LT: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing, held a meeting with the faculty members

S7: Premier Wen has <uh> attended five~ classes in the 35~ Middle School in Beijing and [TE2M1]he [TE3M1]**also** <uh> held a conference, a round table conference with [IE3M4]a lot of teachers [TE1M3]there.
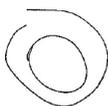
S7 added a connector "also" in the rendition. The following hesitation marker and correction (from "a conference" to "a round table conference") indicates this addition as a time-management strategy. Referring to the notes, it could be found that S7 drew two circles in his/her notes after hearing "座谈会 (meeting)". S/he reported that while reading his/her notes, s/he took some time to think about whether the two circles refers to "round table meeting". On the basis of the retrospection, it can be inferred that S7's addition of "also" here is to gain extra time to figure out a more precise rendition of "座谈会".

Example 7.1.3-6

ST: 我们已经基本解决了让孩子们有学上的问题，下一个阶段我们就是要想办法让孩子们能够上好学。

LT: we have already basically solved the problem of making education available to children. [In] the next stage, we shall think out ways to let children be able to receive good education.

S7: we've <uh> we've managed to get every <uh> every kid to <uh> school and have them education. [TE3M1]**However** <uh> [EE2M3]we haven't been able to guarantee that the quality of education was good enough.

In the above example, an adversarial clausal relation can be inferred from the context because the first clause in the ST touches upon the task that has already been accomplished, while the second clause deals with the task that needs to be done. The interpreter made this relation explicit through the addition of "However". Yet, the ensuing hesitation marker <uh> indicates that the interpreter made this addition for time management. This is further evidenced by the interpreter's paraphrasing of the second clause "下一个阶段我们就是要想办法让孩子们能够上好学 ([In] the next stage we shall think out ways to let children be able to receive good education)" as "we haven't been able to guarantee that the quality of education was good enough", which strengthens the assumption that S7 was thinking about ways of expressing the idea while uttering "however" and "uh".

7.1.4 Results of textual explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in C-E CI

On the basis of the above analysis on the three subcategories of textual explicitations, it can be found that in C-E CI, there are three motivations for which interpreters have made textual explicitations. Table 7.1-9 shows the number of textual explicitations made by each group according to different motivations:

Table 7.1-9 Number of textual explicitations in C-E CI

TE	M1		M3		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
CEP	76	1	345	28	10	0	460
CES	174	4	188	21	8	0	395

As shown in Table 7.1-10, the Mann-Whitney Test proves significant differences between the two groups in the number of adding inferable textual information for time management ($p = 0.005$) and clarifying ($p = 0.002$).

Table 7.1-10 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of CETEM1 (Add)[34] and CETEM3 (Add)[35] between the two groups in C-E CI

CEP vs CES	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
CETEM1 (Add)	23.50	−2.805	0.573	0.005	95%
CETEM3 (Add)	17.50	−3.150	0.643	0.002	95%

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34. CETEM1 (Add) represents textual additions for time management in C-E CI.

35. CETEM3 (Add) represents textual additions for clarifying in C-E CI.

With the two effect size *r* higher than 0.5, the magnitude of these two differences is both big. It represents that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts a big effect on the quantity of textual explicitations that interpreters made for clarifying and time management. Therefore, it can be concluded that the professional group added significantly more inferable textual information for clarifying while the student group added more such information for time management.

7.2   Textual explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Similar to the previous Section 7.1, this section focuses on the effects of interpreters' professional experience on their textual explicitation patterns in E-C CI. The effects of interpreters' professional experience on each subcategory of textual explicitations in E-C CI are reported in the following three subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on textual explicitation patterns in E-C CI can be found in Section 7.2.4.

7.2.1   Results of reference-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 7.2-1 gives the number of all the reference-based explicitation shifts found in the E-C CI. As is shown in this table, qualitative analysis confirms that in E-C CI, there are two types of situation where interpreters have made reference-based explicitations. They are for time management and clarifying.

Table 7.2-1 Number of reference-based explicitations in E-C CI

TE1	M1		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	1	3	26	41	71
ECS	1	2	17	24	44

This table provides evidence for the following observations about the two groups' explicitation patterns:

> Observation One: For both groups, the majority of their reference-based explicitation shifts are made for clarifying.
> Observation Two: A larger number of reference-based explicitations for clarifying have been made by professional interpreters.

Illustration on the observations:

1. With 94% of referential explicitations in the professional group and 93% in the student group made for clarifying, it is justifiable to conclude that in E-C CI, referential explicitations are made mainly for clarifying. Example 7.2.1-1 and 7.2.1-2 are typical cases made by professional and student interpreters, respectively:

Example 7.2.1-1

ST: the lessons, I think, will be quite relevant to you. But **that**'s for you to decide yourself.

S10: <uh>所以希望[EE1M1]今天的<p>演讲可以<p>[IE2M4]给你们一些启发。并且，但是<p>[TE1M3]**是哪一方面的启发**[EE3M3]还需要你们自己去决定。

LT: <uh> so [I] hope [EE1M1]today's <p> speech can <p> [IE2M4]give you some inspiration. And, but <p> [TE1M3]**in which aspect the inspiration lies** is [EE3M3]still for you to decide.

The proform "that" refers to "whether the lesson is relevant to you". Although S10 reported in the retrospection that s/he did not hear the exact expression "relevant to you" clearly, s/he still can infer from the context that it related to the idea that "whether the lessons will help you" so s/he jotted down "帮→y" on his/her notes. Thus, while producing the Chinese rendition later, s/he lexicalised "that" with a concrete idea "是哪一方面的启发 (in which aspect does the inspiration lie)" based on his/her understanding, which in his/her own words "is more straightforward".

Example 7.2.1-2

ST: But **that**'s for you to decide yourself.

P2: 那[IE1M1]我想呢~大家也是可以选择[TE1M3]**是否去借鉴**[EE4M3]我的一些经验

LT: So [IE1M4]I think you can also choose [TE1M3]**whether to refer to** [EE4M3]my experience

P2 did not take down any notes for this segment. Yet in the rendition, the proform "that" has been lexicalised as "是否去借鉴 (whether to refer to)". Notwithstanding the fact that P2 did not explain this shift in the retrospection, since this was not followed by any hesitation, pause, vowel/consonant lengthening or repetition, and the content is exactly relevant to the original, it is labelled as "explicitation for clarifying".

2. 67 reference-based explicitation shifts for clarifying have been identified in the professional group, while there were only 41 in the student group.

Table 7.2-2 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE1M3 between the two groups in E-C CI

TE1M3	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	27.00	−2.633	0.537	0.008	95%

As shown in Table 7.2-2, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between these two groups ($p = 0.008$). Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.537, the magnitude of the difference is above big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts a very big effect on the quantity of reference-based explicitations that interpreters made for clarifying. So it can be concluded that professional interpreters are more likely than student interpreters to make such explicitations for improving the cohesion of the target text. Example 7.2.1-3 and 7.2.1-4 can well illustrate this point:

Example 7.2.1-3
    ST: But I want you to have one person in your mind.
    P8:   但是我希望你能<uh>大家<uh>脑海中都能有[TE1M3]**这样的**一个人
    LT: But I hope you can <uh> your <uh> mind can all have [TE1M3]**such** a person.
    S3:   我想要你们在脑海中每个人想一个人
    LT: I want you to think of one person in your mind.

P8 added a demonstrative pronoun "这样的 (such)". The addition makes clear that the speaker intends to refer to the "good leaders" mentioned in the previous discourse, not to a more general, previously unverbalised person. Hence, this anaphoric reference makes the referent tracking easier for the listeners. In contrast, as is shown in S3's rendition, no such referential explicitation has been made.

Example 7.2.1-4
    ST: the lessons, I think, will be quite relevant to you.
    P9:   [TE1M3]**我**[EE3M3]今天[EE4M3]跟大家**讲的**[IE3M4]都**是**[TE1M3]我们的**经验跟研究**，供，以[EE2M3]供大家的参考
    LT: [IE3M4]All [TE1M3]**that I am going to tell** [EE4M3]you [EE3M3]today **is** [TE1M3]our **experience and research**. [They are] [EE2M3]for your reference.
    S7:   我希望这将是会对你来讲非常[IE2M4]有帮助的<uh>一个演讲
    LT: I hope this will be a quite [IE2M4]helpful <uh> speech to you.

P9 substituted the proform "the lessons" with the concrete idea it refers to, "我 ……讲的 …… 是 …… 经验跟研究([All] that I am going to tell … is … research and experience). This specification increases the degree of cohesion in P9's rendition. Yet as shown in S7's rendition, no such shift has been made.

7.2.2 Results of ellipsis-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

All the ellipsis-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI are in the form of addition and are shown in Table 7.2-3. The qualitative analysis has found out three motivations for which interpreters have made ellipsis-based explicitations. They are for time management, clarifying and reinforcing the speaker's attitude.

Table 7.2-3 Number of ellipsis-based explicitations in E-C CI

TE2	M1	M3	M4	Total
	Add	Add	Add	
CEP	25	122	5	152
CES	18	110	3	131

The following observations about two group's explicitation patterns can be made from the table:

> Observation One: For both groups, ellipsis-based explicitations are made mainly for clarifying.
> Observation Two: The number of ellipsis-based additions for clarifying in the professional group is similar to that in the student group.
> Observation Three: The number of ellipsis-based additions for time management in the professional group is similar to that in the student group.

Illustration on the observations:

1. With about 80% ellipsis-based explicitations in both groups made for clarifying (80% for the professional group and 84% for the student group), it can be concluded that the main reason for interpreters to make ellipsis-based explicitations is to clarify and facilitate listeners' comprehension. Example 7.2.2-1 and 7.2.2-2 from each group can well illustrate this point:

Example 7.2.2-1
ST: This side, think of the best leaders with whom you have worked.
P11: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ³首先这边ᵀᴱ²ᴹ³**我希望大家能够**写出ᴱᴱ¹ᴹ³你们认为自己见过的8个最好的领导人、领导者或者管理者
LT: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ³First of all this side ᵀᴱ²ᴹ³**I hope you can** write eight leading persons, leaders or administrator ᴱᴱ¹ᴹ³ you think are the best

Example 7.2.2-2
ST: Begin.
S3: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ³现在ᵀᴱ²ᴹ³**你们可以**开始了。
LT: ᴱᴱ³ᴹ³Now ᵀᴱ²ᴹ³**you can** start.

The original sentence in the first example above is an imperative one. In P11's rendition, s/he added up with the omitted part "我希望大家能够 (I hope you can)". In this way, the sender and receiver of the action have been clarified. Similar explanation also applies to the second example where the omitted part "你们可以 (you can)" in the imperative has been provided by S2.

2. Figure 7.1-4 displays each subject's performance in adding elliptical components for time management.
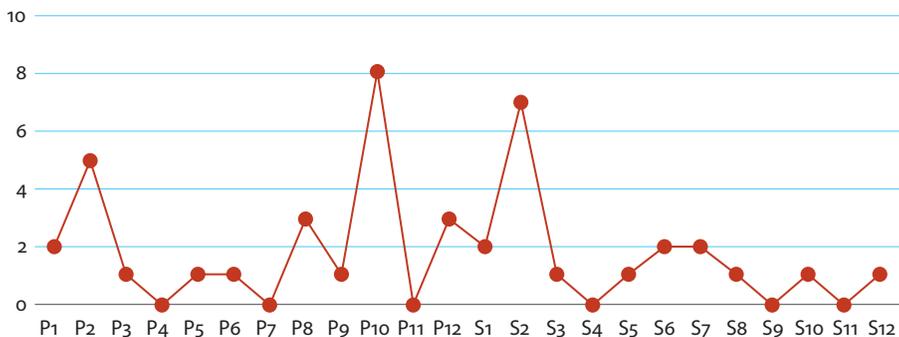
Figure 7.1-4 Frequency of TE2M1 (Add) made by each subject in E-C CI

As is shown in Figure 7.1-4, the majority of professional interpreters and student interpreters have made ellipsis-based explicitations for time management (only three exceptions in each group). Hence, it can be concluded that actors or processes omitted in the original might be added by both professional and student interpreters as a strategy to gain extra processing time. For instance,

Example 7.2.2-3
ST: the two important points are: one, not China.
S7: 那么<uh>但是[EE1M3]要切记的一点是，[TE2M1]**我要讲的**<p>不是在[EE4M3]中国的改变。
LT: So <uh> but one thing [EE1M3] [that] should be remembered is, [TE2M1]**what I am going to talk about** <p> is not [EE4M3]changes in China.

P3: 当然还有两点希望大家可以记住的，就是今天<p> [TE2M1]**这一个演讲**呢~并不是只是针对中国。
LT: Of course [there are] still two points [I] hope you can remember, namely today <p> [TE2M1]**this speech**~ is not only focus on China.

For S3's rendition, the omitted actor has been provided. The following pause suggests that this addition could be a time-management strategy. Referring to his/her notes, it is clear that if s/he based only on his/her notes, his/her rendition could be "but an important point is: not China". Yet in his/her rendition, s/he specified the original participant "China" as "中国的改变 (changes in China)". Hence, it could be inferred that while uttering the added actor "我要讲的 (what I am going to talk about)" and the pause, S7 is thinking about the rendition of the participant. Turning to P3's rendition, s/he made a similar explicitation by adding an inferable actor "这一个演讲 (this speech)". Both the previous pause and the stretching way of pronunciation suggest that P3 was using this explicitation shift to gain extra time. But what was s/he thinking about at that moment? Comparing his/her notes and his/her rendition, it seems plausible that while uttering the added part, P3 was possibly trying to figure out whether the symbol "×" represents "not" or "not only".

7.2.3 Results of conjunction-based explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 7.2-4 gives the number of all the conjunctive adjunct-based explicitation shifts found in E-C CI. As is shown in this table, qualitative analysis has identified three motivations for which interpreters have made conjunction-based explicitations. They are for time management, gap-filling and clarifying.

Table 7.2-4 Number of conjunction-based explicitations in E-C CI

TE3	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	52	2	0	0	143	10	207
ECS	55	0	6	0	101	7	169

The following observations can be made from this table:

> Observation One: Overall, for both groups, the majority of their conjunctive adjunct-based explicitation shifts are made for clarifying.
> Observation Two: Professional interpreters made more conjunctive adjunct-based explicitations for clarifying than their student counterparts.
> Observation Three: Student interpreters made more conjunctive adjunct-based explicitations for gap-filling than their professional counterparts.
> Observation Four: Both groups made similar number of conjunction-based explicitation shifts for time management.

Illustration on the observations:

1. Around 70% of all the conjunctive adjunct-based explicitation shifts made by both groups (to be exact, 69% in the professional group and 64% in the student group) are for clarifying, which proves that interpreters tend to facilitate listeners' comprehension by making explicit the implied relationship between clauses in their target language rendition. For instance,

Example 7.2.3-1

ST: I don't know, but today I want you to look into the mirror and think about your own leadership.

P6: 我不知道。但是[TE3M3]**不管怎样**你们自己看看这个~镜子，想想自己会是什么样的一种领导。

LT: I don't know. But [TE3M3]**no matter what** you look into the mirror, think about what kind of leader you are.

