Sight translation – Safe translation?

Exploring meaning-making and interaction from a multimodal perspective

Randi Havnen

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Oslo, April 2021

Randi Havnen

Summary

This thesis consists of three articles and a comprehensive introduction to the work. The overarching aim is to contribute to the understanding of sight translation, i.e. translation from writing into speech, in terms of the theoretical understanding of the method, how meaning-making is influenced by sight translation and how interactional patterns are affected by the act of sight translation. To investigate the practice, I lean on a multimodal understanding of communication. The analyses are rooted in systemic functional linguistics in its extension to other modes, social semiotics and mediated discourse theory.

The data consist of a simulation of an interpreted institutional meeting between a Norwegian-speaking public service representative (PSR) and a Serbian-speaking public service user (PSU). A certified interpreter is translating. The simulation is conducted three times with different PSUs and interpreters. During the meeting, the PSR hands a leaflet to the interpreter, who is asked to sight translate for the PSU. The written text draws on several resources: language, layout, graphics and images. The meeting is video recorded from two angles. In addition to the recordings, the PSR and the interpreters wrote their immediate reflections after the simulations, whilst I interviewed the PSUs in Serbian.

The research questions that I aim to answer in this thesis are as follows:

- *How does multimodality increase our understanding of sight translation, both as a method and as an interactional practice?*
- *How can new knowledge about sight translation inform practice?*

Three articles compose the main body of knowledge, starting with a critical review of research literature that discusses established challenges in sight transition from a multimodal perspective. Basing on the findings, I question whether sight translation is a suitable method for conveying information. I also detect a need for further research on the communicative aspects of sight translation. The second paper analyses the meaning-making process and shifts in meaning potential imposed by translation strategies and modal shifts. These shifts are analysed from a social semiotic and metafunctional perspective (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996, 2001). The third paper discusses the influence of the act of sight translation on the interactional pattern in the communicative event and the effect this has on attention and agency. The analytical framework is that of multimodal (inter)action analysis (Norris, 2004, 2019b).

The textual analysis in Article 2 is based on an information leaflet and the interpreters' renditions of the text, with special attention to the graphic resources in the source text, along with some verbal issues, such as deictic elements and information in the footnote. The findings from this analysis confirm that the change of mode, together with the interpreters' choices, affects meaning-making related to all metafunctions, especially the interpersonal one.

The interactional analysis focuses on the pattern in the sight-translated phase of the meeting in terms of rhythm, measured through the concept of modal density, which indicates attention and agency. The findings are that the act of sight translation (reading aloud) affects the social actors' agency and that the interpreter has received control in the situation. Based on the reflections and interviews, a lack of shared practice related to sight translation emerges, which also distorts the interactional rhythm, as the social actors do not know how to align with one another. I argue that the interpreter should take responsibility for counteracting the other actors' reduced agency, as this is imposed by the translation method.

Altogether, the three articles form the basis for a discussion on which knowledge is needed to understand and conduct sight translation. I argue that interpreters must not only have competence in multimodal analysis and mediation, but they also need to attend to interactional issues, securing agency in sight translation. I then argue how the theoretical perspectives and the analytical frameworks I have used are relevant to interpreting, in general, both regarding understanding meaning-making and understanding interaction.

The thesis is not only a contribution to interpreting studies but also a drip to multimodality studies by investigating the proximal modes of writing and speech. It likewise touches upon literacy studies by accentuating the scarcely documented literacy practice that reading aloud for adults is.

Oppsummering

Denne avhandlingen består av tre artikler og en kappe. Forskningens formål er å bidra til forståelsen av tolking fra skrift til tale (prima vista tolking. Dette gjelder både den teoretiske forståelsen av tolkemetoden, hvordan meningsskaping påvirkes av oversettelsen og hvordan interaksjonsmønstre påvirkes av selve tolkehandlingen. For å undersøke denne praksisen, tar jeg utgangspunkt i et multimodalt syn på kommunikasjon. Analysene er basert på systemisk funksjonell lingvistikk i sin utvidelse til å omfatte andre modaliteter, sosialsemiotikk og mediert diskursanalyse.

Datagrunnlaget er et simulert, institusjonelt møte mellom en norsktalende saksbehandler en serbisktalende bruker. En statsautorisert tolk tolker for dem. Simuleringen ble gjennomført tre ganger med forskjellige brukere og tolker. I løpet av møtet gir saksbehandleren en brosjyre til tolken som tolken skal oversette den for brukeren. Den skriftlige teksten utnytter ulike ressurser: språk, layout, grafikk og illustrasjoner. Møtet ble filmet fra to vinkler. I tillegg til opptakene, skrev saksbehandleren og tolkene sine umiddelbare refleksjoner etter simuleringene og jeg intervjuet brukerne på serbisk.

Prosjektets overordnede problemstillinger er:

- *Hvordan øker multimodalitet vår forståelse av tolking fra skrift til tale både som en tolkemetode og som en samhandlingspraksis?*
- *Hvordan kan ny kunnskap om tolking fra skrift til tale bidra i praksisfeltet?*

Hovedtyngden i avhandlingen utgjøres av de tre artiklene. Den første artikkelen er en kunnskapsoversikt der jeg diskuterer allerede eksisterende kunnskap om tolking fra skrift til tale fra et multimodalt perspektiv. På grunnlag av funnene som presenteres der, stiller jeg spørsmål om tolking fra skrift til tale er en adekvat metode å formidle informasjon på. Jeg dokumenterer også behov for videre forskning på kommunikative aspekter ved tolking fra skrift til tale. med fokus på Den andre artikkelen analyserer meningsskapningsprosessen og endringer i meningsskaping som kommer av oversettelsen og endring av modalitet. Endringene er analysert fra et metafunksjonelt og sosialsemiotisk perspektiv (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996, 2001). Den siste artikkelen diskuterer hvordan selve tolkehandlingen påvirker samhandlingsmønstret i kommunikasjonen og hva slags effekt dette har på oppmerksomhet og handlingsmulighet. Det analytiske rammeverket som benyttes er multimodal (inter)aksjonsanalyse (Norris, 2004, 2019b).

Tekstanalysen i Artikkel 2 er gjort på grunnlag av brosjyren og tolkens gjengivelse av denne med fokus på de grafiske ressursene i kildeteksten, i tillegg til noen verbale ressurser som deiktiske elementer og informasjon i en fotnote. Funnene fra analysen bekrefter at endringen av modalitet, sammen med tolkens gjengivelsesvalg, påvirker meningsskapingen knyttet til alle metafunksjonene, særskilt den mellommenneskelige.

Interaksjonsanalysen i Artikkel 3 fokuserer på mønstret i den fasen av møtet der det tolkes fra skrift til tale. Jeg vurderer rytme ut fra konseptet modal tetthet (modal density) som indikerer oppmerksomhet og handlingsmulighet. Funnene tilsier at selve tolkehandlingen i tolking fra skrift til tale (høytlesing) påvirker aktørenes handlingsrom og at det er tolken som har fått kontrollen i situasjonen. På grunnlag av refleksjonene og intervjuene, viser det seg at deltakerne ikke har felles praksiserfaringer, noe som også forstyrrer samhandlingsrytmen på en slik måte at deltakerne ikke vet hvordan de skal justere seg i forhold til hverandre. Jeg argumenterer for at tolken er den som må ta ansvar for de andre deltakernes reduserte handlingsrom, fordi det er en konsekvens av tolkemetoden.

Til sammen danner de tre artiklene grunnlaget for en diskusjon om hva slags kunnskap som trengs for å forstå og utføre tolking fra skrift til tale. Jeg argumenterer for at tolker ikke bare må ha kompetanse i multimodal analyse og mediering, men at de også må ivareta interaksjonen for å sikre handlingsmulighet. Videre argumenterer jeg for hvordan de teoretiske perspektivene og analytiske verktøyene jeg har brukt er relevante for tolking generelt, både for forståelse av meningsskaping og samhandling.

Avhandlingen er ikke bare et bidrag til tolkeforskningen, men også et lite drypp til multimodalitetsforskningen ved å undersøke de tettliggende modalitetene skrift og tale. I tillegg berører den literacy-feltet ved å fremheve høytlesning for voksne - en nærmest udokumentert literacy-praksis.

Mikkel, 12 (now 14), on sight translation:

'I know what that is, we have done it in English class, then you cannot go word for word, you have to read the whole sentence before you convert it, or translate, because the other language has different logistics'.

Tinka, 21 (now 22), artist in the times of Coronavirus

'I would rather do handstands than work right now, I still get paid for my teaching job'.

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Articles

Article 1: 'Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation – A critical review'

Status: Published in issue 6 of *FITISPos International Journal – Public Service Interpreting and Translation*, May 2019.

DOI: **https://doi.org/10.37536/FITISPos-IJ.2019.6.1.206**

Article 2: 'Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making'

Status: Published in issue 34 of the *Journal of Specialised Translation (JoSTrans)* in July 2020.