In Example 7.2.3-1, P6 added the conjunctive adjunct "不管怎样 (no matter what)" so as to make the concessive relationship between the two clauses explicit to the listeners and facilitate their understanding. Similar considerations also apply to Example 7.2.3-2 where S1 added "所以 (So)" to notify the listeners about the causal relationship between the features of yin-yang and the necessity to find a balance.

Example 7.2.3-2

ST: And this is the yin-yang. There is change and there is resistance. And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.

S1: [EE2M1]我们可以看到<p>变化和抗拒[IE3M4]其实是有一个[EE4M3]阴阳平衡的，[TE3M3]**所以**[EE1M1]在座[TE1M1]各位领导<p>的一个[IE2M4]重要作用，就是[EE4M3]实现[TE1M3]这个平衡

LT: [EE2M1]We can see <p> [between] change and resistance. [IE3M4]Actually there is a [EE4M3]balance between yin-yang. [TE3M3]**So** [for the] [EE1M1]present [TE1M1]leaders <p> one [IE2M4]important function, is [EE4M3]to realise [TE1M3]this balance.

2. Table 7.2-5 shows that the professional group made 143 conjunctive adjunct additions for clarifying in E-C CI, while the student group made 101 such shifts.

Table 7.2-5 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE3M3 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

TE3M3 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	38.00	−1.973	0.403	0.048	95%

As shown in Table 7.2-5, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.048$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds for the difference are above 95%. Moreover, with the effect size measure r being 0.403, the magnitude of the difference is somewhere between medium and big. It confirms that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts an over-medium effect on the quantity of conjunctive adjunct additions that interpreters made for clarifying. Therefore, it can be concluded that, professional interpreters are more likely than student interpreters to add conjunction adjuncts for improving the cohesion of the target text. This point can be well illustrated by Example 7.2.3-3. In this example, except one student and three professional interpreters who omitted this segment in their renditions, nine professional interpreters added conjunctive adjuncts to make explicit the inter-clause relationship while only four student interpreters made the same shift.

Example 7.2.3-3

ST: And you, all of you, your job is to find the right speed.

S1: ^{TE3M3}**所以**^{EE1M1}在座^{TE1M1}各位领导<p>的一个^{IE2M4}重要作用，就是^{EE4M3}实现这个平衡。

LT: ^{TE3M3}So [for the] ^{EE1M1}present ^{TE1M1}leaders <p> one ^{IE2M4}important function, is ^{EE4M3}to realise ^{TE1M3}this balance.

S2: ^{TE3M3}**所以**说我们^{IE3M4}必须，要^{EE4M3}学会如何去应对这种调整跟改变。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** we ^{IE3M4}definitely, need to ^{EE4M3}learn how to deal with this adaptation and change.

S3: Nil

S4: 在座的很多人，你们的工作就是要去加速这些变化。

LT: many of [the] present people, your job is to speed up these changes.

S5: ^{TE3M3}**所以**说我们每一个人呐~都应该^{EE2M3}以一种正确的方式去适应这种、这种变化

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** each of us~ should ^{EE2M3}adapt to this change with a correct approach.

S6: 你们的工作就是要找到合适的步伐^{EE2M3}来<uh>跟上这种改变。

LT: Your job is to find the right speed ^{EE2M3}to catch up with this change.

S7: 我们要做的是选择一个适当的、^{EE1M3}改变的速度。

LT: what we need to do is to choose a proper speed ^{EE1M3}of change.

S8: Nil

S9: 你们的工作是^{EE2M3}调整好^{EE1M3}改变的速度。

LT: Your job is to ^{EE2M3}adjust the speed ^{EE1M3}of change to a good condition.

S10: 你们的，你们要做的事情就是找到正确的^{EE4M3}方法。

LT: You, what you need to do is to find the right ^{EE4M3}approach.

S11: ^{TE3M3}**所以**大家的工作就是^{EE4M3}帮助、促成这些改变。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** your job is ^{EE4M3}to help, facilitate these changes.

S12: 你们需要做的呢，就是~^{EE4M2}要来适当的来引导这些变化。

LT: what you need to do, is~ ^{EE4M2}to properly guide these changes.

P1: ^{TE3M3}**那么**我们^{EE3M3}作为领导者，^{EE1M3}其中的一个^{IE2M4}重要的责任就是要找到一个^{IE3M4}非常好的、^{EE1M3}人们可以适应的一个速度^{EE2M3}来实现^{TE1M3}我们的改革和变革。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** we ^{EE3M3}as the leaders, ^{EE1M3}one of the ^{IE2M4}important responsibility is to find a ^{IE3M4}very good, a speed ^{EE1M3}that people can adapt to ^{EE2M3}to realise ^{TE1M3}our reform and change.

P2: ^{TE3M3}**那**我们就得要去^{IE3M4}真正地^{EE2M3}知道要怎么样去管理好^{TE1M3}这样的一种反抗、这种抗拒，去更好的管理变化。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** we need ^{EE4M3}to ^{IE3M4}truely ^{EE2M3}understand how to manage well ^{TE1M3}this kind of revolt, this kind of resistance, to better manage changes.

P3: ^{TE3M3}**所以**^{EE1M3}在座每一位的工作呢就是要找到一个^{EE4M3}方法^{EE2M3}去应对这个转变。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** the job of every one ^{EE1M3}present is to find an ^{EE4M3}approach ^{EE2M3}to deal with this change.

P4: ^{TE3M3}**所以**^{IE1M4}我觉得~我们^{EE3M3}今天所有人要做的事情，就是要找到这个合适的^{EE4M3}平衡点，找到^{EE4M3}解决的办法。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** ^{IE1M1}I think~ the thing we ^{EE3M3}today all the people need to do, is to find the appropriate ^{EE4M3}balance, find ^{EE4M3}the solution.

P5: ^{TE3M1}另外一个呢~我们也^{EE2M3}要探讨^{TE1M3}我们^{IE3M4}到底^{EE1M3}变化的这个速度要有多快。

LT: ^{TE3M1}Besides~ we also need ^{EE4M3}to discuss how fast ^{IE3M4}on earth ^{TE1M3}our speed ^{EE1M3}of change is.

P6: Nil

P7: ^{TE3M3}**那么**你们的工作呢~就是要去~找，找到<uh><uh>找到合适的目标和节奏。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** your job~ is to~ fi, find <uh><uh> find the appropriate aim and speed.

P8: ^{TE3M3}**那么**你们就是要找出^{EE3M3}这中间的一个适应的^{EE4M3}方法。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** you need to find out a proper ^{EE4M3}approach ^{EE3M3}between them.

P9: Nil

P10: ^{TE3M3}**那么**你们的一项工作呢，就是去<uh>找到^{EE1M3}适应这种变化的一种合适的^{EE4M3}方式。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** one of your job, is to <uh> find a proper ^{EE4M3}approach ^{EE1M3}that [can] adapt to this change.

P11: ^{TE3M3}**那么**在我们抗拒这些变化发生的时候，^{EE2M3}我们要知道^{EE4M3}怎么样能够寻求一个平衡。

LT: ^{TE3M3}**So** while we resist this change to happen, ^{EE2M3}we need to know ^{EE4M3}how [we] can find a balance.

P12: Nil

3. Only the student group has made additions of conjunctive adjuncts for gap-filling, and these six cases are made by five student interpreters respectively (see Figure 7.2-1).
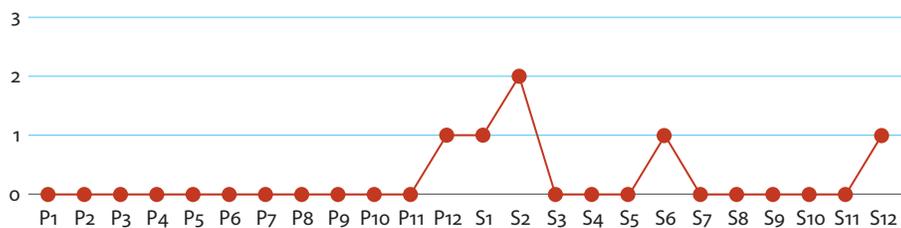
Figure 7.2-1 Frequency of TE3M2 (Add) made by each subjects in E-C CI

As shown by Table 7.2-6, the Mann-Whitney Test reveals a significant difference between the two groups in adding conjunctive adjuncts for gap-filling ($p = 0.014$, $r = 0.500$).

Table 7.2-6 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of TE3M2 (Add) between the two groups in E-C CI

TE3M2 (Add)	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECP vs ECS	42.00	−2.449	0.500	0.014	95%

Although the statistical analysis shows a significant difference between the two groups, since only six relevant shifts were identified in this study, it could also be a result of individual divergence. Hence, the small amount of relevant data does not permit any definite conclusion to be drawn. Only future researches with more related data can provide a tenable answer. Example 7.2.3-4 is a typical case to illustrate such shift:

Example 7.2.3-4
> ST: Schools all over the world have to deal with so much change today. Nowhere in the world is there more change than in China.
> S3: [EE2M2]我们[EE3M2]现在生活在一个充满了变革的世界，[EE2M2]所有人都[IE3M4]必须要学会去适应，[TE3M2]**或者**是[EE2M2]去改变\<p>现有的事物。
> LT: [EE2M2]We [EE3M2]now are living in a world full of changes, [EE2M2]all people [IE3M2]must learn to adapt, [TE3M2]**or** [EE2M2]to change\<p> the existing things.

In Example 7.2.3-4, S3 did not take down any notes. S/he mentioned in the retrospection that s/he failed to understand the meaning of the sentence "Nowhere in the world is there more change than in China". To fill in the gap resulting from the information loss, s/he made elaboration on the idea "have to deal with change" in the previous clause and replace it by "必须要学会去适应，或者是去改变现有的事物(must learn to adapt, or to change the existing thing)", where the conjunctive adjunct "or" was added as a gap-filling strategy.

4. Around 30% of conjunctive adjunct-based explicitations (26% for the profes-
    sional group and 33% for the student group) are motivated by the intention
    of gaining extra processing time. Table 7.2-4 also shows that only two shifts
    were made through the substitution of conjunctive adjuncts, so the majority of
    conjunction-based explicitations for time management are made through the
   addition of conjunctive adjuncts.
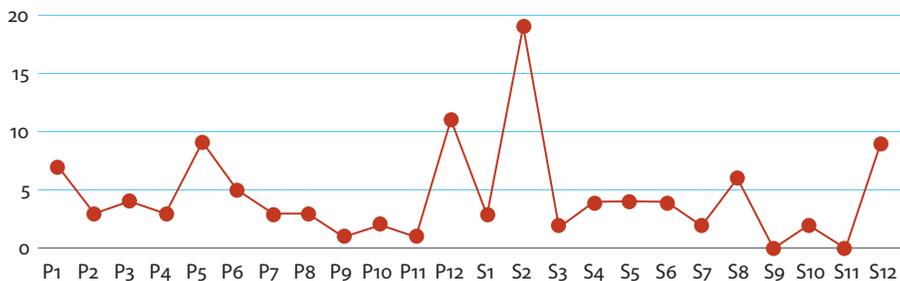
Figure 7.2-2 Frequency of TE3M1 (Add) made by each subjects in E-C CI

The statistical analysis proves no significant inter-group different exists in this re-
gards (p = 0.749, r = 0.066). However, as displayed in Figure 7.2-2, 22 out of 24
subjects have added conjunctive adjuncts for time management. This proves that
it is a regular practice for professional and student interpreters to gain processing
time through adding implied conjunctive adjuncts. Example 7.2.3-5 and 7.2.3-6
from each group may well illustrate this point:

Example 7.2.3-5

ST: one, not China. But also I am not talking about managing change in America.
      So the focus is about Asia

P1:   [TE2M3]我们关注的[IE3M4]并不是中国，而且呢我们也不会讲在美国管理改革
      或管理这样方面的一些东西。[TE3M1]**但是**呢~[EE3M3]今天讲的亚洲[EE1M3]国家
      的[EE4M3]一些经验 …

LT: [TE2M3]what we focus on is [IE3M4]actually not China, and we will not talk about
      managing changes or something in the management aspect in America
      either. [TE3M1]**But**~ [EE4M3]some experience of Asian [EE1M3]countries talked about
      [EE3M3]today …

Example 7.2.3-6

ST: Bad leader. Without aim, aimless …

S1:   <uh>[EE1M1]大家关于糟糕的领导所提出来的<uh>[TE2M1]特点<uh>有<p>[TE3M1]**比如说**<p>没有~眼界，没有远见 …

LT: <uh> [TE2M1]the characteristics about bad leaders [EE1M1]that you have proposed <uh> include <p> [TE3M1]**for example** <p> no~ vision, no foresight

Bad

无目

In Example 7.2.3-5, P1 substituted the original conjunctive adjunct "so" with "但是 (but)", because those two clauses are in transition relation rather than causal relation. Moreover, the stretching way of pronunciation reveals his/her intention of earning extra time. On the basis of his/her notes, s/he could have rendered the ST into "重点是亚洲 (the focus is Asia)". Yet, in his/her rendition, s/he restructured this part as "some experience of Asian countries talked about today". Thus, it can be inferred that while uttering "but", P1 is restructuring the following idea in his/her mind. Similar considerations also apply to Example 7.2.3-6, where the implied conjunctive adjunct "比如说(for example)" has been added while S1 searches for the proper Chinese equivalent of the symbol "目 (aim)" in his/her notes.

7.2.4   Results of textual explicitation patterns and interpreting experience in E-C CI

On the basis of the above analysis on the three subcategories of textual explicitations, it can be concluded that in E-C CI, there are four motivations for which interpreters have made textual explicitations. Table 7.2-7 shows the number of textual explicitations made by each group according to different motivations:

Table 7.2-7 Number of textual explicitations in E-C CI

TE	M1		M2		M3		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
ECP	78	5	0	0	285	55	7	0	430
ECS	74	2	6	0	226	33	2	1	334

As shown in Table 7.2-8, the Mann-Whitney Test has found a significant difference between the two groups in the number of textual information substitutions for clarifying ($p = 0.035$).

Table 7.2-8 Mann-Whitney Test on the number of ECTEM3 (Sub)[36] between the two groups in E-C CI

ECP vs ECS	U	Z	r	p	Remarks
ECTEM3 (Sub)	36.00	−2.110	0.431	0.035	95%

With the effect size *r* higher than 0.3, the magnitude of the difference is higher than medium. It represents that the independent variable – interpreters' professional experience – exerts an over-medium effect on the quantity of textual information substitutions that interpreters made for clarifying. Therefore, it can be concluded that the professional group substituted significantly more inferable textual information for clarifying than the student group.

7.3 Textual explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

It has been confirmed by Shlesinger (1995: 211) that interpreters are prone to explicitate implicit links by inserting appropriate cohesive devices. Moreover, in Gumul's exploration of explicitation in SI between Polish and English (2006a: 179), "explicitation is mainly cohesion-related" and the two most common changes are "adding connectives" and "shifts from referential cohesion to lexical cohesion" (equivalent to "the lexicalisation of proforms" in the present study). In addition, in Gumul's later investigation (2007) of explicitation in SI from different interpreting directions, she found that more additions of connectives can be identified in the retour interpreting (from A to B language) (167 vs 227). Are textual explicitations common in CI between Chinese and English? Which type of textual explicitations is the most frequently adopted one? Are there more textual explicitations in C-E CI or in E-C CI? To answer these questions, this section focuses on the effects of interpreting direction on interpreters' textual explicitation patterns. Its effects on each subcategory of textual explicitations are reported in the following three subsections, respectively, while a summary of its effects on textual explicitation patterns can be found in Section 7.3.4.

7.3.1 Results of reference-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 7.3-1 displays the number of reference-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction.

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36. ECTEM3 (Sub) represents textual substitutions for clarifying in E-C CI.

Table 7.3-1 Number of reference-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

TE1	M1		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	9	4	23	41	77
E-C	2	5	43	65	115

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: More referential additions for clarifying can be identified in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
> Observation Two: More lexicalisation of proforms for clarifying can be found in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 43 referential additions for clarifying were found in E-C CI, while there were 23 such shifts in C-E CI. Figure 7.3-1 shows that about half of the interpreters added referential components for clarifying more frequently in E-C CI.
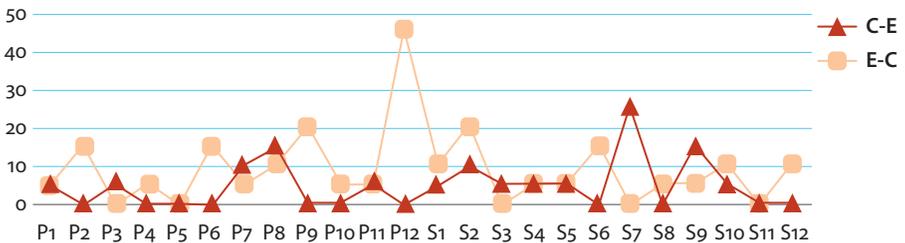
Figure 7.3-1 Frequency of TE1M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

To measure the difference, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has been implemented (see Table 7.3-2), which revealed that the difference between the two interpreting directions is not significant ($p = 0.097$).

Table 7.3-2 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE1M3 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

TE1M3 (Add)	Z	r	P	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−1.658	0.239	0.097	No significant difference

In addition, with the effect size measure *r* being 0.239, the magnitude of this difference is only at a small level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a lack of interaction between the independent variable – interpreting direction – and interpreters' frequency in making referential additions for clarifying.

2. In E-C CI, 65 lexicalisations of proforms for clarifying have been identified, while in C-E CI, 41 such shifts were found. Figure 7.3-2 displays a general higher frequency in E-C CI among professional interpreters, while for the student group, no clear tendency can be observed.
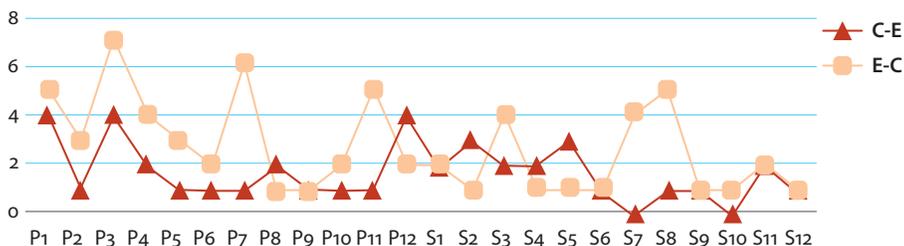
Figure 7.3-2 Frequency of TE1M3 (Sub) made by each professional subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 7.3-3, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has revealed a significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.031$). The *p* value, being lower than 0.05, suggests an over 95% possibility of the existence of a significant difference in referential additions for clarifying between the two interpreting directions.

Table 7.3-3 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE1M3 (Sub) made by professional interpreters between C-E and E-C CI

TE1M3 (Sub)	Z	*r*	*p*	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.155	0.440	0.031	95%

Moreover, the effect size measure *r,* being 0.440, also reveals that the magnitude of this difference is between medium and big. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that professional interpreters are more likely to lexicalise proforms for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

7.3.2 Results of ellipsis-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 7.3-4 displays the number of ellipsis-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction. Qualitative analysis, as shown in Table 7.3-4, reveals three types of situation, where interpreters have made ellipsis-based explicitations.

Table 7.3-4 Number of ellipsis-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

TE2	M1		M3		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	26	0	84	0	18	0	128
E-C	43	0	230	0	10	0	283

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: More ellipsis-based additions for clarifying can be found in E-C CI than in C-E CI.
> Observation Two: More ellipsis-based additions for time management can be found in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 230 ellipsis-based additions for clarifying have been identified in E-C CI while 84 such shifts have been identified in C-E CI. As displayed in Figure 7.3-3, a general higher frequency in E-C CI can be observed based on each interpreter's performance.
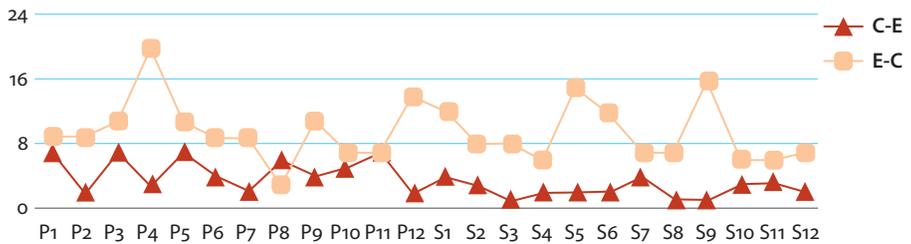

Figure 7.3-3 Frequency of TE2M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 7.3-5, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has revealed a significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.000$). With the p value below 0.05, the odds of inter-direction difference in ellipsis-based additions for clarifying are above 95%.

Table 7.3-5 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE2M3 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

TE2M3 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−4.049	0.584	0.000	95%

Furthermore, with the effect size measure r being 0.584, the magnitude of this difference is above big. Therefore, it can be concluded that interpreters are more likely to add elliptical components for clarifying in E-C CI than in C-E CI.

2. In E-C CI, 43 ellipsis-based additions for time management have been identified while in C-E CI, 26 such shifts were found. Despite the larger total number in E-C CI, no clear tendency about interpreters' performance in adding elliptical components for time management can be observed in different interpreting directions (see Figure 7.3-4).
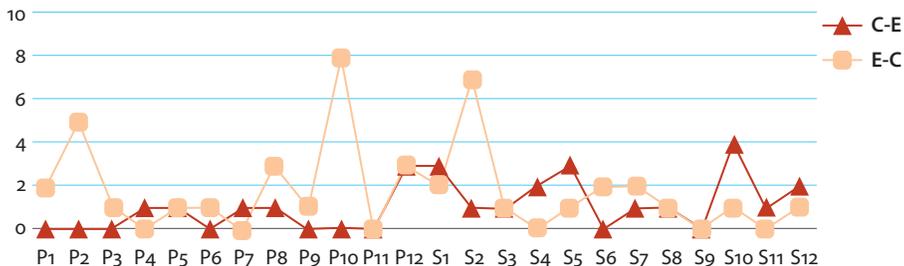

Figure 7.3-4 Frequency of TE2M1 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 7.3-6, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test shows that there is no significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.341$).

Table 7.3-6 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE2M1 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

TE2M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−0.952	0.137	0.341	No significant difference

Moreover, the effect size measure r, being 0.137, also proves that the magnitude of the difference is only slightly above small, clearly showing that there is a lack of interaction between the independent variable – interpreting direction – and interpreters' frequency in adding elliptical components for time management.

7.3.3   Results of conjunction-based explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 7.3-7 displays the number of conjunction-based explicitations according to motivation and interpreting direction.

Table 7.3-7 Number of conjunction-based explicitations in CI (C-E vs E-C)

TE3	M1		M2		M3		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	215	1	0	0	426	8	650
E-C	107	2	6	0	244	17	376

The following observations can be made from the above table:

> Observation One: More conjunction-based additions for clarifying can be found in C-E CI than in E-C CI.
> Observation Two: More conjunction-based additions for time management can be identified in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

Illustration on the observations:

1. 244 conjunction-based additions for clarifying have been found in E-C CI while 426 were found in C-E CI. As displayed in Figure 7.3-5, a general higher frequency can be observed in C-E CI based on each interpreter's performance.
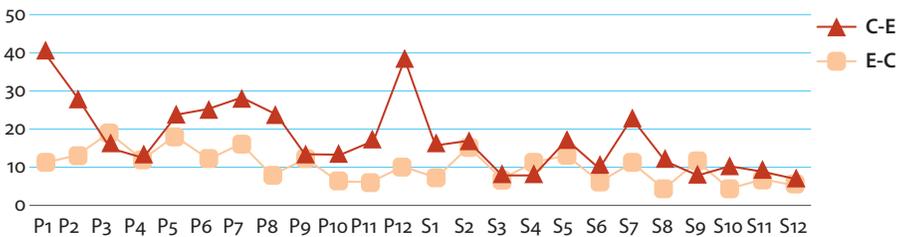

Figure 7.3-5 Frequency of TE3M3 (Add) made by each subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 7.3-8, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has revealed a significant difference between the two interpreting directions ($p = 0.000$).

Table 7.3-8 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE3M3 (Add) between C-E and E-C CI

TE3M3 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−3.603	0.520	0.000	95%

Moreover, the effect size measure *r,* being 0.520, also reveals that the magnitude of this difference is above big. Hence, the result justified the following conclusion: interpreters are more likely to add conjunctive adjuncts for clarifying in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

2. In E-C CI, 107 conjunction-based additions for time management have been identified while in C-E CI, 216 such shifts were found. As displayed in Figure 7.3-6, no clear tendency can be observed from professional interpreters' performance while a general higher frequency can be observed in C-E CI based on each student interpreter's performance.
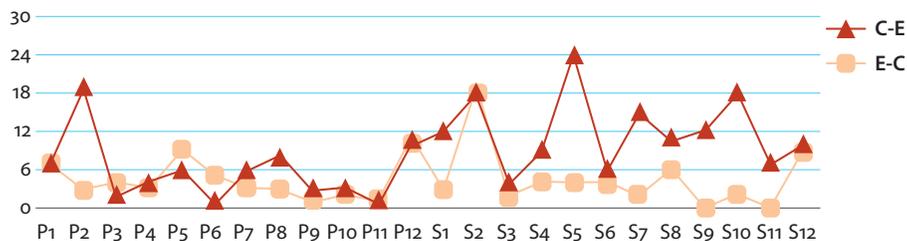
Figure 7.3-6 Frequency of TE3M1 (Add) made by each student subject according to interpreting direction

As shown in Table 7.3-9, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test has revealed a significant difference between the two interpreting directions (p = 0.003).

Table 7.3-9 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TE3M1 (Add) made by student interpreters between C-E and E-C CI

TE3M1 (Add)	Z	r	p	Remarks
C-E vs E-C	−2.945	0.601	0.003	95%

Still, with the effect size measure *r* being 0.601, the magnitude of the difference is above big. So it can be safely concluded that student interpreters make more conjunctive adjunct additions for time management in C-E CI than in E-C CI.

7.3.4   Results of textual explicitation patterns and interpreting direction

On the basis of the above analysis on three subcategories of textual explicitations, it can be found that in C-E and E-C CI, there are altogether four motivations for which interpreters made textual explicitations. Table 7.3-10 shows the number of textual explicitations in each interpreting direction according to different motivations:

Table 7.3-10 Number of textual explicitations in C-E and E-C CI

TE	M1		M2		M3		M4		Total
	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	Add	Sub	
C-E	250	5	0	0	533	49	18	0	855
E-C	152	7	6	0	511	88	9	1	774

The data have been further measured by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. As shown in Table 7.3-11, significant differences between the two interpreting directions can be identified in the frequency of adding cohesive devices for time management ($p = 0.027$, $r = 0.319$) and gap-filling ($p = 0.034$, $r = 0.306$) as well as substituting cohesive devices for clarifying ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.441$).

Table 7.3-11 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test on the number of TEM1 (Add),[37] TEM2 (Sub)[38] and TEM3 (Sub)[39] between the two groups in E-C CI

C-E vs E-C	Z	r	p	Remarks
TEM1 (Add)	−2.211	0.319	0.027	95%
TEM2 (Add)	−2.121	0.306	0.034	95%
TEM3 (Sub)	−3.052	0.441	0.002	95%

This proves that interpreters added more cohesive devices for time management in C-E direction, added more cohesive devices for gap-filling and substituted more cohesive devices for clarifying in E-C direction.

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37. TEM1 (Add) represents textual additions for time management.

38. TEM2 (Add) represents textual additions for gap-filling.

39. TEM3 (Sub) represents textual substitutions for clarifying.

Note-related explicitations

In recent years, an increasing number of researchers have become interested in comparing the different features of notes between professional and student interpreters (Andres 2002; Dam 2004a, 2004b, 2007; Dam et al. 2005; Dai & Xu 2007; Xu & Chai 2008; González 2012). In general, these studies mainly investigated interpreters' choice of language and forms of their notes while they are working with different language pairs or interpreting speeches with varying difficulty. For instance, Andres (2002) found out that both student and professional interpreters tend to be SL-oriented in the language choice of their notes; and Dam (2004b) observed that with the increase of difficulty of the ST, interpreters tend to take more notes with the SL.

The present chapter explores interpreters' note-taking from a new perspective – the relationship between explicitation and interpreters' note-taking. Professional and student interpreters' explicitation patterns that relate to the notes they took while interpreting are compared.

Altogether four different situations where notes may be related to interpreters' explicitations in CI have been found. They are: (1) the explicitated information has been written down in the notes (M51); (2) the explicitated information can be inferred from the layout of the notes (M52); (3) the explicitated information is related to interpreters' misinterpretation of the symbols in the notes (M53) and (4) the explicitated information is related to the symbols that interpreters wrote down upon misunderstanding the original information (M54).

8.1 Results of note-related explicitation and interpreting experience in C-E CI

Table 8-1 gives the number of all the note-related explicitation shifts identified in C-E CI.

Table 8-1 Number of note-related explicitations in C-E CI

Note-related explicitation	M51	M52	M53	M54	Total
CEP	34	7	3	6	50
CES	18	5	16	3	42

The data can justify the following observations:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters tend to record explicitated information in their notes more often than their student counterparts.
>
> Observation Two: The layout of both groups' notes may generate explicitations.
>
> Observation Three: Student interpreters misinterpreted their notes more often than their professional counterparts.
>
> Observation Four: Both professional interpreters and student interpreters might record in their notes symbols written down upon misunderstanding of the original information.

Illustration on the observations:

1. There are 34 explicitation shifts related to explicitated symbols in the notes of the professional interpreters, while only 18 occurred in students' in C-E CI, which suggests that more explicitations are formed in the listening and analysis stage of professional interpreters rather than that of student interpreters. Example 8-1 and 8-2 may well illustrate this point:

Example 8-1
    ST: 但是面对着新的形势
    LT: But facing the new situation
    P4:   However, EE2M3**times have changed**.