URL: **https://www.jostrans.org/issue34/art_havnen.pdf**

Article 3: 'Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction'

Status: Published online in *Perspectives: Studies in Translation Theory and Practice,* March 2021.

DOI: **https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2021.1892785**

1 Introduction

This thesis is an investigation into the multimodal aspects of sight translation. Sight translation is the most frequent term used to describe the translation of a written text into speech. The present study adds to the growing body of multimodal studies in the translation and interpreting field (Boria & Tomalin, 2020; Davitti, 2019; Pérez-González, 2014; Tuominen, Hurtado, & Ketola, 2018). Multimodal studies explore meaning-making; they are a reaction to the prevailing idea that language is the dominant and most important resource in representation and communication (Jewitt, Bezemer, & O'Halloran, 2016). In the past, sight translation has been studied from a linguistic and monologist perspective (Havnen, 2019; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). As is further developed below, the overarching aim of this dissertation is to expand the understanding of sight translation both as an interpreting method and as an interactional practice by applying multimodal theory in the analysis of three simulated interpreter-mediated face-to-face encounters.

This dissertation is article based and consists of an introductory chapter and three articles, in compliance with the requirements for the PhD programme of Educational Science for Teacher Education at Oslo Metropolitan University, Faculty for Teacher Education and International Studies. In the introductory chapter, I outline the thesis and situate the findings as part of translation and interpreting studies. Article 1, 'Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation: A critical review', was published in May 2019. Article 2, 'Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making', was published in July 2020. Article 3, 'Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction', was resubmitted after peer review in December 2020.

In Article 1, I explore the existing literature on sight translation. As it is an under-researched area, most of the published research literature in English constitutes the basis of the analysis. My findings about sight translation are scrutinised from the multimodal perspective of social semiotics (Kress, 2010; Van Leeuwen, 2005), the basic assumption of which is that all communication is multimodal and that modes have different communicative affordances. Speech is usually elusive, whereas writing is more permanent and would be chosen because of such affordance; consequently, a shift of mode affects communication. In the article, I seek to refine the understanding of sight translation as a multimodal practice, both as an interpreting method and as an interactional practice.

I wrote Article 2 based on an experimental design simulating an institutional meeting in which sight translation occurs. The focus is on the interpreter's mediation of typical written resources in the text. I also place the interpreter in the four domains of meaning-making, contributing as a re-producer and a re-distributor (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001). I conducted the analysis based on the metafunctional perspective of language use (Halliday, 1978). In its extension to also incorporate other modes (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996), I document changes in the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of the text. In the written text, these are expressed through content, structural elements, graphic signs and images, whereas in the sight-translated text, these are either not mediated, explicated verbally or through prosody.

In Article 3, I investigate the effect that the act of sight translation has on interaction by applying multimodal (inter)action analysis (Norris, 2004; Norris 2019b). The focus is on the social actors' modal density as an indicator of attention (focus) and agency (the possibility to act) in an ongoing action (Pirini, 2017). Agency is related to the actor who controls the most significant mediational means. Modal density can be understood as the consecration of modes directed towards a foregrounded higher-level action. The analysis is based on data from the same experiment featured in Article 2 and shows that the interpreter has the most agency in the sight-translated phase, whereas the other actors struggle to focus.

I present a more detailed account of the findings of the studies in Chapter 5. In the following, I contextualise the project, present the research questions and outline the thesis.

1.1 Background

This study is rooted in the Norwegian context and is a continuation of investigations into sight translation in public service interpreting at Oslo Metropolitan University. Research fellows from the Department of Public Sector Interpreting initiated a project upon request from the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration, which experienced a huge variation between interpreters in terms of time spent when sight translating written reports (transcripts) after asylum hearings. The researchers in this project discovered that difficulties in sight translation were related to the text itself, content, time, personal and relational factors and interpreters' and transcribers' competence (Felberg, 2015). One isolated factor that deserved further exploration was reading competencies. The researchers proposed a certain decoding speed based on knowledge about reading as a requirement to be able to sight translate. Testing showed that 70% of the participating interpreters did not meet the proposed requirement (Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). Based on the results of this study, both testing and training of reading skills form part of the curriculum of the Sight Translation course at Oslo Metropolitan University (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019). After initially mapping the challenges, the researchers showed interest in interpreters' exploitation of semiotic resources when sight translating in a face-to-face encounter; they explored this through an experimental setting, detecting significant differences in translation strategies (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017). As a follow-up on this and other research projects, a PhD fellowship was announced at the Faculty for Teacher Education and International Studies, with sight translation as one of the possible areas. Relevance for teachers' education was a condition to qualify for the fellowship. At the time, I worked as a schoolteacher, as a part-time lecturer in interpreting training at Oslo Metropolitan University and occasionally as an interpreter, with Norwegian and Serbian as my working languages. A relationship between the two areas became clear to me when I started to think about sight translation as a reading-aloud practice—not only a translation method but also a mediation of written texts into speech. Reading aloud is a practice mostly associated with reading for children and in schools. Reading aloud for adults is hardly problematised in research, and the practices that are documented are mainly from the private sphere (Duncan, 2018; Duncan & Freeman, 2019). Reading aloud for adults can be labelled as a marginal institutional practice. It is mostly practiced in educational settings and courtrooms in monolingual settings and in interpreted discourse.

1.2 Motivation for writing the thesis

I noticed that when reading to pupils, I put a lot of effort into keeping their attention by explicating references and mediating in an engaging way. I began to wonder how interpreters approached such a task; reading aloud in an engaged way is not a naturally given skill. Audiobooks, for example, are usually read aloud by actors or by the writers themselves; hence, it is a professional practice but not a researched practice as far as I have been able to detect. In schools, there are automatic reading programmes to assist children with reading difficulties or sight impairment, and there are CDs accompanying textbooks. According to a former student of mine, these are often read in a monotonous and boring manner, and we have all listened to that boring lecturer or speech in which the paper is read aloud with no regard to the listener. This intrigued me—for commercial purposes, it is evident that the product needs to be read by professionals. Quality of speech is also valued on radio and TV and in theatre productions. By contrast, in nonfiction, putting sound to words seems to be a suitable level of mediation. Through my own work as an interpreter and through colleagues and students, I gained the impression that when requesting and conducting sight translation, the barrier was linked only to language. I also had the experience of a client hanging up on me when I was sight translating a very complicated document over the phone (I had advised against the document being translated in this way). The problem was not that I could not translate but that the listener could not bear to listen, which was understandable.

My initial searches for research at the intersection between writing and speech were scattered across various areas: literacy/oracy, reading/listening, translation/interpreting and writing/speech in linguistics and anthropology; very little focused on the mediation from writing to speech. This is probably due to the tight connection between writing and speech as language, and if seen as separate modes, they are proximal ones; reading aloud is not seen as a transposing of meaning regardless of the different affordances in speech and writing (Tomalin, 2020). I decided to explore this relation further because of the documented challenges related to the sight translation method and the idea that a text would be accessible just by vocalisation.

As I show in Article 1 in this dissertation, which is a literature review, there are many potential obstacles to good-quality sight translation when carried out by both trained and untrained interpreters. Performance depends on thematic background knowledge, the complexity of the text, the interpreter's competence, the possibilities for preparation and time pressure (Havnen, 2019). Interpreters carrying out the act of sight translation are not always trained in the method, and their strategies are not necessarily knowledge based and/or conscious (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Jimenez Ivars, 2008). Traditionally, sight translation is part of conference interpreter training and is regarded as a valuable exercise for increasing interpreting skills and as a support for simultaneous interpreting; it is mostly scrutinised as a process. Sight translation as part of a face-to-face encounter clearly differs from a translation for a distant listener, which is one reason why it must also be studied as an interactional practice and not only as a monologist process. Englund Dimitrova and Tiselius (2016) argue that the presence of interlocutors in interpreted discourse should be included in a process model of dialogue interpreting, as they influence interpreting strategies.

The dominant resource in sight translation is language, so a multimodal approach might seem like an odd choice. However, in this dissertation, I show that approaching the practice from a multimodal perspective provides new insights not only into sight translation and interpreting but also the relation between writing and speech generally—a relation that is not sufficiently clarified in the literature on multimodality (Jewitt et al., 2016). I will return to this in Section 3.4.

The thesis is interdisciplinary, as is common in translation and interpreting studies. This sometimes leads to the eclectic use of theories and overlapping or conflicting terminology; for example, communication and interaction are often used interchangeably to describe the interaction between social actors. Interaction is also used to describe how different modes interplay or work together. I prefer to speak about interaction between social actors, and when talking about multimodal interaction, I use the terms 'working together' or 'interplay'. Hence, I explore both multimodal meaning-making and multimodal interaction. When speaking about modes of interpreting, I use the term 'method', and I use both 'translation' and 'interpreting' to refer to interpreters' translation activities. Sight translation in face-to-face interactions is a complex practice that I try to dismantle in Section 3.1.