While listening to the source speech, P4 jotted down "new ts" in his/her notes as a hint to recall the idea "new times". This has also contributed to P4's rephrasing of the original idea into "times have changed".

Example 8-2
    ST: 这项措施是根本性的，当然还有一系列的措施。
    LT: This measure is fundamental. Of course, there are still a series of measures.
    P5:   <uh> Of course, EE2M3**the lists that I have proposed** EE3M3just now, **are not exhaustive**.

While listening to the second clause, P5 noted down "list not ex". This suggests that s/he has decided to paraphrase "there are still a series of measures" into "the lists that I have proposed are not exhaustive" before or while taking notes. It indicates that the explicitation shift was made in the comprehension stage.

2. Seven explicitation cases are relevant to the layout of notes in the professional group while there are five in the student group, which proves that the layout of professional and student interpreters' notes can both reflect the implied connections between information. For example,

Example 8-3
    ST: 我们已经从一个人口大国建设成为一个人力资源大国，但我们现在要向人力资源强国进军。

    LT: We have already built [ourselves] from a country with a huge population into a country with huge human resources, yet we now should march towards a country with strong human resources.

    P1: As we know [TE1M3]China [EE2M3]**used to be** a nation with huge population [TE3M3]but [EE3M3]**now** [IE2M4]I would like to see it like China as a nation with huge human resources. But in the next, few years or [EE3M3]**in the near future**, [IE2M4]we hope that China will be a nation with a huge~ basis of good human resources.

In this example, it is the layout of the notes which makes clear that the speaker was talking about three different phases: one for the past, one for the present and one for the future. That explains why P1 added "used to be", "now" and "in the near future" in his/her rendition.

3. There are only three explicitation cases related to misinterpretation of notes in the professional group while there are 16 in the student group. Example 8-4 and 8-5 are typical instances to illustrate this point:

Example 8-4
    ST: 国家发展，希望在教育；办好教育，希望在教师

    LT: The hope of national development lies in education; the hope of good education lies in teachers.

    S5: [TE1M1]our <uh> country's [EE1M3]**educational** development. [TE3M3]And [IE2M4]**he hopes that** [IE3M4]all **the teachers could their, make their own contributions to the development of China**.

The first line of the notes originally represents "the hope of national development is education", yet S5 misinterpreted it as "country's educational development". Likewise, "hope" has been misinterpreted as a mental process of the speaker, which led to the expression "he hopes that …" Nevertheless, since these new ideas can be inferred from the original segment, they were labelled as "explicitation" rather than "random addition or substitution". This case also illustrates that student interpreters may note down the exact words uttered by the speaker before achieving a correct understanding of the original meaning.

Example 8-5
ST: 为什么党中央、国务院和人民群众对教师队伍建设这么重视呢？
LT: Why do the Party Central Committee, the State Council and people attach such importance to the building of faculty team?
S9:   The [EE1M3]communist party and [TE1M1]our <uh> [EE4M2]**country** <uh> think that education is very important.

The symbol "□" was noted down when S9 heard "国务院 (the State Council)". Yet, while reading his/her notes, S9 misinterpreted it as "国家 (country)", which led to the substitution of "the State Council" with "country". Since the speaker's listing of the three elements "party", "state council" and "people" indicates that this issue has attracted the attention of the whole country, the above substitution can be labelled as an explicitation. To be exact, it forms a participant-based explicitation for gap-filling. More importantly, this case also indicates that student interpreters have not equipped themselves with a group of controllable symbols yet, which means that while interpreting, it is possible for them to write down symbols they are not quite familiar with or symbols that are with confounded meaning.

    To sum up, the above cases validate that:

a.   student interpreters are more dependent on their notes rather than their memory;
b.   student interpreters are more likely to take notes with the exact words the speaker utters while they fail to understand the meaning the speaker expressed;
c.   student interpreters are equipped with only limited proficiency and experience in using symbols. They may jot down unfamiliar symbols in a hurry while they fail to recall the meaning those symbols represent.

4.   There are six explicitation shifts in the professional group and three such shifts in the student group that relate to symbols in the notes that were written down due to the misunderstanding of the original information in C-E CI. Typical cases are as follows:

Example 8-6

ST:　最重要的差距就是教师队伍，教师的质量。

LT:　The most important gap is the faculty team, the quality of the faculty.

P1:　It ^{IE3M4}actually lies in the team member, actually the faculty member, ^{TE3M1}so~ ^{IE1M1}I think <p> ^{IE2M2}**the responsibility of the teachers in the rural area should be enhanced**.
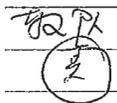
P1 mentioned in retrospection that he misheard "质量 (quality)" as "责任 (responsibility)", which explains why s/he wrote down the character "责 (responsibility)" in notes. To make it logic, P1 organised an inferable idea relevant to "responsibility" based on the previous co-text. This explains the substitution of "the quality of the faculty" into "the responsibility of the teachers in the rural area should be enhanced".

Except mishearing, there are also cases where interpreters may note down symbols that did not reflect the original meaning. For instance,

Example 8-7

ST:　为什么党中央、国务院和人民群众对教师队伍建设这么重视呢？

LT:　Why do the Party Central Committee, the State Council and people attach such importance to the building of faculty team?

S5:　… the central committee, the state council and ^{TE1M3}our people have paid great attention to ^{EE4M2}**education**.

The original concept "教师队伍建设 (the building of faculty team)" has been noted down with the symbol "edu". That explains why S5 made the substitution in the above example. Although "education" is a more general idea than the original "the building of faculty team", since this substitution can be inferred from the speaker's following emphasis on "Chinese people value education", it was labelled as a explicitation shift.

The above analysis makes clear that both professional and student interpreters may mishear or misunderstand the original message, and there are cases where explicitations are induced from symbols they note down upon mishearing or misunderstanding the original information.

8.2 Results of note-related explicitation and interpreting experience in E-C CI

Table 8-2 gives the number of all the note-related explicitation shifts identified in E-C CI.

Table 8-2 Number of note-related explicitations in E-C CI

Note-related explicitation	M51	M52	M53	M54	Total
ECP	18	6	8	3	35
ECS	13	1	18	3	35

The numbers provide evidence for the following observations:

> Observation One: Professional interpreters wrote down more explicitated information in their notes than student interpreters.
>
> Observation Two: The layout of professional interpreters' notes may generate more explicitations than those of the student interpreters'.
>
> Observation Three: There is more misinterpretation of notes in the student group.
>
> Observation Four: Professional interpreters and student interpreters both noted down symbols upon misunderstanding the original information.

Illustration on the observations:

1. There are 18 explicitation shifts related to the explicitated symbols in the notes of the professional interpreters while there are 13 such shifts in the student interpreters' notes in E-C CI, which makes it plausible that professional interpreters start to make explicitations in the listening and analysis stage more frequently than student interpreters. This point can be illustrated by Example 8-8 and 8-9:

Example 8-8
 ST: I think also very important is to be a model.
 P4: 同样重要的^{TE2M3}一点就是^{TE2M3}你要成为一个^{EE1M3}变革的榜样
 LT: ^{TE2M3}One point that is also important is ^{TE2M3}you should be a model ^{EE1M3}**of change**.

In the above example, under the influence of the symbol s/he used to represent "change", P4 added a modifier "变革的 (of change)" to specify the kind of model the speaker advocated, which is an idea that can be inferred from the subsequent clause "Be the change you want to see".

Example 8-9

ST: So I will share from my research and personal experience of managing change in Asia … So the focus is about Asia and the lessons, I think, will be quite relevant to you. But that's for you to decide yourself

P9: 我^{EE3M3}今天主要是想^{EE4M3}和各位分享一下我对于在亚洲<p>改变管理的一些研究以及我个人的一些经验 … 我们^{EE3M3}今天关注的^{EE4M3}这个区域是亚洲。^{TE1M3}我^{EE3M3}今天^{EE4M3}跟大家讲的^{IE3M4}都是^{EE1M3}我们的经验跟研究，供，以^{EE2M3}**供大家的参考**

LT: ^{EE3M3}Today I want to share ^{EE4M3}with you some research and some of my personal experience I have on managing change in Asia … ^{EE3M3}Today ^{EE4M3}the district we focus on, is Asia. ^{IE3M4}All ^{TE1M3}those I tell ^{EE4M3}you ^{EE3M3}today is ^{EE1M3}our experience and research, for, ^{EE2M3}**for your reference**.

Here "but that's for you to decide yourself" has been substituted by "for your reference", which makes explicit the speaker's intention to give this lecture, an idea only implicitly indicated in the previous sentence "the lesson I think will be quite relevant to you". It is shown clearly that this substitution was motivated by P9's notes, where the idea "供参考 (for your reference)" has been written down.

2. Six cases are relevant to the layout of professional interpreters' notes while there is only one such case in the student group, which verifies that the layout of professional interpreters' notes can better reflect the implied connections between clauses than that of their student counterparts. Example 8-10 is a typical example to illustrate this point:

Example 8-10

ST: could be your big boss now, could be your little boss,
P2: ^{TE3M3}**或者**是你的自己的这个大老板呐，^{TE3M3}**或者**是你们的小老板
LT: or your own big boss, or your little boss

Here, P2 added two conjunctive adjuncts "或者 (or)". This can be attributed to the parallel layout of the two persons "big boss" and "小 boss" on the notes.

3. In E-C CI, there are only eight explicitation shifts related to misinterpretation of notes in the professional group while there are 18 such shifts in the student group. Example 8-11 is a typical case made by the student group.

Example 8-11

ST: When you were younger, we look at the leader above us.

S12: <uh>当我们年轻的时候呢，我们<uh>^{EE2M2}**是被人领导的**。

LT: <uh> when we were young, we <uh> ^{EE2M2}**were led by [other] people**.

This example illustrates S12's substitution of the process "look at the leader above us" with "是被人领导的 (were led by [other] people)", which is inferable from the word "leader" in the original ("we look at leader" indicates that "we have leader"). It is clear that this shift can be attributed to S12's notes, where s/he drew a bracket-shaped symbol on top of the character "L" (stands for "leader"). S/he intended to use it to represent "leaders are above us", yet while reading it, s/he misinterpreted it as "we are under the leader's control".

Similar to the findings in C-E CI, the above numbers also validate that in E-C CI:

a.   student interpreters are more dependent on their notes rather than their memory;

b.   student interpreters are more likely to take notes with the exact words the speaker utters before achieving a correct understanding of the meaning the speaker expressed;

c.   student interpreters are equipped with only limited proficiency and experience in using symbols. They may jot down unfamiliar symbols in a hurry and later fail to recall the meaning those symbols represent.

4.   Three explicitation shifts in both groups are related to the symbols written down upon misunderstanding of the original information in E-C CI. A typical case is as follows:

Example 8-12

ST: So even though change is difficult, we must adapt. And this is the yin-yang. There is change and there is resistance.

S10: <uh>那改变，那^{IE2M4}最重要的是在、^{EE3M2}在^{EE2M3}发生改变的时候我们要^{EE2M3}学会去适应这种，^{EE2M3}**要让这种改变能够持续下去**。

LT: <uh>so the change, so ^{IE2M4}the most important is while, ^{EE3M2}while changing ^{EE2M3}happens we should ^{EE2M3}learn to adapt this kind of, ^{EE2M3}**should keep this kind of change going on**.

The original idea "because change and resistance are like the two parts of yin-yang, they co-exist with each other so we should keep a balance between them" has been substituted with "我们 …… 要让这种改变能够持续下去 (we … should keep this kind of change going on)". This is an idea that can be inferred from the co-text and situation (the speech is about how to make change happen successfully), so it could be labelled as a process-based explicitation. In S10's notes, s/he jotted down two characters "改(change)" and "坚(insistence)" to represent the original meaning. Obviously, here s/he misheard "resistance" as "insistence". Thus, later when s/he read the notes, s/he misinterpreted them into the idea "should insist on changing", which forms a typical explicitation motivated by notes taken down upon misunderstanding the original.

Apart from mishearing, there are also cases where interpreters may note down symbols that did not reflect the original concept. For instance,

Example 8-13

   ST: For example, could solve problem.

   P12:   比如说 ^{TE2M3}他 ^{IE2M4}善于解决问题 ^{EE3M3}**等等** ^{TE1M3}这样一些特质

   LT: For example ^{TE2M3}he ^{IE2M4}is good at solving problems, ^{EE3M3}**and so on**, ^{TE1M3}these characteristics.

In this example, the speaker starts to list features of good leaders. P12 anticipated that the speaker would offer more than one example. Thus in his/her notes, s/he draws an angle bracket to prepare for a long listing of characteristics shared by good leaders. But as a matter of fact, in the source speech, the speaker only provided one feature. While reading his/her notes, P12 might forget his/her mis-anticipation, so s/he added "等等 (and so on)". This addition belongs to the addition of circumstantial adjunct. To be specific, it is a condition indicator, making explicit that good leaders have other features. Since this addition is inferable from the co-text, the original "for example" indicating there are other features, it forms an explicitation rather than a groundless addition.

The above analysis demonstrates that both professional and student interpreters may mishear or misunderstand the original message. In some cases, explicitations are induced from symbols jotted down upon mishearing or misunderstanding the original information.

8.3   Results of note-related explicitation and interpreting direction

Table 8-3 gives the number of all the note-related explicitation shifts identified in C-E CI and E-C CI.

Table 8-3 Number of note-related explicitations according to interpreting direction

Note-related explicitation	M51	M52	M53	M54	Total
C-E	52	13	19	9	92
E-C	31	7	26	6	70

We can infer the following observation from the above numbers: Generally speaking, more explicitations are note-related in C-E CI than in E-C CI; interpreters made more explicitations based on the information noted down in C-E CI; more explicitations in E-C CI are made due to interpreters' misinterpretation of their notes.

Findings and discussion

Interpreters' professional experience and interpreting directions are two independent variables the present study adopted to explore explicitation patterns in CI. Our analysis in the above chapters (Chapter 5–8) has demonstrated different explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters in C-E CI and E-C CI as well as different explicitation patterns between C-E and E-C CI. In this chapter, explanations for these identified differences were sought among theories like Fillmore's Frame Semantics, Chesterman's Expectancy Norms, and Anderson's Three Stages in Skill Acquisition, etc.

9.1 Interpreting experience and explicitation patterns in C-E CI

Table 9-1 displays the explicitation patterns of professional and student interpreters in C-E CI.