Before returning to the core of this thesis, for contextualisation, I first attend to the organisation of interpreter training and governmental measures to develop professional interpreting in Norway. I also include descriptions of some international sight translation practices.

1.3 Interpreting in Norway

Oslo Metropolitan University offers a BA in Interpreting in Public Services. Until 2017, interpreter training at the university level was limited to a 30 ECTS introductory course and a few 15 ECTS courses (with the exception of a BA in two languages, offered once at the University of Oslo from 2003 to 2007). Since 2020, the Western University College of Applied Sciences in Bergen offers a 30 ECTS introductory course on interpreting in public services. Norway has certified interpreters since 1997. There is also a lower qualification programme that includes a bilingual test and a short introductory course in interpreting with a focus on codes of ethics and professionalisation, both of which Oslo Metropolitan University currently offers. There are no Norwegian universities that offer a degree in conference interpreting. Since 2005, there has been a national register of interpreters, which was modernised and relaunched in 2020. The register is related to an ongoing process of implementing a law that regulates who can work as an interpreter by ensuring that public service institutions buy interpreting services that comply with the law. The requested criterion to register is a qualification through one of the above-mentioned programmes. The law proposal, the BA and the new register are all the results of actions taken to increase professionalism in the area of public service interpreting as described in a Norwegian official report (2014). Even though a series of measures has been implemented, in the last two decades, two-thirds of interpreting assignments through service providers were conducted by non-professionals (Integration and Diversity Directorate (IMDi) and Norwegian Federation of Service Industries and Retail Trade (NHO), 2018). In addition, people often use *helpers*, such as family and friends. The law prohibits using children for interpreting. In Norway, all areas of the public sector, such as health care, courtrooms, police, migration and social welfare, are covered by the same measures to strengthen the professionalisation of public service interpreting. However, various public institutions organise interpreting services differently; they may book through agencies or directly with freelancers. Actors who purchase interpreting services directly from the provider tend to get the most highly qualified interpreters (IMDi/NHO, 2018). These actors include some courts and police districts, the Oslo University Hospital and immigration authorities conducting asylum procedures. There has been fragmented training of public service providers on how to work with interpreters (Felberg & Sagli, 2019). Until the BA programme began in 2017, sight translation was not taught systematically; now, it is a 15 ECST course offered in the BA. For details about the course, see Nilsen and Havnen (2019).

Although sight translation is not part of the Norwegian certification exam, it is a frequent method used in assignments in all domains of interpreting, such as courts, hospitals and schools (Felberg, 2015; Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Nilsen & Havnen, 2019; Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). Codes of ethics that are designed for interpreting spoken discourse make up the framework for the authorisation, education and general organisation of interpreting services in the public sector in Norway. A working group representing interpreting trainers, the Ministry of Regional Affairs, the Directorate of Immigration and the Organisation of Norwegian Interpreters drew up the Norwegian Code of Ethics in relation to the certification exam (Phelan, 2019, p. 120). This code of ethics is generally adopted by service providers, educators and interpreters' organisations. It highlights impartiality, accuracy and the interpreter's responsibility to prepare, to be qualified and to take action if interpreting quality is compromised. The code does not mention sight translation. However, it states that the interpreter should not take on tasks other than interpreting and that an interpreter cannot use their title (if certified) to verify written translations. Some interpreters refuse to perform sight translation based on interpreting being a rendering between spoken modes, but most interpreters accept sight translation as part of an assignment. Some interpreters express concern related to the quality of translations and to listeners' perceptions (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019).

1.4 Sight translation around the world

The following examples of sight translation practices around the world are by no means exhaustive; a detailed mapping of practices is beyond the scope of this thesis. I chose the examples to illustrate how practice varies amongst comparable countries. Some practical guidelines have been developed regarding if, when and how to perform sight translation; an example is ‘A practical guide to sight translation of assessments’, which describes the regulation of sight translation of tasks for second language assessment in the US (Stansfield, 2008). ‘Sight translating interview transcripts’ in the *Handbook for Interpreters in Asylum Procedures* (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, as published in Spitz & Hlavac, 2017) and ‘Sight translation and written translations: Guidelines for health care interpreters’ from the National Council of Health Care Interpreters in the USA (National Council on Interpreting in Health Care, 2009) are two more examples. These guidelines are local and related to public service interpreting. These documents treat sight translation as a specialisation; the guidelines point to text difficulties, the need for preparation and the appropriateness of the translation method. Many countries separate court/legal interpreting from public service interpreting. In Belgium, public service interpreters are advised not to sight translate (Määttä, 2015). Legal interpreters are tested in sight translation, but certification in legal interpreting is not a requirement to become a sworn interpreter in police hearings (Defrancq & Verliefde, 2018). In Australia, court interpreters are assessed in sight translation (Paez, 2014), which is also the case in Sweden[1]. In Great Britain, sight translation is part of the public service interpreter accreditation test[2].

1.5 Purpose and aim of the study

My initial research proposal viewed sight translation from a linguistic–cognitive perspective, focusing on the differences in spoken and written language, their different use of cohesive resources and readers’ and listeners’ engagement. I intended to conduct microanalyses of naturally occurring material, and I received permission to access material from police hearings. However, actual collection is a major practical and logistical problem for the police in their everyday work. After reviewing the literature on sight translation, I found that the main body of research was done on linguistic bases and that there was a noticeable research gap related to

[1] Upplägg av tolkprov för speciell kompetens. Retrieved from https://www.kammarkollegiet.se/vara-tjanster/tolk/samtliga-auktorisationer-som-tolk/upplagg-av-tolkprov-for-speciell-kompetens

[2] CIOL qualifications level 6 diploma in public service interpreting (DPSI). Retrieved from https://www.ciol.org.uk/dpsi

the modal shift in the translation process and to the communicative implications of this shift. I decided to follow this path and investigate sight translation from a multimodal perspective. To do so, I designed an experiment that provided data suitable for analysis, with a clear focus on the modal, not the linguistic, aspects.

The explorative nature of this dissertation is manifested in its structure, in which one article emerges from the previous using different but related theories and analytical tools. The project is partly theory driven and does not aim to generalise about practice; rather, it aims to find a new way to understand a practice that is continuously described as under-researched (Čeňková, 2010; Čeňková, 2015; Chen, 2015; Havnen, 2019; Li, 2014; Vargas-Urpi, 2019).

The common thread through the articles is the multimodal perspective on meaning-making and interaction, which is closely connected with interpreting practice and secure communication. As mentioned, the overall aim of the thesis is to expand our understanding of sight translation as a multimodal, interactional practice—a practice that has thus far been studied in a linguistic and monologist manner. Moreover, it is a practice that seems to focus on language as the primary challenge when a written text needs to be translated. I argue that not paying attention to resources other than language when sight translating and ignoring interactional aspects of sight translation might pose a threat to secure communication.

As research on sight translation in face-to-face interaction is limited, this study contributes to the field as fundamental research and with innovative applications of analytical frameworks.

1.5.1 Research questions

The overarching research questions in the thesis are as follows:

- How does multimodality increase our understanding of sight translation, both as a method and as an interactional practice?
- How can new knowledge about sight translation inform practice?

Even if one can define all actions as interactions (Norris, 2004; Norris, 2019b), for analytical purposes, I refer to sight translation as a method when discussing the process from the start text to the target text. I refer to sight translation as an interaction when considering all the interactants in the encounter; hence, I discuss interpreting as both a monologising practice and as interaction (cf. Wadensjö, 2004). These components are inseparable, as it is commonly accepted that the interpreter and the interpretation affect the interaction (Roy, 2000; Wadensjö, 1998). Therefore, the translation process, the translated texts and the interaction are not understood as separate entities, but they can be discussed and investigated separately as text and as interaction.

It seems reasonable to scrutinise sight translation from a multimodal perspective when understanding writing and speech not as language but as separate modes of communication; after all, sight translation is a mediation from writing into speech (Kress, 2010; Kress, 2020). A focus in multimodal theory is to move away from language as the most important means/tool for meaning-making (Jewitt, 2014; Jewitt et al., 2016; Kress, 2010; Kress, 2020; Norris, 2004); however, both in writing and speech, language is usually the dominant meaning-making resource. A basic assumption in multimodality is that meaning-making and communication are never monomodal; this is also the case for written and spoken texts. Scrutinising apparently monomodal practices and proximal modes serves to expand our understanding of such practices. Several multimodal studies have shown that analysing the multimodal interplay in texts and communication gives us more reliable knowledge about meaning-making and interaction. This dissertation aims to answer the research questions through three separate but interconnected analyses, each with more specific research questions than those posed above.

The research question discussed in Article 1, ‘Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation: A critical review’, is about whether sight translating enhances secure communication when considering existing research about the method from a multimodal perspective on communication. As its title indicates, the question posed in the second article, ‘Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making’, refers to how the shift of mode affects meaning-making, both through the interpreter’s mediation of typical written resources and merely because of the change of mode from writing to speech. The third question, discussed in Article 3, ‘Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction’, asks how the act of sight translation affects social actors’ attention and agency.