Table 9-1 Explicitation patterns of professional and student interpreters in C-E CI

Group	Type	M1	M2	M3	M4	Total
Professional group	EE1	45	5	266	0	316
	EE2	4	3	115	0	122
	EE3	18	1	108	0	127
	EE4	2	20	137	0	159
	IE1	3	0	0	4	7
	IE2	3	11	0	183	197
	IE3	14	3	0	143	160
	TE1	1	0	31	0	32
	TE2	7	0	56	10	73
	TE3	69	0	286	0	355
	Total	**166**	**43**	**999**	**340**	**1548**
Student group	EE1	81	15	175	0	271
	EE2	3	7	120	0	130
	EE3	53	4	65	0	122
	EE4	1	23	129	0	153
	IE1	30	0	0	3	33
	IE2	2	19	0	133	154
	IE3	6	9	0	128	143
	TE1	12	0	33	0	45
	TE2	19	0	28	8	55
	TE3	147	0	148	0	295
	Total	**354**	**77**	**698**	**272**	**1401**

9.1.1 Explicitations for clarifying in C-E CI

As shown in Table 9-1, professional interpreters in general made more explicitations than their student counterparts in C-E CI, especially explicitations for clarifying (999 vs 698, $p = 0.007$, $r = 0.548$). This finding is consistent with the result yielded from Vik-Tuovinen's study (2002: 68), where she found that professionals discussed how their potential audience would react to their interpretation more frequently than students. The higher frequency of experiential explicitations for clarifying in the professional group indicates that professional interpreters are more listener-oriented and can make greater contributions in facilitating communication than their student counterparts in C-E CI.

Among all the experiential explicitations made for clarifying, the major forms found in both groups include adding modifiers and circumstantial adjuncts as well as substituting processes and participants.

For the addition part, professional interpreters added significantly more inferable modifiers ($p = 0.037$, $r = 0.425$, see Table 5.1-2) and circumstantial adjuncts ($p = 0.030$, $r = 0.444$, see Table 5.1-8) than student interpreters, which may be attributed to professional interpreters' more accumulation and quicker retrieval of "frames". The concept of "frames" originates from Fillmore's frame semantics (1982; 1985). In his theory, communication cannot be fulfilled by making clear only the dictionary meaning of the individual words they hear. Understanding should be based on people's established semantic frames. "A frame is invoked when the interpreters,[40] in trying to make sense of a text segment, is able to assign it an interpretation by situating its context in a pattern that is known independently of the text" (Fillmore 1985: 232). For example, the sentence in Example 3.2-2 "刘延东 …… 发表了演讲 (Liu Yandong … delivered a speech)" makes no mention of "State Councilor", yet some interpreters like S5 in this study who share certain political knowledge would immediately invoke the title of the person who addressed the speech and add the title as a modifier to the person's name. Also in Example 5.2.3-2, the circumstantial adjunct "通过讨论 (through discussion)" has not been mentioned by the speaker, yet for interpreters who elicit the frame related to the communication situation, where the speaker has just discussed the features of good and bad leaders, this adjunct has been evoked from their minds and added to their renditions. Fillmore (ibid.) also stressed that not all frames are "innate, in the sense that they appear naturally and unavoidably in the cognitive development of every human"; some frames are "learned through experience or training". "Words represent categorizations of experience and each of these categories is underlain

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40. The "interpreters" Fillmore mentioned in this quotation refer to the people who provide explanations rather than those who mediate between speakers of different languages.

by a motivating situation occurring against a background of knowledge and experience" (Fillmore 1982: 112). Still using the above example, we know that the association between the name "Liu Yandong" and her title "State Councilor" is not innate. Only interpreters who know this connection can generate this frame in their minds. The fact that more modifier and circumstantial adjunct additions can be observed in the professional group verifies that professional interpreters have established more frames and they can associate background knowledge with the input words and sentences in a more efficient way. We may thus conclude that with the increase in interpreting experience, interpreters have accumulated more associated knowledge and they can retrieve relevant frame knowledge quicker than their student counterparts.

As regards the substitution part, no significant difference can be found between the two groups' frequency of process and participant substitutions. This finding is contrary to Moser-Mercer's study (Moser-Mercer et al. 2000), in which five student interpreters and five professional interpreters were invited to shadow two texts (one in their A language, the other in their B language). Her study shows that student interpreters "proved to be rather faithful shadowers"; whereas professional interpreters "made greater use of substitution, producing nonetheless sentences that were grammatically correct, and did not alter the meaning of the sentences" (ibid. 115–118). This contradiction may be explained by the inherent incompatibilities between the shadowing task and the CI task. To be specific, shadowers only need to repeat phonologically, imitating the sound they hear whereas interpreters are required not only to understand the meaning but also to transfer it into another language. Furthermore, the similar number of process and participant substitutions identified in the present study between professional and student groups also confirms that in C-E CI, interpreters' tendency to paraphrase is not closely related to their professional experience.

Among all the textual explicitations made for clarifying, the major form is the addition of conjunctive adjuncts. Professional interpreters added more conjunctive adjuncts for clarifying than student interpreters ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.645$, see Table 7.1-7). Besides, significantly more additions of inferable elliptical information for clarifying ($p = 0.007$, $r = 0.547$, see Table 7.1-4) can also be found in the professional group. The addition of conjunctive adjuncts and elliptical information requires the ability to automatically associate relevant information with the input information, Fitts and Poser (cited. in Anderson 2000: 280–282) proposed that there are three stages in skill acquisition: "the cognitive stage", "the associative stage" and "the autonomous stage". At the cognitive stage, students "acquire an initial, often verbal, characterization of the skill" (Anderson 1983: 217), for instance, memorising steps that are needed to fulfil one task; in the second stage – "the associative stage" – "errors in the initial understanding are gradually found and eliminated"

and "connections among the various elements required for successful performance are strengthened (Anderson 2000: 281); and in the autonomous stage, "a skill […] is highly practiced [and] knowledge that is initially taught explicitly becomes […] automatic" (Hoffman 1996: 91). The above quantitative findings just echo the "three stages theory", which indicates that professionals can better perceive the associative connections between two things than their student counterparts. The higher frequency of professional interpreters in adding implicit conjunctive adjuncts and elliptical components for clarifying suggests that professionals can better perceive the inter-clause relations in the source speech and tend to improve the cohesion in their renditions more frequently than student interpreters.

9.1.2   Explicitations for time management in C-E CI

Toury, holding that translation is a norm-governed activity, was the first scholar to systematically introduce the concept "norms" into Translation Studies (Li & Tang 2012: 22). A norm, as claimed by Toury (1980: 51), falls between "objective, relatively absolute rules" and "fully subjective idiosyncrasies". And translation norms are defined as "the translation of general values or ideas shared by a community – as to what is right or wrong, adequate or inadequate – into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations" (Toury 1995: 55). On the basis of the idea that some norms can be treated as "solutions to problems posed by certain types of social interaction situations" (Ullmann-Margalit 1977: 37), Chesterman further developed translation norm theory by proposing "the expectancy norms", which refers to norms that "are established by the receivers of the translation, by their expectations of what a translation […] should be like" (Chesterman 1993: 9). A large number of studies on the quality of interpreting from the perspective of users' expectations have been conducted (Bühler 1986; Kurz 1989, 1993a, 1993b, 2001; Marrone 1993; Vuorikoski 1993, 1998; Kopczynski 1994; Mack & Cattaruzza 1995; Moser-Mercer 1997; Ru 1996; He 2002; Zhang 2008, 2011; Zhang & Ke 2008; Christensen 2011; Wang 2013b). Most of these studies collect data through questionnaires. Among the parameters they investigate, "fluency of delivery" has always been one of the most critical factors that influence users' evaluation. For instance, 139 CI users filled in questionnaires designed by Wang (2013b). Their responses show that "fluency" is the top one element they are concerned about (ibid. 111). In the present study, significantly less experiential explicitations for time management have been identified in the professional group ($p = 0.004$, $r = 0.585$, see Table 5.1-12). In other words, less difficulty indicators, like hesitations, pauses, vowel/consonant lengthenings and self-correction are found in the professional group. This verifies that with the increase in interpreting experience, interpreters can deliver their renditions in a more fluent manner and can better fulfil the expectancy norms.

Among all the experiential and textual explicitations made for time management, the major manifestation found in the professional group is the addition of modifiers, whereas for the student group, the major form is adding modifiers, circumstantial adjuncts and conjunctive adjuncts. Student interpreters added significantly more inferable modifiers ($p = 0.014$, $r = 0.504$, see Table 5.1-3), circumstantial adjuncts ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.622$, see Table 5.1-9) and conjunctive adjuncts ($p = 0.005$, $r = 0.567$, see Table 7.1-8) for time management than professional interpreters. The results can be interpreted in two ways. First, student interpreters have encountered more interpreting difficulties than professionals in C-E CI. Second, while in lack of information-processing time, student interpreters tend to add implied modifiers, circumstantial adjuncts and conjunctive adjuncts. The higher frequency of experiential and textual explicitations for time management in the student group means that more hesitations have been found in their renditions. As "hesitant delivery […] can greatly reduce the quality perceived by the listeners, and in some cases prevent accurate comprehension of the interpretation" (Tommola & Heleva 1998: 185), the more frequent adoption of modifier-based, circumstance-based and conjunction-based additions as a time-management strategy may make student interpreters' performance less convincing to the listeners than that of professional interpreters.

As regards all interpersonal explicitations made for time management, student interpreters added more inferable engagement information, whereas professional interpreters added more inferable intensifiers. The difference is marginal, which rejects any conclusive findings. Yet some tendencies may be perceived before it can be testified by further studies: student interpreters tend to gain extra processing time through the addition of engagement information while professional interpreters tend to do so by adding intensifiers.

9.1.3 Explicitations for gap-filling in C-E CI

Among experiential explicitations used for gap-filling, the major manifestation in both groups is the substitution of participants, where interpreters failed to render the original participant and substitute it with another one that can be inferred not from the information s/he is expected to render but from other information in the context. If we make a close investigation of such shifts, it can be found that more than half (15 cases in the professional group and 16 cases in the student group) can be attributed not to interpreters' difficulty in understanding, memorising or expressing, but to their "inaccurate anticipation". Since the first study of anticipation in conference interpreting conducted by Herbert (1952), the importance of "anticipation" in SI has been emphasised quite often (Moser 1976; Kirchhoff 1976; Wilss 1978; Lederer 1978 & 1981; Seleskovitch 1984; Van Dam 1989; Chernov 1994; Kohn & Kalina 1996; Setton 1999). Yet its features in CI have rarely been

investigated. According to Vandepitte (2001: 329), anticipation refers to "the interpreter's mental generation of (parts of) assumptions that correspond to those that have not yet been expressed by the speaker". It is believed that anticipation is applied at the comprehension stage only (Kalina 1992: 255–256). And "previous knowledge of a topic on which interpretation has to be done will activate subsets in the lexicon that are semantically based" so as to achieve anticipation (De Bot 2000: 74). These two features of anticipation just stand as explanations for the inaccurate anticipations identified in this study. For instance, the original "重视教师队伍建设 (attach importance to the building of the faculty team)" has been rendered into "attach importance to education". In the retrospection, some interpreters reported that they felt they could infer the ensuing information from the pre-text, so they did not listen to the original word for word. This conforms also to Gile's Tightrope Hypothesis (Gile 1995/2009: 182), which assumes that "most of the time, interpreters work close to saturation, be it in terms of total processing capacity requirements or as regards individual Efforts because of high Effort-specific[41] requirements and/or sub-optimised allocation of resources to each of them". According to this hypothesis, if interpreters believe they can anticipate the following information, they might pay less attention to the listening and analysis of the input and pay more attention to other concurrent acts, like memorising and note-taking. They may treat this act as a fashion to balance well with other processing demands. Since this study found that both groups undertook a similar number of participant substitutions for gap-filling, and the majority can be attributed to interpreters' imprecise anticipation, it may be concluded that in C-E CI, both professional and student interpreters, having barely any difficulty in A language comprehension, tend to do anticipation so as to allocate more efforts to other concurrent processing acts.

In interpersonal explicitation, a significant difference can be found in the frequency of adding appraisal information for gap-filling made by the two groups ($p = 0.026$, $r = 0.455$, see Table 6.1-9). The higher frequency in the student group suggests that student interpreters encountered information loss more often than professionals. In addition, it also demonstrates that they tend to fill in the gap resulting from information loss with appraisal information that the speaker implies while professional interpreters rarely do so.

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41. The capitalisation of "Efforts" and "Effort-specific" in this quotation is made by Gile.

9.1.4   Explicitations for subjectivity reinforcement in C-E CI

Among all the interpersonal explicitations made for reinforcing the speaker's attitude, both professional and student interpreters are featured with the addition of attitudinal intensifier. Moreover, professional interpreters added more inferable intensifiers than student interpreters (135 vs 114, see Table 6.1-5). The difference between the two groups is not statistically significant. This might be attributed to the small sample size and short interpreting material. Nevertheless, it is an important issue for further studies to explore whether a correlation exists between interpreters' professional experience and their performance on reinforcing speakers' attitude. The statistics in the present study indicate a possible tendency of professional interpreters to reinforce the inferable attitudinal information through the direct addition of implied intensifiers.

9.1.5   Note-related explicitations in C-E CI

Due to the small number of note-related explicitations in C-E CI, no significant inter-group difference can be derived from the statistical analysis of this research. Yet, two differences are still worth noting:

More explicitations can be related to the symbols noted down by professional interpreters than students, which verifies that more explicitation shifts are formed by professional interpreters in the listening and analysing stage. This corroborates previous findings, which claim that with the increase of expertise, interpreters' deverbalisation ability will improve (Tang 2010a: 41). "Deverbalisation" is the core concept in the Paris school's Interpretive Theory (*theorie du sens*) and the key step in the Triangular Model proposed by Seleskovitch, in which she posited that interpreting is "a triangular process", whose "pinnacle is the construct of sense" (Pöchhacker 2004: 97). To be specific, the three steps in this model are: (1) merging elements of linguistic meaning with extra-linguistic knowledge to obtain sense; (2) deverbalising that sense as it emerges and (3) spontaneously expressing this sense linguistically (Seleskovitch & Lederer 1989/1995), where deverbalisation stands for the process to acquire "sense" from the deep structure of the original message. The finding that more explicitated information has been observed in professional interpreters' notes can be ascribed to their quicker acquiring of "sense" and better deverbalisation skill.

There are more explicitation shifts that are related to the misinterpretation of notes in the student group than in the professional group in C-E CI. This can be attributed to two tendencies shared by student interpreters: on the one hand, they often take down notes using the exact words of the speaker before achieving a correct understanding of the meaning the speaker expresses (see Example 8-4); on the other hand, student interpreters are not as good as professionals at using symbols. They may jot down unfamiliar symbols in a hurry and fail to recall their meanings later (see Example 8-5).

9.2   Interpreting experience and explicitation patterns in E-C CI

As displayed in Table 9-2, in general, professional interpreters made more explicitations than their student counterparts in E-C CI.