1.6 Outline of the thesis

In Chapter 2, the background chapter, I define sight interpreting as an interpreting method, focusing on process and product. I then describe sight translation as an interactional practice before contextualising my study in the current interpreting research, prioritising interactional and multimodal studies. In Chapter 3, I explain the multimodality of sight translation and present the theoretical underpinnings connected with the methodological approaches applied in this thesis. I discuss the interrelations between the frameworks and the conceptual differences. In Chapter 4, I elaborate on methodological matters related to each of the analyses resulting in the articles before reflecting on positionality, reliability and ethics. In Chapter 5, I present the findings from the three articles, which constitute the basis of the discussion chapter (Chapter 6). In the discussion, I demonstrate how the multimodal approach expands our understanding of sight translation and how my study might inform interpreting practice. In the conclusion, I highlight this thesis' contribution to sight translation and to multimodal studies. I now move on to the core of this dissertation—sight translation.

2 Sight translation—State of the art

Sight translation, or the translation of written texts into speech, is connected with several practices; it is used for language learning, it is a pedagogical exercise for developing translation and interpreting skills and it is used as a tool for translators of written texts and by interpreters as a method for preparing for assignments. Finally, it is conducted as part of dialogue interpreting assignments in face-to-face meetings (Čeňková, 2015; Chen, 2015; Li, 2014). Sight translation as a method can also be categorised into several subcategories related to factors such as time pressure and possibilities for preparation; these are known to influence the process and are factors that are used when comparing written translation and interpreting. These subcategories are unprepared sight translation, prepared sight translation, consecutive sight translation and consecutive interpreting of text read aloud by another person (Jimenez Ivars, 2008). One can also include sight interpretation (simultaneous interpreting with text) and translation of a co-produced transcript/report (also known as a form of back-translation) (Felberg, 2015; Spitz & Hlavac, 2017). Aside from these variants, the translation might be conducted remotely through phone or video, and sight translation might be recorded (Biela-Wolonciej, 2015). Depending on the situation in which sight translation is done and its purpose, the process and challenges will vary. The above-mentioned factors defining sight translation are often referred to as *context*. Definitions connected with context are almost inexhaustible and might serve to dilute the understanding of the core activity. A multimodal approach includes many resources that are otherwise prescribed to be contextual; it thereby broadens the sources of analysis when interpreting meaning-making, an approach that is more dynamic and flexible. I return to this in the discussion in Chapter 6. My study excludes the sight translation variants that are used as tools for training purposes and language learning, that is, I focus on sight translation as an interactional practice conducted by interpreters in face-to-face encounters.

2.1 Defining sight translation

Sight translation, also known as translating prima vista, is often referred to as a hybrid or an in-between practice that is partly translation and partly interpreting. However, there has been increased attention to such practice as a distinct method, with its unique demands for skills (Agrifoglio, 2004; Havnen, 2019; Jimenez Ivars, 2008; Lee, Vandaele, & Bastin, 2012; Sampaio, 2007; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). In her exploration of written to sign translation, Wurm (2014) points to the risk of categorising translation practices as either translation or interpreting; challenges that are unique to the translation method might be ignored when orienting practice towards prototypical practices (that are rare). For a better description of what sight translation actually is, a proposed name for the method that we use at Oslo Metropolitan University is ‘interpreting from writing to speech’, highlighting the method as intermodal (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019). Despite the attempt to make the modal change salient, writing and speech are still strongly associated with language, as writing and speech are usually treated as one mode—language. I return to this in Section 3. In the following, I describe the translation process before presenting the various circumstances in which sight transition can take place. I conclude by looking at how situatedness affects sight translation.

2.1.1 Sight translation as a process and a product

The most used model in research on sight translation is the effort model, which links to the tightrope hypothesis; it explains that if too many resources are spent on one effort, this will affect other efforts (Gile, 1995; Gile, 2009). The efforts in sight translation are described as

> ‘. . . reading + memory + speech production and coordination’. (Gile, 2009, p. 179)

The efforts described in consecutive interpreting are

> ‘. . . listening + analyses + note taking + short time memory operations + remembering + note reading + speech production and coordination’. (Gile, 2009, pp. 175–176)

The efforts in consecutive interpreting are described in far more detail than the model for sight translation, in which analytical efforts and other cognitively demanding processes are included in reading and coordination. Gile (2009) writes that reading corresponds to listening and analysis efforts in consecutive interpreting. The only reason I can find to explain this is a simplified idea of reading. The effort model of sight translation started out as too basic; in the first model (Gile, 1995), not even memory was included. This reflects the idea at the time about sight translation being a less-demanding process because of continuous access to the text and the self-paced speed. Research was scarce, as the dominant translation and interpreting practices were given more attention. Agrifoglio (2004) compares interpreting methods (sight translation, simultaneous interpreting and consecutive interpreting), concluding that sight translation is by no means less demanding than other methods. In sight translation, an additional effort is related to the transfer from written to spoken language, which influences the production effort. In Gile’s model, the modal aspect (from speech to writing) seems to be part of the production and/or coordination effort, and analysis is included in the reading effort (Gile, 1995; Gile, 2009). This model conceals the complexity of sight translation.

As I argue in my review article (Article 1), effort related to the modal shift should be added as an independent effort in sight translation; there is translation, and there is mediation. This effort makes up a substantial challenge in sight translation, explained as a constant fight against interference (Shreve, Angelone, & Lacruz, 2010) caused by the text being visually present (Agrifoglio, 2004) and/or because of time pressure (Jimenez Ivars, 2008) or poor reading skills (Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). Regardless of the reason, the explanations point to the modal differences: processing written text and transposing it into a spoken text. The conditions under which sight translation is conducted place various demands on the efforts, which, again, will influence the product or performance.

An effort model focusing on processes does not tell us how a sight translation should sound, but interpreting entails a rendition that is both understandable and listenable. In the literature, however, some ideals concerning the target text do emerge, articulated through two frequent references to Martin (1993) and Mikkelson and Willis (1993). They represent different views on how the interpreting should sound. According to the former, it should be a spoken version of the written text, and according to the latter, it should sound as if the text is being read aloud in the target language. The solutions will place different pressures on the production effort and constraints on the choice of acceptable strategies. I discuss this in further detail in Article 1. Here, I propose this brief summary: the sight translation process includes reading a written text, analysing it, remembering the text, restructuring it and rendering it as a spoken text. The cognitive demand is influenced by the text, the interpreter and the situation in which the interpreting takes place, which I attend to in the following.

2.1.2 Variants of sight translation practices

The ideal sight translation would probably be a mediation of a written text created to be read aloud and received by the interpreter to prepare and rehearse—something that would ease the pressure on the various efforts involved. This is, however, seldom the case. The variants of practices are related to the source text and the participants. Texts vary in content, linguistic complexity, length, layout, structure and use of graphics and images. A text can be given to the interpreter before the assignment or on the spot. There is also the case of the transcript/report, which is the result of interpreting an interview and which the interpreter back-translates to the source language. The interviewer's actual time writing means less time for planning language choices influencing readability (Felberg, 2015).

The listener(s) to a sight translation can be remote (through headphones, telephone or on video) or in a face-to-face meeting with two or more participants. The translation can also be prepared for recording, with less time constraints and possibilities to revise it. All these factors influence the sight translation, both the process and the product; hence, talking about sight translation without including the factors that may influence translation strategies is difficult. In his paper entitled 'Sight translation as a topic in interpreting research: progress, problems, and prospects', Li (2014) critiques sight translation studies for poorly defining the method in terms of purpose.

2.1.3 Sight translation as a situated practice

Combining the effort model with the many variants of sight interpreting situations tells us that for the interpreter, the cognitive load will be different in each situation, as the texts vary, the social actors vary, proximity varies, and the medium varies. This also means that there is no single way to understand or conduct sight translation. Each situation must be evaluated according to all the above-mentioned factors; the written and spoken texts do not exist and make meaning independently of their surroundings. Sight translation needs to be treated as situated practice that has unique communicative challenges different from other forms of interpreting: consecutive and simultaneous. The most obvious difference is the reading process, not just cognitively but as an activity that it is difficult to find counterparts to in monolingual situations. Interpreter-users sometimes refer to the practice as reading. Reading aloud is a marginal institutional practice except in education and in courts, whereas sight translation becomes a need whenever the intended reader of a document does not understand the language of the text.

In the following, I place sight translation in the broader domain of translation and interpreting studies. As Article 1 is a literature review, I only briefly present previous research on sight translation. I thereafter summarise recent interactional and multimodal studies of interpreter-mediated face-to-face encounters.