Table 9-2 Explicitation patterns of professional and student interpreters in E-C CI

Group	Type	M1	M2	M3	M4	Total
Professional group	EE1	8	2	164	0	174
	EE2	10	32	159	0	201
	EE3	60	14	160	0	234
	EE4	6	8	164	0	178
	IE1	10	1	0	4	15
	IE2	0	3	0	50	53
	IE3	19	4	0	173	196
	TE1	4	0	67	0	71
	TE2	25	0	122	5	152
	TE3	54	0	153	0	207
	Total	**196**	**64**	**989**	**232**	**1481**
Student group	EE1	12	7	119	0	138
	EE2	16	51	115	0	182
	EE3	48	23	86	0	157
	EE4	3	11	142	0	156
	IE1	7	3	0	4	14
	IE2	8	7	0	53	68
	IE3	12	13	0	116	141
	TE1	3	0	41	0	44
	TE2	18	0	110	3	131
	TE3	55	6	108	0	169
	Total	**182**	**121**	**721**	**176**	**1200**

9.2.1   Explicitations for clarifying in E-C CI

Among all the experiential explicitations made for clarifying, the major forms in both groups include the addition of modifiers and circumstantial adjuncts. The Mann-Whitney Test shows significant differences between the two groups in the addition of inferable modifiers ($p = 0.020$, $r = 0.475$, see Table 5.2-2) and circumstantial adjuncts ($p = 0.001$, $r = 0.705$, see Table 5.2-7). Notwithstanding the less-than-significant difference, professional interpreters did make more process additions (72 vs 46, see Table 5.2-3), process substitutions (87 vs 69, see Table 5.2-3) and participant additions (101 vs 86, see Table 5.2-9) in terms of the total number of explicitation instances.

This pattern is quite similar to that found in C-E CI (see Section 9.1.1). As in frame semantics, "a frame is evoked by the text if some linguistic form or pattern is conventionally associated with the frame in question" (Fillmore 1985: 232), the significantly greater number of modifier and circumstantial adjunct additions in the professional group proves professional interpreters adopt a more listener-oriented approach and are more conscientious about delivering the best possible product to their clients (Vik-Tuovinen 2002: 68; Vik-Tuovinen 2006: 305) and have established broader semantic frames which enables them to retrieve background information more efficiently in E-C CI. The non-significant higher frequency of relevant substitutions indicates that the ability and tendency of paraphrasing is not closely related to interpreters' professional experience.

Among all the textual explicitations made for clarifying in both groups, the major manifestations include the addition of conjunctive adjuncts and elliptical components. Similar to the two groups' performance in C-E CI, professional interpreters added significantly more conjunctive adjuncts than student interpreters ($p = 0.048$, $r = 0.403$, see Table 7.2-5), which suggests professional interpreters possess better "associative ability" (see Section 9.1.1) and "use more global plans whereas students tend to favor low-level – microcontextual – plans" (Moser-Mercer 1997: 257). This competency suggests they can better perceive the implied logic in the source speech and tend to enhance the cohesion in their rendition more frequently than student interpreters.

9.2.2   Explicitations for time management in E-C CI

As regards the experiential additions made for time management in E-C CI (see Figure 9-1), the major manifestation in both groups (72% in the professional group and 62% in the student group) is the addition of circumstantial adjunct. Statistics show that there is no significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.281$, $r = 0.220$, see Table 5.2-8). Yet as the 24 subjects all added circumstantial adjuncts for time management, it can be assumed that while lacking information-processing time in E-C CI, professional and student interpreters may both attempt to gain extra time through the addition of circumstantial adjuncts.

The non-significant difference in E-C CI is contrary to the situation in C-E CI, where significant difference has been identified. Taking a close look at the two groups' performance, it can be found out that the difference originates from the reduction of modifier additions in both groups (the student group reduced more) and the increase of circumstantial adjunct additions in the professional group. Among explicitations for time management, the addition of modifiers indicates interpreters' difficulties in dealing with the following participants while the addition of circumstantial adjuncts suggests their difficulties in rendering the following
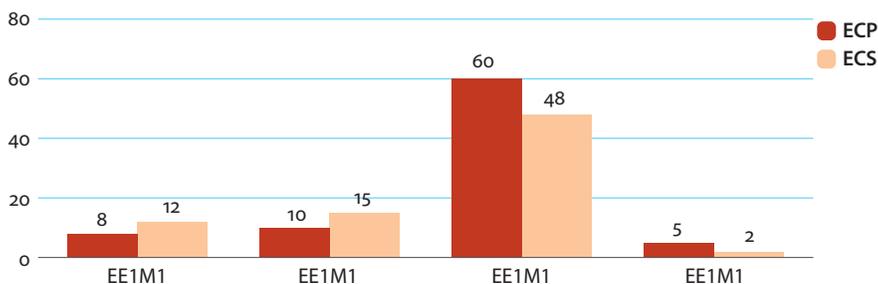
Figure 9-1 Experiential additions for time management of the two groups in E-C CI

processes. If this logic holds, does it show that student interpreters encountered less participant-related problems, whereas professional interpreters encountered more process-related problems in E-C CI than in C-E CI? The answer should be studied from two perspectives: from the changes in explicitations for gap-filling, it can be seen that for both professional and student groups, more process-based explicitations occurred while less participant-based explicitations appeared. It shows that compared with the Chinese original in C-E CI, the English original in E-C CI led to more process-related difficulties and less participant-related ones. This explains the decrease of modifier additions for time management in both groups and the increase of circumstantial adjunct additions in the professional group. Another question that should be raised is why did the student group not increase its relevant circumstantial additions? Were the student interpreters more competent in resolving those process-based difficulties than the professionals? It can be observed that the number of process-based explicitations for gap-filling in the student group has increased to a larger extent than that in the professional group. This suggests that although the student group did not increase its circumstantial adjunct additions as much as the professional group, it lost more process-based information. So for the professional interpreters, while encountering more process-related difficulties in E-C CI, they chose to resolve them with the help of the extra processing time they gained through making explicitations; whereas for the student group, they chose to substitute the original processes they failed to render with other processes inferable from the context. To sum up, although the student group did not make more explicitations for time-management than professionals in E-C CI as they did in C-E CI, they made more explicitations for gap-filling, which reflects that compared with C-E CI, in E-C CI, student interpreters missed more information.

Among all the interpersonal explicitations made for time management, only student interpreters added inferable attitudinal information. Besides, professional interpreters added slightly more inferable intensifiers than student interpreters. These demonstrate a tendency that when lacking information-processing time,

professional interpreters tend to add intensifiers while students tend to add the attitudinal information that the speaker implies.

The major form of textual explicitations made for time management is the addition of conjunctive adjuncts (65% in the professional group and 72% in the student group). Although no significant difference ($p = 0.749$, $r = 0.066$) can be observed in this type of explicitation in the present study, 22 out of 24 interpreters' involvement in making this kind of explicitation can still verify that it is a common practice for professional and student interpreters to add conjunctive adjuncts as a way to earn extra processing time.

9.2.3   Explicitations for gap-filling in E-C CI

The Mann-Whitney Test reveals that student interpreters made significantly more experiential substitutions for gap-filling than professional interpreters ($p = 0.021$, $r = 0.470$, see Table 5.2-12). The major manifestation of explicitation for gap-filling in both groups is through the substitution of the original processes interpreters failed to render with other processes that can be inferred from other information in the context. Despite the lack of significant difference ($p = 0.220$, see Table 5.2-5) in the number of process substitution for gap-filling between the two groups, the effect size measure ($r = 0.468$) confirms that the magnitude of this difference is between medium and big. This validates that the independent variable – interpreter's professional experience – indeed exerts an over-medium effect on the number of process substitutions that interpreters might make for gap-filling in E-C CI. Part of the explanation for the lack of significant difference may lie in the small number of subjects and the short length of the source speech. A further exploration with a larger sample size and longer interpreting material may be able to better distinguish the two groups' performance in this regard. Moreover, student interpreters made more attitude-based explicitations for gap-filling than professional interpreters ($p = 0.032$, $r = 0.438$, see Table 6.2-8), mainly in the forms of adding intensifiers and substituting non-attitudinal expressions with attitudinal ones. The greater number in the student group proves that the student group encountered more information loss than professionals in E-C CI. This coincides with the finding in a previous study (Liu 2001; Liu et al. 2004) where professional interpreters were found to be "better in selecting important ideas from the speech input under conditions where stringent task demands jeopardize completeness and accuracy of the output" (Liu et al. 2004: 19). In other words, student interpreters are not as skilful as professionals in processing information. It is more difficult for them to concentrate on critical information and to minimise the effort dedicated to trivial details. As a result, they tend to miss a greater portion of message.

9.2.4   Explicitations for subjectivity reinforcement in E-C CI

Among all the attitude-based explicitations made for reinforcing the speaker's attitude, the most frequently adopted manifestation is the addition of intensifiers. Professional interpreters made more additions of inferable intensifiers than student interpreters did ($p = 0.046$, $r = 0.408$, see Table 6.2-4). This finding is similar to that found in C-E CI, where the professional group also made more intensifier additions than their student counterparts. Therefore, with this tendency being observed in two interpreting directions, the existence of "**an intensifying tendency**" in interpreters' CI performance between English and Chinese can be confirmed. In other words, with the increase of interpreting experience, interpreters are more inclined to reinforce the speaker's attitude with the direct addition of intensifiers.

9.2.5   Note-related explicitations in E-C CI

The differences between professional and student interpreters in note-related explicitations lie mainly in the number of cases related to the layout of notes and those resulting from the misinterpretation of notes.

Similar to the situation in C-E CI, student interpreters made more explicitations due to their misinterpretation of the notes they took down during E-C CI. As discussed in Section 9.1.5, this can be explained by the following reasons: one is student interpreters' tendency to note down the exact words the speaker says while they fail to understand the meaning; the other is that student interpreters are still in the process of establishing their individual note system. Before building up a fully-fledged system, student interpreters may easily adopt symbols they are not familiar with and misinterpret those symbols while reading notes (see Example 8-11).

The layout of professional interpreters' notes is associated with more explicitations than that of the students' in E-C CI. This echoes what has been found in the previous research on air traffic control (ATC) (Seamster et al. 1993). ATC is a profession similar to interpreting due to the fact that practitioners are dealing with multitasks under heavy time constraints. For instance, controllers have to read and analyse "data from the radar screen, flight progress strips, and communicate with pilots about individual aircraft" so as to avoid potential conflicts (ibid. 269). Seamster et al. validates that professional controllers have mastered "some way to overcome the normal information processing limitations" because information in their mind has been organised and structured (ibid. 279). In other words, professionals enjoy a "more comprehensive and organized view of the evolving situation" (ibid. 278). This feature has also been confirmed by previous researches on simultaneous interpreting. For example, Vik-Tuovinen (2006: 313) found that

less experienced interpreters in her study focused more on the meaning of single words, whereas more experienced interpreters focused more on social aspects and situational factors. Also, Liu found that experienced interpreters can process longer chunks than their less experienced counterparts (Liu 2008: 164) and are better at selecting the more important meaning units over the less important ones (Liu 2001: 93). Their findings suggest that experienced interpreters are better at semantic processing and have an overall perspective on the interpreting situation (Vik-Tuovinen 2006: 308–309). This ability may also equip interpreters with ways to take notes in a more organised and structured way, which results in the higher number of explicitations inferable from the layout of notes (see Example 8-10).

9.3 Interpreting direction and explicitation patterns

Table 9-3 gives the number of the explicitation shifts in C-E CI and E-C CI.

Table 9-3 Explicitation patterns in C-E and E-C CI

Direction	Type	M1	M2	M3	M4	Total
C-E	EE1	121	20	441	0	582
	EE2	7	10	235	0	252
	EE3	71	5	173	0	249
	EE4	3	43	266	0	312
	IE1	33	0	0	7	40
	IE2	5	30	0	316	351
	IE3	20	12	0	271	303
	TE1	13	0	64	0	77
	TE2	26	0	84	18	128
	TE3	216	0	434	0	650
	Total	**515**	**120**	**1697**	**612**	**2944**
E-C	EE1	20	9	283	0	312
	EE2	26	83	374	0	383
	EE3	108	37	246	0	391
	EE4	9	19	306	0	334
	IE1	17	4	0	8	29
	IE2	8	10	0	103	121
	IE3	31	17	0	289	337
	TE1	7	0	108	0	115
	TE2	43	0	230	10	283
	TE3	109	6	261	0	376
	Total	**378**	**185**	**1808**	**410**	**2681**

9.3.1 Interpreting direction and explicitations for clarifying

The majority of experiential explicitations in both interpreting directions are motivated by the intention to clarify (80% of the professional group and 78% of the student group). Significant differences can be observed in many subcategories. Among them, interpreters substituted more modifiers (34 vs 18, $p = 0.040$, $r = 0.419$), processes (192 vs 156, $p = 0.023$, $r = 0.328$, see Table 5.3-6), participants (188 vs 119, $p = 0.020$, $r = 0.337$, see Table 5.3-14) and added more modifiers (407 vs 265, $p = 0.002$, $r = 0.642$) in C-E CI while added more processes (118 vs 43, $p = 0.000$, $r = 0.503$, see Table 5.3-5), circumstantial adjuncts (225 vs 158, $p = 0.011$, $r = 0.367$, see Table 5.3-10) and participants (187 vs 78, $p = 0.000$, $r = 0.580$, see Table 5.3-13) in E-C CI. The general tendency of experiential explicitations for clarifying is that more substitutions tend to occur in C-E CI while more additions tend to occur in E-C CI. It is generally assumed that if interpreters render from A to B language (in this study, it refers to C-E), more difficulties may occur in production while from B to A language (in this study, it refers to E-C), more difficulties may occur in comprehension. In C-E CI, since less comprehension efforts are required according to Gile's Effort Model for CI, interpreters can spare more efforts in other concurrent acts (1995/2009: 175–176). Hence, it seems plausible that they may tend to think about ways to rephrase the original message so as to optimise listeners' comprehension. Whereas in E-C CI, comprehension tends to be relatively more effort-consuming, interpreters need to structure the information based on what they heard in the original while adding more specific details to facilitate listeners' processing.

The majority of textual explicitations in both interpreting directions are also motivated by the intention to clarify (68% in C-E CI and 77% in E-C CI). Significant differences between the two interpreting directions can be observed in the following subcategories:

First of all, with respect to the additions of conjunctive adjunct, more such shifts could be identified in C-E CI ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.520$, see Table 7.3-8). This finding echoes Gumul's previous study (2007) where she identified more connective additions in retour interpreting (from A to B language). Denissenko (1989: 157) claimed that in the interpreting process, comprehension is the most crucial part and "the losses at input cannot be repaired". Therefore, it is reasonable to infer that if the interpreter detects less implied inter-clausal relationships in the input, the relationships they can reflect in the target language rendition would correspondingly be less. That also explains interpreters' higher frequency in adding conjunctive adjuncts in C-E CI.

More additions of elliptical components ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.584$, see Table 7.3-5) and a significant higher frequency of lexicalising proforms have also been found in the professional group in E-C CI ($p = 0.031$, $r = 0.440$, see Table 7.3-3). According to Gile's Effort Model for CI (1995: 179), while "phase one" centres around information

comprehension, which includes "listening and analysis, note-taking, short-term memory operations and coordination", "phase two" focuses on information delivery, which comprises "remembering, note-reading and production". The first two elements in phase two concern information retrieval from working memory and notes, whereas production relates mainly to interpreters' language proficiency. In Chang's study (2005: 123), she found that interpreters "tend to be more likely to omit messages that they had difficulty expressing in their B language". Compared with interpreters' A language, their B language proficiency is in general less satisfactory. Therefore, it is understandable that interpreters tend to add less elliptical information and lexicalise less proforms in their C-E CI (from A to B language).