2.2 Research status

Translation and interpreting studies are a broad area that includes literary translation; technical translation; various inter-semiotic practices, such as sign language interpreting, audio-visual translation and audio description; and variants of interpreting in the domains of conferences, courts and other public service sectors. In this thesis, my focus is on the field of spoken language interpreting, but I include some intermodal and interlingual studies that have inspired me in the exploration of sight translation as an intermodal practice. Spoken language interpreting has had a traditional linguistic focus, in which conference interpreting is widely explored with a focus on cognitive processes and skills/competencies. Consecutive interpreting, which is the dominant method in face-to-face encounters in spoken language interpreting, is studied as a discourse with a focus on conversation management, interpreters' professional role and their strategic behaviour (Pöchhacker, 2015). Several times, research on sight translation has been characterised as scarce, especially considering its importance in translation and interpreting education (Li, 2014). The main body of research on sight translation is related to the conference-interpreting domain. There is, however, an increased interest in sight translation in face-to-face encounters. In the next section, I present some main issues from my literature review article (Article 1) and elaborate on the studies that focus on face-to-face encounters. I then discuss a selection of recent multimodal studies on interpreting.

2.2.1 Sight translation studies

In earlier research, there is a clearly linguistic focus dominated by comparisons of source texts and transcribed target texts. The most common reference to differences in speech and writing is the report on the properties of written and spoken language by Chafe and Danielwicz (1987). These linguists recognise the modal differences in speech and writing; whilst they do not use that terminology, they point out the differences connected with the permanency of the medium, the time for production planning and graphic versus aural expression. The differences are regarded as influencing the linguistic and cognitive challenge for interpreters and not discussed as an interactional challenge for the listener. Interpreting studies have been criticised for being too interpreter centred (Krystallidou, 2014). The listener's perspective, however, is represented through the description of demands for performance quality: smooth, fluent and clear production (Havnen, 2019).

Angelelli (1999) links reading competence to sight translation, placing it under a magnifying glass and promoting text analysis as a means to understand the complexity of written texts. The author argues that text analytic skills are crucial to support the rapid understanding of source texts by focusing on coherence, genre and discourse (schemata). Reading competence seems to be a competence that is often taken for granted (Angelelli, 1999). The reading effort in sight translation places a high demand on more than decoding skills; thus, decoding skills must reach an automised level so that the brain can be relieved from the associated efforts. Nilsen and Monsrud (2015) test and analyse reading speed amongst interpreters in Norway. They hypothesise that reading speed can predict problems in sight translation. Akbari (2017) compares professional interpreters and student interpreters and demonstrates the need to advance reading comprehension and reading strategies (all part of reading competence and related to text analysis).

As mentioned, researchers have proposed that memory should not be overly stressed in sight translation; however, this belief has been deconstructed through rendition analysis. One example is that during processing, a deictic reference would sometimes change gender in the target text (Agrifoglio, 2004). One study, also based on Gile's (2009) effort model, tests the hypothesis that short-term memory is required in sight translation. It confirms its necessity and also reveals that the interpreter/translator master's students have little awareness of how crucial short-term memory is (Pedersen & Dam, 2017). The presence of the text might cause the interpreters not to activate memory. Memory is also an effort present in reading, not only in interpreting.

There have been some attempts to connect text difficulties with performance, but because of the lack of input control in many studies (Li, 2014), study limitations often mention challenges in identifying the source of an actual problem. A main finding in analyses related to performance is the challenge for the participants to free themselves from the source text, or, as Agrifoglio (2004) describes it, 'some of them seemed to have difficulties coordinating the silent reading and the oral production efforts' (p. 57). The most recent study on sight translation focuses on the relation between text characteristics, perceptions of text difficulties and task performance in sight translation; it involves interpreting students in Hong Kong (Wu, 2019). Wu concludes that the study lends support to the 'shallow processing hypothesis' in sight translation (p. 215) and that lexical complexity and syntactic complexity may cause inaccuracy and disfluency in performance. It is, as mentioned in my review article, not yet established whether shallow processing is related to participants' reading competencies, to the visual presence of the texts or to time pressure (Havnen, 2019).

We see here that the change of mode is viewed as an effort in coordination between reading and speaking, not an effort in moving from writing to speech. There are various possible problem areas—either coordination between reading and speech or problems related to reading competence, memory effort or to the fight against interference, as Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone (2011) suggest. This again points to the interface between speech and writing; producing fluent texts whilst reading in a different language is a very demanding task with many potential pitfalls and obstacles to creating listener-friendly translations.

An ongoing study on simultaneous interpreting with texts including a listener’s perspective is being conducted by Liuyin Zhao at the University of Vienna. She has presented her preliminary data at the 2019 European Society for Translation Studies´ Congress, indicating that listeners prefer simultaneous interpreting to simultaneous interpreting with text in terms of listenability. She hypothesises that the reading and textual focus influences interpreters´ performances and makes the renditions more *lifeless* and unnatural. This is an area that requires further exploration in terms of cognition and multimodal reception.

2.2.2 Interactional perspectives in sight translation

The first study that I encounter in my review article, which addresses the complexity of sight translation in face-to-face encounters, is the investigation into translation of transcripts after asylum interviews (Felberg, 2015). In this study, the interpreters’ competence was a starting point; however, a range of circumstances was identified by the researcher as affecting sight translation quality that were not related to the interpreters’ skills, such as the interviewer’s writing style and competence, the asylum-seekers’ narrative ability and attentiveness, and the interpreters’ physical and emotional stress at the end of a long day of interviewing. The results were based on a review of written documents related to the asylum procedure, notes from workshops with interpreters and an analysis of audio-recorded interpretations of transcripts.

Felberg and Nilsen (2017) analyse three certified interpreters’ renditions of two different texts in an experimental design. The data include interpreters’ reflections on the feedback from the researchers’ analysis of the interpreters’ exploitation of semiotic resources. The study explores which semiotic resources interpreters use in their renditions of written text, concluding that the interaction is affected by proximity, the handling of the artefact (document) and body postures. One interpreter kept the document in front of her whilst sitting opposite to the listener, whereas another put the document in front of the listener and accompanied the translation by pointing in the text with a pen as the translation proceeded. The interpreters semiotically exploited prosody, gestures and gaze in their renditions. Whilst they used different strategies, these strategies were more or less deliberate. One concern that the interpreters in this study raise in relation to sight translation is the challenge to interpreters’ ethics in terms of responsibility for the listeners' engagement in the situation—a responsibility they feel is placed on the interpreter as soon as they receive a document.

Vargas-Urpi (2019) also describes the handing over of a document as delegating responsibility. Her study on the sight translation of a list of documents needed for school registration shows that some participants went quite far in engaging the listener with the text and in explaining the content. The participants in Felberg and Nilsen's (2017) study were reluctant to do so. Vargas-Urpi's (2019) study was also a simulation; the participants included four cultural mediators and one interpreter. The strategy of taking responsibility for the content led to the exclusion of the PSR, but it strengthened the listeners' interactions with the textual material.

Defrancq and Verliefde (2018) investigate the status of a written text in a police hearing through a case study, testing the hypothesis that drafting the written document is regarded as a turn by the participant. The case is transcribed and analysed for the interactional and linguistic features of turn-taking. They conclude, amongst other things, that the interpreter includes the text that the police wrote as a turn to silence the client (i.e. the interpreter reads directly from the report whilst it is written). The researchers also find that the person functioning as the interpreter upgrades the registers of the client's talk and downgrades the register of the written turn. We know little about the interpreter in this case, but the practice still represents one of the many variants of addressing written texts in public service interpreting. A frequent discussion in the sight translation course at Oslo Metropolitan University is the up- and downgrading of register, especially when the distance between the standard written language and the spoken variant is far.

These few studies concerning sight translation in face-to-face interaction do point to interactional challenges at different levels, both between the primary participants and between the text and the recipient of the text, and they all touch upon the interpreter's responsibility in this complex matter. In the work of Felberg and Nilsen (2017), the multimodal approach reveals that the interpreter uses semiotic resources other than language to indicate important aspects in the text, such as obvious mistakes. However, they restrain themselves from mediating such meaning verbally.

The book chapter 'Sight translation: Best practices in health care training' by me and my supervisor Anne Birgitta Nilsen (2020) features a thorough description of the sight translation course at Oslo Metropolitan University. It argues for a multimodal approach to sight translation. For a part of the book chapter, we interviewed interpreters working in health care about their experiences; they confirmed that sight translation was a frequent task. The texts they encountered included brochures, instructions, informational material, various forms, referrals, reports and evaluations. The text types represented various challenges, both linguistically and related to responsibility, especially when the interpreters were left alone with the text and the listener. They commented on the pressure on professionalism when caught between efficiency demands and quality demands, raising concerns about listeners' perception. Listeners' attention was also mentioned as a challenge in the literature (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Spitz & Hlavac, 2017). Before returning to sight translation, I present some studies that contribute to multimodal studies within interpreting studies.

2.2.3 Interaction and multimodality in interpreting studies

Davitti (2019) sums up some multimodal studies in spoken language interpreting, mentioning Lang (1976, 1978) and Poyatos (1997, 2002a, b and c) as pioneers in exploring gaze, posture, gesture and the interplay of resources in interpreting. She also describes Apfelbaum's (1998) study on the impact of physical position on participants' rhythmic synchronisation of talk. The interactionist turn in research on face-to-face encounters relates back to the seminal works of Wadenesjö (1998), who explores interpreters' interactional role not only as translators but as coordinators of interaction, hence describing interpreters as active participants in the communication process. Another study in the discourse analytic line is from the sign language interpreting field (Roy, 2000). The study explores the interpreter's role in and effects on interaction, with a focus on turn-taking. Both studies highlight the coordinating role the interpreter has in the interaction and recognise the interpreter's impact. In this line of work, several interactional studies have explored the impact of embodiment in professionally interpreted-mediated interaction: analyses of the impact of proximity (Wadensjö, 2001), gaze patterns (Bot, 2005), object manipulation (Davitti & Pasquandrea, 2017), responsive gaze (Vranjes, Brône, & Feyaerts, 2018), interpreters' support of intersubjectivity through embodied means (Paananen & Majlesi, 2018) and the impact of embodiment on instruction and the performance of the instructed actions (Majlesi & Plejert, 2018). The latter study has been published in a journal for health practitioners, and so have studies on interpreters' influence on patient participation (Krystallidou & Pype, 2018). One study examines body-oriented gestures as a practitioner window into interpreted communication (Gerwing & Li, 2019). Krystallidou (2014) uses a pedagogical setting to explore the use of multimodal interactional concepts to analyse patient-centred communication and interpreters' inclusion and exclusion of participants.

Most of these studies are done in a discourse- or conversation-analytic framework. The concept of multimodality in these traditions means considering resources other than language—mainly in addition to language—and usually focusing on one or two resources at a time. The material comprises naturally occurring data, and the analyses are done to determine how embodied resources add to the understanding of the organisation of dialogue-interpreting. Some studies use a combination of methods; for example, Bot (2005) uses a discourse analytic framework and includes interviews. Krystallidou (2014) combines students' discussions of naturally occurring filmed material and their reflections on their classes in a debriefing session. In the following, I go into more detail on studies that are relevant for my research.

2.2.4 The added value of focus on multimodality

Conversation analysts integrate multimodal resources to various degrees, with some not concerning themselves with multimodality at all. However, the framework of conversation analysis is included in Jewitt et al.'s (2016) *Introduction to Multimodality*. When moving from analysing tape recordings to filmed material, one cannot ignore resources other than language. It has been proven that just analysing talk does not give a complete picture of human interaction; actions must also be understood as embodied and situated (Goodwin, 2000). Multimodal studies done on interpreter-mediated interaction anchor their approaches by stating that research on interpreting thus far has a dominant focus on verbal language (Krystallidou, 2017) and that studies are scarce in the field, in general (Vranjes et al., 2018), or are non-existent in a particular area (Majlesi & Plejert, 2018). Another argument for multimodal approaches is that interpreting practice, interpreting studies and interpreter-users are coloured by the idea of the conduit model of interpreting (Krystallidou, 2014; Krystallidou & Pype, 2018). The studies I have selected to present in more detail relate to positioning, gaze and feedback, body-oriented gestures, body orientation and inclusion and participation.

Wadensjö's (2001) study of therapeutic conversations is a discourse-analytic investigation of interpreters' positioning in therapeutic talk; it discusses how the communicative goal—in this case, retrieving memories—might be obstructed or facilitated by an interpreter's position in the room. She points to how positioning the interpreter out of sight influences the participants' sense of being with one another (i.e. sharing a communicative radius). Shared space is a prerequisite for the interpreter's anticipation of turns and for engagement in interactional rhythm.

Vranjes et al. (2018) conducts an eye-tracking study that draws on conversation analysis to test the idea of interpreting as two overlapping dyads with no space for direct grounding between participants. The study reveals that gaze was used as a listener response not only to the speaker when they were the interpreter but also to the primary speaker. Gaze was, for example, used as a feedback signal to the primary speaker when the listener learnt something new through the translation. This is called dual feedback, and it maintains the triadic participation framework.

Gerwing and Li (2019) conduct an interactional analysis of video-recorded doctor–patient consultations rooted in gesture studies from the perspective of the interpreter-user. They argue that even if the interpreter-users did not understand the utterances, the visual of the hand movements could provide some insight into the interpretation process. They suggest that the gestures could be a signal for checking understanding, finding that when a gesture made by a primary participant was not repeated by the interpreter, the speech act was also likely to be absent.

Finally, Krystallidou (2014) connects Goffman's (2005) ratification process and Goodwin's (1981) participation and engagement frameworks in combination with Norris' (2004, 2006) modal density foreground–background continuum. She used these theories and analytical frameworks with students. She first introduced them to the theories mentioned above, and then she had them watch excerpts from authentic consultations, asking them to pay attention to the interpreters' use of gaze and body orientation. The instructor and the students discussed the accomplishment or maintenance of patient-centred communication based on the theories and films. She criticises interpreter training and interpreter research as being too interpreter centred, arguing for the necessity to focus also on the interactional goals of the encounter. She writes that Norris' framework is especially suitable for capturing participants' simultaneous engagement in parallel interactions. I use this framework in Article 3, which I explain in more detail in Chapters 3 and 4. Krystallidou (2017) also conducts a teaching experiment focusing on enhancing interpreters' visual literacy to enhance the understanding of non-verbal clues in the co-construction of meaning. The students reported increased awareness of the impact of their own and others' non-verbal behaviour.

In her methodological exploration into interpreter-mediated interaction, Davitti (2019) confirms that research on spoken language interpreting has traditionally had a verbal focus and that there is a need for a further exploration of multiple interactional resources and multimodal meaning-making resources. The contributions thus far have shown that multimodal analysis can provide useful insights into the complex situated and embodied activity, which is an interpreter-mediated interaction. This complexity, she argues, is often underestimated by interpreters and interpreter-users alike. Through her overview, she also concludes that the field is eclectic in terms of theoretical and methodological approaches, making comparability across findings challenging. She continues the paper by proposing a systematic approach, accepting that research needs to include all semiotic resources that are involved in an action and that talk does not have to be the starting point for analysis, which is in line with the multimodal approach that Jewitt et al. (2016) advocate for and is also supported by Norris (2004, 2019b).

That multimodality is an expanding area for translation and interpreting studies is evidenced by the rise of publications on it, such as a special section in the *Journal of Pragmatics* (2017) entitled 'Participation in interpreter-mediated interaction: Shifting along a multidimensional continuum', a special issue on the methods of the study of multimodality in the translation of *Linguistica Antverpiensia* (2018) and the book *Translation and Multimodality – Beyond Words* (2020). The *Journal of Specialised Translation* already had a special issue on the translation of multimodal texts in 2013. A starting point for the interest in multimodality has been the increase in multimedia and technological developments, which has caused researchers to also investigate practices that are not traditionally considered multimodal. However, communication through multimodal and multi-semiotic resources is not new; what is new is the way we study it and talk about it. Sign language, for example, has longer traditions of attendance to various semiotic resources because of its inherent multimodality; however, it is not necessarily considered a multimodal practice, and it does not include in its analysis a wider repertoire of resources, such as objects and surroundings, in the production of meaning (Kusters, Spotti, Swanwick, & Tapio, 2017). In the theory chapter, I will now outline the multimodal frameworks used in this thesis.

3 Theory

In this section, I present the theoretical perspectives underpinning my analysis. Translation and interpreting studies have moved from being a linguistic discipline to including context as vital to meaning-making via signs and semiotics towards what looks like, if not a turn, then a multimodal path in some areas of translation research (Boria & Tomalin, 2020; Davitti, 2019; Pérez-González, 2014; Tuominen et al., 2018). Multimodality has been a perspective in translation and interpreting studies through various disciplinary approaches. In spoken language interpreting studies, it has mostly been approached through discourse analysis and conversation analysis and, in written translation, as related to multimodal texts (multimedia translation and subtitling) and audio description. The main motivation in multimodal studies is to move research away from looking at language as the overall carrier of meaning by considering all meaning-making resources and how they work together (Jewitt et al., 2016). Conversation analysis, although not explicitly a multimodal framework, has frequently been used in the study of spoken language dialogue interpreting to explore how proximity, gaze, posture and body movement influence an interaction in terms of turn-taking and including and excluding participants, as described in Section 2.2.4. Written translation studies have another take on multimodality. As O'Sullivan (2013) explains, multimedia is rightly the multimodal entering point for translation studies; however, multimodal resources have long been an issue in written texts that have historically (and wrongly) been treated as monomodal. I return to this point in Sections 3.1 and 3.4.1.