9.3.2 Interpreting direction and explicitations for time management

Although no significant inter-direction difference between the total number of experiential additions for time management can be identified ($p = 0.193$, $r = 0.300$), interpreters added significantly more processes ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.457$, see Table 5.3-7) and circumstantial adjuncts ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.444$, see Table 5.3-11) in E-C CI for time management. Furthermore, for the professional group, the number of additions of inferable modifiers for time management ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.596$, see Table 5.3-3) in C-E CI is significantly more than that in E-C CI. Explicitations for time management are good indicators to the problems interpreters encountered in the interpreting process. For instance, as mentioned in Section 9.2.1, when modifiers are added, we can assume interpreters have encountered problems in dealing with the ensuing nouns or nominal groups; when more circumstantial adjuncts are added, the difficulties tend to be related to the following processes. Therefore, the above findings are in line with the findings of experiential explicitations for gap-filling (see Section 9.3.3), from which we learn that interpreters encounter more problems in rendering process-based information in E-C CI and more participant-based information in C-E CI.

A significant difference has been observed in the textual explicitations that are made for time management ($p = 0.027$, $r = 0.319$, see Table 7.3-11). To be specific, the inter-direction difference lies mainly in student interpreters' addition of conjunctive adjuncts ($p = 0.003$, $r = 0.601$, see Table 7.3-9). The higher number of additions for time management in C-E CI (515 vs 378) also proves that interpreters may have encountered more difficulties in C-E CI. In addition, the third paragraph of Section 9.3.1 analysed why interpreters can better perceive inter-clausal relationships in C-E CI. Hence, with more inter-clause relationships perceived while listening to A language and more processing time needed while delivering in their B language, it is a natural tendency for interpreters to add more conjunctive adjuncts in C-E CI rather than in E-C CI.

9.3.3   Interpreting direction and explicitations for gap-filling

For the experiential explicitations made for gap-filling, significant differences between the two interpreting directions lie in the substitution of processes ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.579$, see Table 5.3-8) and participants ($p = 0.002$, $r = 0.452$, see Table 5.3-15). To be specific, significantly more process substitutions for gap-filling have been found in E-C CI, while more participant substitutions for the same purpose have been identified in C-E CI.

As regards the process substitution in E-C CI, since interpreters render from their B to A language, they might naturally encounter more difficulties in comprehension than in production process. As Dam (2001: 50) claimed, "the more difficult the source text, the more interpreters tend to deviate from its surface form in their target text production". In other words, the more difficult the original, the more interpreters tend to rephrase the original structures. This constitutes a good explanation for the higher frequency of process-based substitutions in E-C CI.

As shown in Chang's study (2005: 123), language proficiency played a role in interpreters' decision-making process and may "affect their allocation of resources". While producing renditions, interpreters take into account "the linguistic resources available to them" (ibid.) and "interpreting from A to B is […] linguistically – or rhetorically – deficient" (Janis 2002: 55). In C-E CI, being from A to B language, interpreters tend to encounter more difficulties in production and their accessible linguistic resources are more limited. In this sense, they are very likely to omit the information they feel difficult to express in B language. And to compensate those omissions, relevant substitutions should be filled in, which might be the reason for the higher frequency of participant-based substitutions in C-E CI.

A significant difference has been observed in the interpersonal explicitations made for gap-filling ($p = 0.034$, $r = 0.306$, see Table 6.3-12). Among those cases, the major manifestation is adding attitudinal message and substituting non-attitudinal information with attitudinal message. A higher frequency of those shifts can be found in C-E CI ($p = 0.026$, $r = 0.322$, see Table 6.3-6). While interpreters miss some original information, it is an automatic reaction for them to fill in the gap with information they can easily access (for the reason of interpreters' better perception of attitudinal information in C-E CI than in E-C CI, see Section 9.3.4). Moreover, it is not unusual for speakers to foreground their attitude more than once. So in case that non-attitudinal information has been missed, the substitution of it with attitudinal information sounds natural and may better cover interpreters' incompetency. This explains why more information loss has been filled in with the speaker's implied attitude in C-E CI.

9.3.4 Interpreting direction and explicitations for subjectivity reinforcement

The majority of interpersonal explicitations in both interpreting directions are motivated by the intention to reinforce the speaker's attitude (85% in C-E CI and 82% in E-C CI). Significantly more additions ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.528$, see Table 6.3-4) and substitutions ($p = 0.000$, $r = 0.598$, see Table 6.3-5) of attitudinal information can be observed in C-E CI than E-C CI. Weinreich (1953) proposed a distinction between two kinds of bilinguals: one being compound bilinguals and the other being coordinate bilinguals. The former refers to bilinguals who are native speakers of two languages, which they acquire at the same time and with the same approach; the latter refers to bilinguals who can speak another B language with the same proficiency as their A language (equals to their mother tongue). They learn the two languages at different time and in separate environment. Most Chinese people who can speak English fall into the category of coordinate bilinguals. They acquire Chinese as their mother tongue since they were born while they learn English as their second language later at school. So do the 24 subjects in this study, who have Chinese as their A language and English as their B language. For them, the comprehension of A language is usually better than that of their B language. Naturally, it is more difficult for them to perceive and be affected by the speaker's implied attitude while interpreting from B to A language. This suggests that more attitudinal messages are available in their mind while they interpret from Chinese to English. Since more attitude-based information can be perceived by interpreters in C-E CI, it is no wonder they would make a higher number of attitudinal additions and substitutions while interpreting in such direction.

9.3.5 Interpreting direction and note-related explicitations

The major difference in note-related explicitations between C-E CI and E-C CI lies in the number of explicitations that can be ascribed to the explicitated information interpreters noted down. More such shifts have been identified in C-E CI. As Dam (2001: 259) suggests, "when capacity requirements for listening and analysis were low […] the subjects had more processing capacity available for the note-taking component". It is thus plausible that interpreters' better comprehension of their A language has resulted in slightly more explicitated information written down on notes in C-E CI. Moreover, with better comprehension, it is reasonable to expect a quicker response, which provides interpreters with more time and requires less effort to reorganise the information and note down implied information. Conversely, interpreters' lack of familiarity with their B language can adversely affect their comprehension, which may lead to the mechanical recording

of original wordings in their notes. Worse still, the notes jotted down without full understanding of the original meaning may even cause interpreters to make misinterpretation upon reading their notes. This is also a plausible explanation for the slightly higher number of note-related explicitations resulting from misinterpretation of notes in E-C CI.

9.4   Features of explicitation in CI

Among all the explicitation shifts made by both groups in both directions, as shown in Figure 9-2, about 13% explicitation shifts in the professional group and 31% in the student group in C-E CI as well as about 17% explicitation shifts in the professional group and 25% in the student group in E-C CI are made to compensate inadequate interpreting competency (see Section 3.5), which provides empirical evidence for the existence of interpreting-inherent explicitations in the CI between English and Chinese.
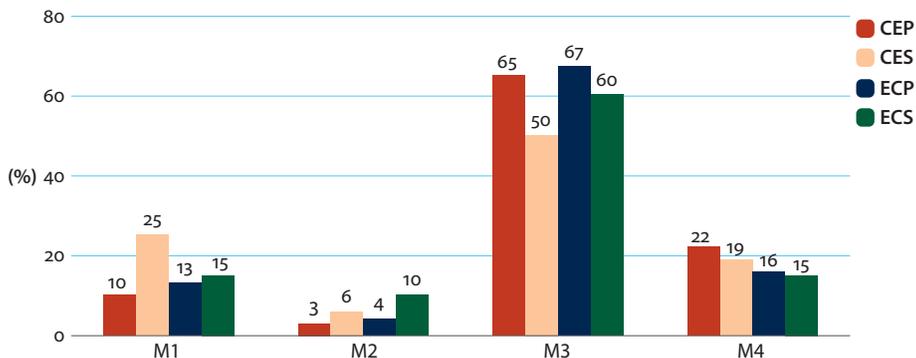
Figure 9-2 Pattern of motivations for explicitation of the two groups in C-E and E-C CI

9.4.1   Features of explicitation in C-E CI

As shown in Figure 9-3, about half of the explicitation shifts in C-E CI (47.5%) are related to the experiential meaning. To make explicit the experiential meaning of the source speech, interpreters mainly resort to the addition of inferable modifiers. About 23.5% of explicitation shifts in C-E CI relate to the appraisal information. Interpreters tend to reinforce the speaker's attitude through the addition of intensifiers and the speaker's implied attitudinal information. About 29% of explicitation shifts in C-E CI deal with the cohesive mechanism of the rendition. Major form of textual explicitation shifts is the addition of conjunctive adjuncts.
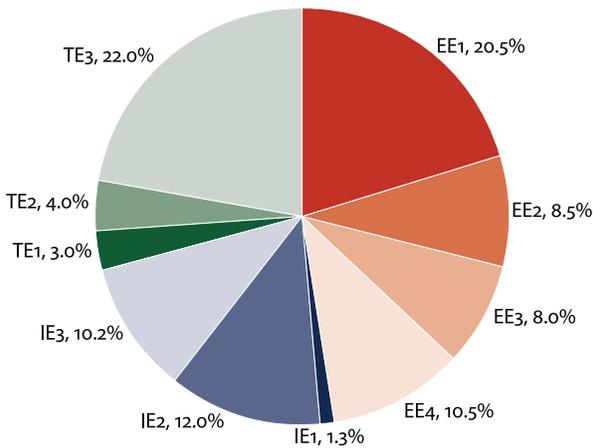
Figure 9-3 Pattern of forms of explicitation in C-E CI

In C-E CI, as shown in Figure 9-4, the majority of explicitations (58%) are made to clarify the original information. Among these cases, the most common manifestations include the addition of modifiers, conjunctive adjuncts and circumstantial adjuncts, as well as the rephrasing of original processes and participants. While lacking information-processing time, interpreters tend to earn extra time through the addition of conjunctive adjuncts, modifiers and circumstantial adjuncts. Information loss occurs often on experiential participants. Interpreters usually make up for this gap by substituting the original participant with another one that is inferable from other information in the context. About 20% explicitations identified in C-E CI are made to reinforce the speaker's attitude. The widely adopted way is through the addition of implied attitudinal information and intensifiers.
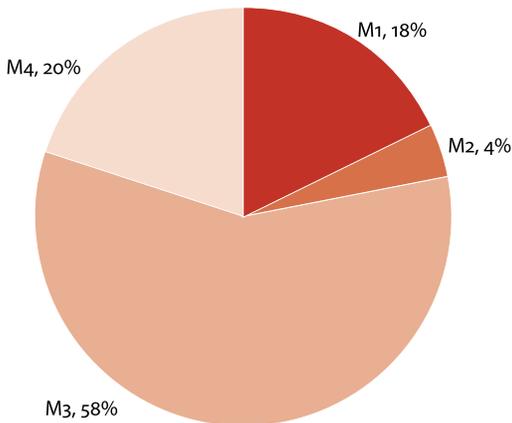
Figure 9-4 Pattern of motivations for explicitation in C-E CI

9.4.2   Features of explicitation in E-C CI

As shown in Figure 9-5, over half of the explicitation shifts in E-C CI (53%) are related to the experiential meaning. To make explicit the experiential meaning of the source speech, interpreters tend to add inferable modifiers and circumstantial adjuncts. About 18% of explicitation shifts in E-C CI relate to the appraisal information. Interpreters tend to reinforce the speaker's attitude mainly through the addition of intensifiers. About 29% of explicitation shifts in E-C CI deal with the cohesive mechanism of the rendition. The major forms of textual explicitation shifts are the supplement of elliptical processes and participants as well as the addition of conjunctive adjuncts.
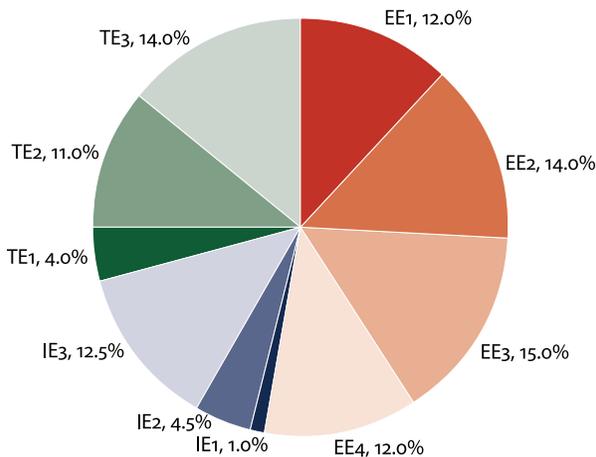
Figure 9-5 Pattern of forms of explicitation in E-C CI
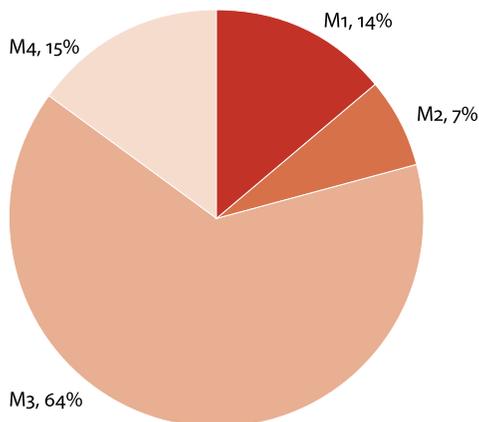
Figure 9-6 Pattern of motivations for explicitation in E-C CI

In E-C CI, as shown in Figure 9-6, 64% of explicitation shifts are made as a strategy to clarify the original message. The most common manifestations include the addition of modifiers, circumstantial adjuncts, elliptical processes and participants as well as conjunctive adjuncts. While lacking information-processing time, interpreters are inclined to earn extra time through the addition of circumstantial adjuncts and conjunctive adjuncts. Information loss occurs often in the experiential process. Interpreters usually make up for this gap by organising a new process that is inferable from other information in the context. Among 15% of the explicitation shifts made to reinforce the speaker's attitude, the most common strategy is the addition of intensifiers.

Conclusion

This chapter first presents a comprehensive summary of the major findings in the preceding chapters on differences between professional and student interpreters' explicitation patterns in C-E CI and E-C CI as well as differences between the patterns in C-E CI and E-C CI. A discussion of implications and limitations of this study follows. Finally, the chapter concludes with suggestions for future studies.

10.1 Major findings in summary

Research question one: What are the characteristics of explicitation in CI?

1. Existence of interpreting-inherent explicitations in E-C and C-E CI: explicitations for time management and gap-filling are attributed to the inherent cognitive difficulties interpreters encountered while working. Altogether 44% of explicitations in C-E CI and 42% in E-C CI are motivated by the above motivations. Note-related explicitations are also CI-specific. There are about 3% of explicitations in both groups that are related to interpreters' notes. Thus, this study has provided empirical evidence to verify the existence of interpreting-inherent explicitations in the CI between English and Chinese.
2. Patterns of forms of explicitation in CI (see Figure 9-3 and 9-5): about half of those explicitations identified are related to the experiential message (47.5% in C-E CI and 53% in E-C CI); about 20% are related to appraisal information (23.5% in C-E CI and 18% in E-C CI) and 30% are cohesion-related (29% in both C-E CI and E-C CI).
3. Patterns of motivations for explicitation in CI (see Figure 9-4 and 9-6): over half of those explicitations identified are made for clarifying (58% in C-E CI and 64% in E-C CI); about 15% is for time management (18% in C-E CI and 14% in E-C CI); about 5% is to compensate information loss (4% in C-E CI and 7% in E-C CI) and about 20% is to reinforce speakers' attitude (20% in C-E CI and 15% in E-C CI).

Research question two: How does interpreting experience affect interpreters' explicitation patterns?

This study finds that the following explicitation-related tendencies can be attributed to interpreters' professional experience:

Tendency of clarifying: clarifying occurs when the additions and substitutions of inferable information are used to optimise listeners' comprehension rather than compensate interpreters' inadequate competency or reinforce speakers' implied attitude. In this study, significantly more explicitations for clarifying can be observed in the professional group (see Section 9.1.1 and 9.2.1), which clearly demonstrates that the more experienced the interpreter, the more listener-oriented s/he is and the more s/he tends to clarify the original information.

Tendency of adding frame-based knowledge: The addition of frame-based knowledge occurs when experiential modifiers, circumstantial adjuncts or modal adjuncts (see Section 3.4.6) are added. In this study, professional interpreters added significantly more inferable modifiers and circumstantial adjuncts than student interpreters (see Section 5.1.1, 5.2.1 and 5.2.3). This shows a tendency that the more experienced the interpreter, the more relevant frames s/he has accumulated and the quicker s/he is able to associate the input information with other information in his/her established frames.

Tendency of cohesion enhancement: Cohesion can be enhanced through the addition of cohesive adjuncts. In this study, statistics show that more additions of conjunctive adjuncts can be observed in the professional group (see Section 7.1.3 and 7.2.3). This reflects that the more experienced the interpreter, the more s/he is able to perceive the inter-clausal relationships and the more s/he tends to add conjunctive adjuncts to reveal those relationships.

Tendency of intensifying: In this study, intensifying phenomena occurs through the addition of attitudinal modifiers or modal adjuncts, as well as the substitution of the original attitudinal modifiers or modal adjuncts with others which can enhance the degree of the speaker's attitude. The present study shows that more additions of intensifiers can be observed in the professional group (see Section 6.1.3 and 6.2.3). This manifests "an intensifying tendency" in interpreters' CI performance, which indicates that the more experienced the interpreter, the more s/he tends to intensify the speaker's appraisal information.

Tendency of deverbalising: Deverbalising usually occurs at interpreters' listening and comprehension stage. Championed by the Paris School, deverbalisation is a process through which interpreters can acquire the "sense" (see Section 9.1.5) of the input information (Pöchhacker 2004: 97). In the present study, this tendency is reflected from the larger amount of explicitated information identified from professional interpreters' notes (see Section 8.1 and 8.2), which indicates the more experienced the interpreter, the quicker s/he can deverbalise the input information.

Tendency of using explicitations as a strategy to compensate inadequate interpreting competency: This tendency is reflected by the higher number of explicitation shifts for time management and gap-filling in the student group (see Section 9.1.2, 9.1.3 and 9.2.3). That is to say, the less experienced the interpreter,

the more s/he tends to adopt explicitation as a way to compensate for his/her unsatisfactory performance.

Similarity in paraphrasing experiential information: Similar to the abovementioned deverbalising, paraphrasing can also show that interpreting is based not on "linguistic conversion procedures (transcoding)" (Pöchhacker 2004: 97). In this study, paraphrasing is reflected mainly from interpreters' interpreting products (final renditions) rather than notes. No quantitative difference can be found in the performance between the two groups in paraphrasing process-based and participant-based information for clarifying, which suggests that professional interpreters did not paraphrase experiential information more often than student interpreters. In other words, interpreters' frequency of paraphrasing experiential information does not correlate closely with their interpreting experience.

Research question three: How does the interpreting direction (between Chinese and English) affect interpreters' explicitation patterns?

Interpreters tend to explicitate the original information through restructuring and paraphrasing in C-E CI, whereas they do so through addition in E-C CI. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a "**Principle of Substitution**" in the CI from A to B language and a "**Principle of Addition**" in the CI from B to A language.

Explicitations for time management and gap-filling are good signals to locate the difficulties interpreters encounter. With more modifier additions and more participant-based substitutions for time management in C-E CI as well as more circumstantial adjunct additions and more process-based substitutions for gap-filling in E-C CI, we can conclude that the difficulties interpreters encounter in the CI from A to B language are mainly **participant-based** information, whereas in the CI from B to A language, the difficulties are mainly **process-based** information.

Significantly more attitude-based additions and substitutions for reinforcing can be observed in C-E CI. So it validates interpreters' **greater involvement of subjectivity** in the CI from A to B language.

In C-E CI, more explicitated information can be reflected by the symbols or layout in interpreters' notes and less misinterpretation of notes occurs than in E-C CI, which verifies the following conclusion that in the CI from A to B language, with better understanding of the original, the notes interpreters write down are more **understandable and explicitation-driven**.

10.2   Implications of the study

Theoretically, the definition, typology and explanatory frameworks of explicitation shifts in CI established by this study can provide a theoretical basis for further studies on explicitation in other language-mediated activities, such as translation and simultaneous interpreting.

Methodologically, as Kalina (2005: 775) emphasised the need to combine different observational techniques in interpreting research, data analysis in this study is based not only on subjects' interpreting products but also on their stimulated retrospective protocols and notes. These multi-channel collected data may support or refute each other and thus enhance the validity of the conclusion.

Empirically, the data collected in this study on explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters and between CI in different interpreting directions may provide empirical support for future studies on "interpretese" (Shlesinger 2008: 237), interpreting directionality and interpreter's expertise;

Pedagogically, by revealing and explaining factors leading to the different explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters, this exploration may shed light on ways to improve the teaching and learning of CI. For instance, considering the "Tendency of cohesion enhancement", which shows that professional interpreters can better perceive the implied inter-clausal relationships, trainers can devise exercises where trainees should work to figure out the implied logical relations between clauses (Sawyer 2004: 136). By referring to the "Tendency of Deverbalising", which reveals that student interpreters tend to take down the exact words of the speaker before they understand the meaning, trainers can remind trainees that they should rely mainly on their memory rather than their notes. As mentioned by Gillies (2005: 7) "if you are thinking too much about how to note something, you will listen less well", so trainees should put priority to the comprehension and analysis process and never take any notes before they understand the original information. Through the comparison of explicitation in E-C and C-E CI, this study also proves that in the CI from A to B language, difficulties tend to be participant-related while in the CI from B to A language, difficulties tend to be process-related. On the basis of this finding, for better performance in the CI from A to B language, trainees may do more terminology exercises, like equivalent finding[42] (Tiselius 2013: 75), whereas for better performance in the CI from B to A language, trainees may do more process-based retelling exercises, like idiomatic gist (Setton & Dawrant 2016: 89–92).

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42. In Tiselius's PhD dissertation, she found that interpreters with short experience tend to encounter problems in finding linguistic equivalents.

10.3   Limitations of the study

There are some limitations that should be noted upon referring to the results of this particular study. Details are as follows:

Sample size: It is always not easy to find sufficient interpreters, especially professional ones, for experimental studies (Tang 2010b: 41). There are only 24 subjects in this study so the performance of each subject could substantially influence the research result. Thus, the findings yielded from this study can only be regarded as tentative conclusions on interpreters' explicitation patterns in CI.

Languages involved: The present study investigates only CI between Chinese and English. The two languages belong to two different language families: English belongs to the Indo-European family, whereas Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan family. This fact makes their pronunciation, spelling and ways of expressing ideas quite different from each other. As a research specific to the Chinese-English language pair, the conclusions may fail to be applied to other language pairs, like the French-English language pair where the two languages belong to the same language family and share a series of common features.

Comparability of two source speeches: It is impossible to find out two exactly comparable source materials with one in Chinese and the other in English. To minimise the differences, two speeches with the same topic "education reform" had been chosen. Yet, there are still other variables which were hard to be controlled, such as differences in voice quality between the two different speakers, different occasions of delivery (one is in the Q&A section of a press conference while the other is in a training course) and different information density. Each of them may affect interpreters' explicitation performance.

Ecological validity: Since it is barely possible to have a group of interpreters interpreting the same text on real-life occasions, a simulated working environment has to be controlled for data collection. Since the data were elicited from an artificially controlled setting, many of the important features characterising real-life interpreting may either be missing or be compromised. For instance, the source speech is pre-recorded. Although the recorded speech was provided with CI when it was delivered, the interpreter's performance might be affected by the inaccessibility of the speakers' gestures and the listeners' responses.

Stimulated retrospection: Stimulated retrospection can help us tap into the subjects' interpreting process. Yet, its reliability and validity still cannot be fully guaranteed (Ericsson & Simon 1980: 216). Moreover, individual differences can also be found in the collected retrospection, where subjects who were either more conscious or more articulate about their thinking processes have contributed with more data than other subjects who tended to make fewer comments during the

retrospective interviews. Another drawback lies in that there are still certain numbers of explicitation shifts that have not been discussed in the retrospection section. This was either due to subjects' overlooking or the researcher's failing to figure out every explicitation shift immediately after interpreting. To make up for the incompleteness through retrospection, an explanatory framework has been established and the motivation for each explicitation shift has been analysed based on not only retrospection but also interpreters' notes and prosodic features.

10.4   Suggestions for further studies

Due to the limited scope of this study, there are still several questions about explicitation in interpreting that have not been addressed. For instance, the issue relates to the effect of explicitation has not been studied. Although interpreters may intend to clarify the original information through explicitation, do the listeners really find it helpful? If yes, to what extent can it facilitate listeners' comprehension? If not, how often do the "unhelpful" explicitations occur? Is there any difference between professional interpreters and student interpreters in this aspect?

It is safe to assume that explicitation appears with distinctive features in different text types. Yet, in this study, the source material touches only upon a lecture and a press conference's Q&A session. Thus, it would be meaningful to explore features of explicitation in other interpreting occasions, such as business negotiation, medical diagnosis or courtroom trials.

Another potentially interesting topic could be a comparative study between different language-mediated communication activities to see whether there are or what are the differences in the forms, motivations and effects of explicitation between translation and CI, between translation and SI, and between CI and SI, etc.

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Information about the subjects

	Age	Status	Length of professional training	Working experience
S1	22	MA student	one semester	0
S2	23	MA student	one semester	0
S3	22	MA student	one semester	0
S4	24	MA student	one semester	0
S5	23	MA student	one semester	0
S6	23	MA student	one semester	0
S7	25	MA student	one semester	0
S8	25	MA student	one semester	0
S9	22	MA student	one semester	0
S10	24	MA student	one semester	0
S11	25	MA student	one semester	0
S12	23	MA student	one semester	0
P1	28	Interpreter trainer	two years	5 years (30–60 days per year)
P2	28	Freelance interpreter	four years	6 years (over 90 days per year)
P3	29	Interpreter trainer	two years	4 years (60–90 days per year)
P4	32	Interpreter trainer	two years	10 years (30–60 days per year)
P5	31	Interpreter trainer	five years	8 years (30–60 days per year)
P6	28	In-house interpreter	two years	3 years (60–90 days per year)
P7	27	In-house interpreter	two years	2 years (over 90 days per year)
P8	27	In-house interpreter	two years	1 year (over 90 days per year)
P9	25	In-house interpreter	two years	1 year (over 90 days per year)
P10	25	In-house interpreter	three years	1 year (over 90 days per year)
P11	27	In-house interpreter	two years	2 years (60–90 days per year)
P12	27	Interpreter trainer	two years	5 years (30–60 days per year)

APPENDIX 2

Briefing handout

C-E: **周济发言概述**
主题： 中国的教育改革
讲者： 时任教育部长周济
听众： 中外记者 (100人左右)
日期： 2009年8月27日
时长： 6分50秒

此篇演讲为前教育部长周济在国新办新闻发布会上接受媒体采访时，针对新中国成立60年来教育改革发展问题作出的阐述。他总结了教育改革所取得的成就及政府实施的各项措施。

Glossary

教师队伍建设
百年大计
绩效工资制度
农村义务教育阶段特设岗位计划

E-C: Summary of Professor H's Speech

Topic: Leading Change in Asia – Challenges for School Leaders
Speaker: Prof. H
Audience: School District Superintend and Elementary School Principals (about 30)
Date: June 20, 2010
Time of Delivery: 7m01s

In this speech, Prof. H addresses to a group of Chinese teachers in an education training program. He talks about the characteristics of both good and bad leaders and resistance caused by changes. He also emphasises the role faculty should play during changes.

Notes on the author

Dr. Fang TANG is an Associate Professor in the School of Interpreting and Translation Studies and research fellow of the Center for Translation Studies, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. She is now the Assistant Dean and Head of the Interpreting Department of the School. Her research interest lies in Interpreting Studies and Corpus-based Translation Studies. She has published nearly 30 articles of interpreting and translation studies in peer-reviewed SSCI/A&HCI journals such as *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* (ITT) and *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology* and CSSCI/Core journals such as *Foreign Language Teaching & Research* (《外语教学与研究》), *Chinese Translators Journal* (《中国翻译》), *Journal of Foreign Languages* (《外国语》), *Foreign Language World* (《外语界》), *Foreign Languages in China* (《中国外语》), *Foreign Languages Research* (《外语研究》), *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages* (《解放军外国语学院学报》) and *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal* (《山东外语教学》).

Name index

Subject index

Explicitation has been studied as a Translation Universal in corpus-based translation studies by several scholars, yet its features in interpreting have only been mildly touched upon. Given the obvious differences between translation and interpreting, it is worthwhile exploring whether explicitation has any distinct features in interpreting.

This study offers a novel view of explicitation in consecutive interpreting (CI) by investigating the effects of interpreters' professional experience and interpreting direction on interpreters' explicitation patterns. It not only validates but also quantifies the differences in explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters as well as between interpreting from A (Chinese) to B (English) language and vice versa. The established theoretical frameworks (including a typology framework and a process-oriented explanatory framework) and the data collected from various channels may provide methodological and empirical support for further studies on explicitation or other shifts occurring in interpreting. The tendencies and principles of explicitation identified by the study may also shed light on the training of CI.

This volume is intended to act as a useful reference for scholars, practitioners, interpreters, graduate and advanced undergraduate students, and anyone who shows interest in explicitation, interpreting expertise, interpreting directionality and interpreting training.

"Written by a rising Chinese young scholar of interpreting studies, this volume provides a systematic and insightful analysis of explicitation in English/ Chinese consecutive interpreting, which is an important addition to Translation Studies scholarship. It will appeal to interpreting and translation scholars, interpreting trainers and research students looking for inspiration in interpreting studies."

Binhua Wang, *University of Leeds*

"Fang Tang's book presents the first comprehensive study on the explicitation patterns between professional and student interpreters in both Chinese-English and English-Chinese consecutive interpreting. Its illuminating findings on explicitation tendencies in these two groups of subjects, inter alia, will be of particular interest and value to interpreting trainers and trainees alike."

Dechao Li, *The Hong Kong Polytechnic University*

John Benjamins Publishing Company