Attending to resources other than language is not a new approach, nor was it invented by multimodal theorists (Kaindl, 2020), but there has been a lack of terminology to describe multimodal meaning-making that does not relate to language as the primary resource, such as extra-linguistic, non-verbal, paratextual and body language. The fast-growing body of literature in the area is flooded with overlapping terminology that does not necessarily cover the same concepts, such as mode, sub mode, medium, channel, mean, tool, resource, mediation, translation, transposition, transduction, visual, spatial, aural, acoustic, audial, oral, spoken, speech, writing, print, graphic, verbal, non-verbal, language, linguistic, dialogue, interaction, involvement, participation, engagement, attention, action and function. Mode can, for example, name the sensory channel (processing through the visual mode) or the material (expressed in the visual mode) (Tuominen et al., 2018). There are also modes of communication (written mode, spoken mode) and modes of interpreting (consecutive mode and simultaneous mode).

In my work, there is some inconsistency in the use of terminology rooted in the multi/interdisciplinary nature of the investigation and my developing understanding of the field. For example, I use transduction in Article 1, which I later abandon, and I instead talk about mediation between modes (writing and speech) and translation between languages. The problem of naming the process of moving from one mode to another or others will not be further scrutinised in this thesis. For a thorough discussion, see Kress (2020). In the following, I seek to clarify the concepts I use in my analyses. I first describe the modal complexity in sight translation.

3.1 Multimodality in sight translation

Sight translation has traditionally been described as a method at the intersection of written and spoken discourse and as an in-between or hybrid practice relating the start text to the written discourse and the target text to the spoken discourse. As both writing and speech are dominated by language, the multimodal aspect might not be that obvious. However, disregarding the complexity of proximal modes does not do justice to the intrinsically multimodal practice that is sight translation.

Written texts (i.e. the start text or the source text) often draw on several modal and semiotic resources, especially in institutional settings, in which the documents are seldom written to be read aloud. There are brochures with illustrations and diagrams, documents with tables and letters with genre-specific structures; these documents are usually made to be read and reread. Legal documents in courts are prepared by and for specialists.

Snell-Hornby (2009) attempts to delineate various multimodal aspects of texts via the following categories:

1. *Multimedial* texts (usually called audio-visual in English but not to be confused with 'multimedia' in its loose everyday usage) are conveyed by technical and/or electronic *media* involving both sight and sound (e.g. material for film or television, sub-/surtitling).
2. *Multimodal* texts involve different *modes* of verbal and nonverbal expression, comprising both sight and sound, as in drama and opera.
3. *Multisemiotic* texts use different *graphic sign systems*, verbal and nonverbal (e.g. comics or advertising brochures).
4. *Audiomedial* texts are those written to be spoken (e.g. political speeches).

This differentiation shows that there are properties connected with the medium and use of semiotic resources that define the multimodal aspects of texts. The texts that are traditionally sight translated in conference interpreting would belong to audiomedial texts (4). The texts read in face-to-face interactions are often multisemiotic (3). These are, in turn, mediated and become multimodal (2) texts. This categorisation has not been incorporated into multimodal research. According to Boria and Tomalin (2020), this is because it raises as many questions as it answers. The categories do, however, illustrate that the relation between translation and multimodality is not straightforward. I find Snell-Hornby's (2009) attempt to delineate variants illustrative of the complexity of sight translation, in which the interpreter mediates the written/printed/graphic (multisemiotic) text into a spoken version (multimodal), although it is also possible to think of the written text as multimodal.

Proximity in a face-to-face encounter has the characteristics of a dialogue. In dialogues, *the other* is part of the meaning-making and should be included in the understanding of the translation process (Englund Dimitrova & Tiselius, 2016). Because the listener is present, the interpreter exploits visual resources that are common in dialogues, such as gestures, facial expressions and feedback signals. However, the sight-translated interaction does not completely resemble a dialogue despite the presence of interlocutors; rather, it can be defined as a read-aloud (a monologue) for a listener. In a reader–listener relationship, the listener does not enjoy the same privileges as a listener in a speaker–listener relationship (Scollon, 1998).

Spoken language interpreting dialogues are studied as translation between the same modes of communication—speech to speech—as is interpreting monologues in conference interpreting. Written translations are mainly studied as an intramodal method, if not explicitly multimodal, such as subtitling. Sight translation is the only intermodal and interlingual method that spoken language interpreters use, and it has been suggested to only serve as a tool and not a distinct method (Chen, 2015). However, as described in Section 2.1.2. on sight translation practices, it is frequently practiced in face-to face encounters. As such, it comes across as a complex, multimodal, interactional practice with several interrelated components:

- The multimodal design of the written document (which is more than verbal)
- The multimodal interplay in the spoken text (which is more than speech)
- The interpreter's interaction with the text (reading and speaking)
- The interaction between the interpreted text and the listener (listening to reading aloud)

- The interaction between the social actors (including the interpreter), who are participating in a sight-translated interaction layout, proximity and embodiment

As mentioned in the introduction, I have chosen to take a closer look at the shifts in meaning potential that relate to the change of mode when mediating a written document into a spoken text (Article 2). The act of reading aloud affects the interactional pattern, a theme I follow in Article 3, in which I analyse the interactional impact of sight translation. Article 2 draws on Halliday's (1978) theory of linguistic metafunctions, which Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) also account for in other modes. I apply their theory of the four domains of meaning-making (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001) to illustrate the interpreter's contribution to meaning-making. I chose these approaches because the units of analysis were primarily linked to the textual material. The social semiotic and systemic functionalistic perspectives in multimodality studies often use textual material as data (Jewitt et al., 2016) and are promoted as suitable in translation studies (Tuominen et al., 2018). For my focus on sight translation as an interactional practice, I have chosen Norris' (2004, 2019b) multimodal (inter)actional framework that builds on mediated discourse analysis (MDA). Norris' framework is not frequently used in interpreting studies, but it is described as especially useful for this purpose (Kaindl, 2020, p. 56). I found the theory of mediated actions to be especially applicable for illustrating what is going on in sight translation beyond spoken discourse. The units of analysis in this framework are not considered as additions to language but as interdependent actions. This is useful, considering that what characterises some participants' behaviour in sight-translated interaction is the absence of talk. Furthermore, the mediated actions still contribute to the ongoing interaction.

The modes I scrutinise are closely linked to one another through language; however, there is more to sight translation than interpreting from writing to speech. Looking for the *multimodalness* in the practice, in a similar vein to Marais' (2020) looking for *translationess* in practices that not only involve but are likely to involve translation has proven fruitful for my understanding of sight translation. In the following, I elaborate on the various theoretical underpinnings of my work.

3.2 Multimodal meaning-making

Stepping into the field of multimodality means accepting that language does not create meaning alone, nor does any mode. A clear focus in all approaches in multimodality studies is that the relation and interplay between modes matter and that the use of semiotic resources is culturally and socially shaped, not static and developed through use (Jewitt et al., 2016). This also means that a semiotic resource does not have inherent meaning that one can look up in an inventory, although it develops regularities of use. Modes also shape interaction, with a basic assumption being that the use of a certain mode for the purpose of communication is a choice that is related to the affordances and potential of the particular mode and to the modes available (Kress, 2010). Thus, we chose writing when it seems appropriate, face-to-face dialogues when needed and Zoom in the times of COVID-19. I now turn to the multimodal social semiotic perspectives I applied in Articles 1 and 2 before clarifying the multimodal (inter)actional framework.

3.2.1 The four-strata model

The four-strata model by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001) is meant to demonstrate how meaning is dominantly made through discourse, design, production and distribution. The strata are not hierarchically ordered, nor are they necessarily separate processes in time and space. Discourse represents a socially constructed knowledge of reality. Design can be understood as being between content and expression, realising discourse in a context and adding a new relation; an example would be creating a story by drawing on various resources (discourse, narratives). Production can be done through various media; the story might be printed, recorded or retold. Production also has a distinct semiotic potential. Distribution happens when the text reaches the interpreters (audience); this is also considered semiotic (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001). The authors illustrate the added meaning of distribution using the example of music being distributed in a concert hall versus at home, with the concert being a one-time experience; at home, there are the possibilities of repeating. All these semiotic layers can be a tightly intertwined process or meaning can be added in a more analytically transparent way through actions that are separated in time or space. In translation, for example, the text is *readymade*; however, given that production and distribution are semiotic, this is where the translator adds to meaning-making and uses knowledge about the other layers so as not to stray too far from the meaning potential. Kaindl (2020) places translators' work also in the design stratum. I return to interpreters' semiotic contribution in the discussion in Chapter 6. The actual meaning occurs in the meaning between the text and the perceiver of the text; before this, the meaning is potential.

3.2.2 Social semiotics and metafunctions

Social semiotics focuses on meaning that arises in social interactions. It builds on the core unit—sign—which unites form and meaning, in turn building on the semiotic perspectives of Halliday's (1978) work on written and spoken language (Jewitt, 2014; Jewitt et al., 2016;

Kress, 2010; Kress, 2020). The social semiotic view on meaning-making is distinguished from linguistics and pragmatic approaches to communication and representation through its focus on the social (Kress, 2010). Hence, meaning is not in the text; rather, a text has meaning potential. It is made with the text in dialogue with the social surroundings of the text. The assumption is that meaning arises in social actions and interactions (Kress, 2020). Communicative modes, such as writing and speech, which were Halliday's study focus, fulfil three social functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational has to do with reality—the world as we see it. The interpersonal metafunction expresses social relations in the social interaction. The textual metafunction comprises relations within the text and between the text and the environment. If a mode does not satisfy these functions, it cannot fully function as a means for human communication. Various modes are explored in relation to the metafunctional framework, pioneered in the book *Reading Images* (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996). Other modes have also been explored, such as sound (Van Leeuwen, 1999), typography (Serafini & Clausen, 2012) and touch (Jewitt, 2018). Modes are not clear-cut or easy to detangle, and as all communication is multimodal, analysing how the various modes and semiotic resources contribute to meaning together is necessary through what Van Leeuwen (2005) describes as multimodal cohesion: rhythm, composition, information linking and dialogue.

3.2.3 Mode and semiotic resources

Kress (2010) explains mode as a set of semiotic resources with a regularity of use that fulfils communicative purposes in a given community. A mode needs to have the potential to fulfil all the metafunctions described above. The definition, then, opens up to include various modes that are shifting, depending on their uses and function. It is therefore theoretical, with the delineation of a mode differing across cultures.

The relation between modes and semiotic resources can be confusing, such as when Clausen and Serafini (2012) write that typography is a mode of communication that serves as a semiotic resource in picture books. A text becomes multimodal when a mode is used as a semiotic resource together with other modes. Kress (2010) emphasises that modes are shaped by their former use both socially and culturally, explaining that the mode gains its meaning potential through the semiotic resources that are chosen from amongst the available modes in a given community.

A mode can start like this: there is a means, let us say a sound. The sound can be a noise, or it can be used to create rhythm. When exploited in this way, sound becomes a semiotic resource. When people start to exploit the sound communicatively and when the regularity of use fulfils the metafunctions, it becomes a mode. This is, however, not necessarily a linear process. The mode might occur together with other resources and have a semiotic potential in a new mode, such as music. Separating what counts as a semiotic resource and what counts as a mode depends on the material and the level of analysis. Language is such a unit; in social interaction, language cannot exist without sounds, graphics or signs (gestures, touch). In the literature on multimodality, language is often described as a mode with no further questioning about materiality or durability. Moreover, it is more likely that it plays a semiotic role in writing, speech or signing than being a mode on its own. I problematise this in Section 3.4. In Section 3.3, I first outline some basic ideas of MDA that underpin the multimodal (inter)actional analytical framework before returning to meaning-making in the methods chapter (Chapter 4).

3.3 Multimodal (inter)action analysis

In multimodal mediation and social action, primacy is given to perception and embodiment when studying human interaction, taking as a starting point the fact that reality is created through perception, and perception is embodied (smell, sight, hearing, touch) (Norris, 2019b). Embodiment and perception are inseparable. Mediated discourse theory is built on the principles of social action; humans always perform social actions that embed communication (interaction) and history (practices and discourse) (Scollon, 1998).

MDA focuses on social action, and it is described as inherently interdisciplinary:

> From a theoretical point of view, MDA is wide-ranging and deeply interdisciplinary in orientation, with roots in at least the following frameworks: interactional sociolinguistics, conversation analysis, anthropological linguistics or the ethnography of communication, critical discourse analysis, practice theory, mediated action and activity theory, social semiotics, multimodal discourse analysis, the New Literacy Studies and, more recently, cultural geography (Jensen, 2007). MDA does not hesitate to combine frameworks (even if some of them are not always considered compatible elsewhere) for reasons we hinted at above: if social issues are complex, it does not seem viable to approach them by limiting oneself to one particular angle. (Scollon & de Saint-Georges, 2013, p. 69)

Norris (2004, 2019b) roots her framework for multimodal (inter)actional analysis in MDA, taking social action as the starting point for studying human interaction. From this perspective, all action is mediated, multimodal and embodied. Norris does not work in opposition to either the social semiotic framework or the conversational analytical framework. The main difference between conversation analysis and multimodal (inter)action analysis is the focus on simultaneous actions and co-production, not on sequential co-construction (Pirini, 2017). In relation to mode, Norris (2004, p. 11) writes, '. . . a mode of communication is a semiotic system with rules and regularities attached to it', referring to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001). However, Norris does not include the metafunctional perspective on mode.

The multimodal (inter)action analysis framework was specifically developed to analyse multimodal action and interaction. Taking the mediated action as the unit of analysis means integrating various components that were formerly looked at separately, such as 'verbal, non-verbal, environmental, cognitive and psychological' (Norris, 2019b, p. 3).

3.3.1 Mode and mediated actions

Norris (2013) highlights that a mode is a strictly theoretical construct and does not exist in the world. The delineation of modes differs, and they are never singular. Norris explains mode as a system of mediated actions that come about through lower-level actions that social actors take in the world. Social actors act through mediational means or objects (cultural tools) (Norris, 2013, p. 158). Kress (2010) uses *regularities* in his description of mode, focusing on meaning potential and function, whereas (inter)actional analysis focuses on action. The main difference between the approaches, as I have understood it, is the focus on the communicative potential in texts (in a broad sense) in multimodal discourse analysis and the focus on actions in human interaction in mediated discourse analysis. Social actors and actions are central, and social action is instantiated through interaction. This does not mean that social semiotics is not about human interaction; the interpersonal metafunction in systemic functionalism is related to interaction, the interpretation of text is regarded as semiotic and the focus on *social* implies interaction. The two approaches provide explanations with different foci and units of analysis.

In multimodal (inter)actional analysis, the lower-level mediated action is the smallest unit of analysis (Norris, 2004; Norris, 2019b). In the social semiotic approach, mediational means that are utilised in lower-level actions correspond to semiotic resources, such as gaze and gesture as well as artefacts. Mediational means/cultural tools are anything used to perform an action, so the action is a mediated action. The smallest pragmatic meaning unit of a mode is the lower-level mediated action, such as the language *in use*.

Lower-level actions are constituted of and constitute higher-level actions, such as meeting friends, cooking, etc. Social actors can be engaged in several higher-level actions simultaneously with different levels of attention. A frozen action is a result of chains of lower-level actions and higher-level ones materialising in an object, such as furniture, documents and a house. Lower-level mediated actions are semiotic, but their affordances and constraints are tightly connected with use, as they are used in a specific interaction (Jewitt et al., 2016). The focus on chains of lower-level actions includes what has been understood as context in other approaches to interactional analysis (Norris, 2004, p. 149).

The body is central in MDA; humans cannot separate from the body. Even when using modern technology, we still use our bodily resources to interact; keyboards must be touched, texts must be seen or heard, and pictures must be chosen. Both our perceptions and actions are mediated through the body. Whatever a social actor uses to mediate their actions qualifies as mediational means or cultural tools. Although embodiment is central in MDA, some modes are described as disembodied, such as the layout of a room and its furniture. However, there are no true distinctions between embodiment and disembodiment:

> Communicative modes are heuristic and explanatory units that allow the analyst to dissect complex interactions and enable the analysis of small parts, before analysing how these parts work together to construct the complexity of face-to-face interactions. (Norris, 2004, p. 51)

In addition to the centrality of mediation and embodiment, all actions are seen as basically social; humans relate to humans, including when they are alone, just as loneliness is defined by the absence of human interaction. Even if we socially shape modes and actions in interaction, we do not wake up every day taking part in actions that are produced for the first time; actions are related to history, which embeds practices and discourse.

3.3.2 Actions with history

Practices are defined as actions with history, that is, history (by repetition) makes the action recognisable, and interactants know what to do when they become involved in the action (Norris, 2019b). We know what to do if somebody throws a ball to us, and we know how to walk down a staircase and open a door. This would, as I see it, be in line with the idea of modes and semiotic resources being culturally and socially shaped through use, which also applies to genre. Genres are structural templates for communicative actions (Van Leeuwen, 2005, p. 278). The concept of genre is mostly related to textual analytical frameworks, whereas in multimodal (inter)actional analysis, the terminology used is actions with history, which constitute practices. I find the construct of *action with history* to be flexible and less static than the concept of genre because it illuminates the social actors' experiential backgrounds rather than their cognitive knowledge. Shared practices enable communication, whereas a lack of shared practices distorts interactional rhythm.

3.3.3 Rhythm

Multimodal ensemble, orchestration, composition, semiotic interplay and actions in concert with one other—these are all descriptions from the multimodal literature of how semiotic resources or mediated actions work together and create modal complexions. They are all terms borrowed from the field of music and hint towards rhythm, as does the frequently used metaphor for interpreted interaction: *dance for three* (*pas de trois*) (Wadensjö, 1998).

The exploration of rhythm in human interaction and its connection with biology can be traced to Gregory Bateson's longstanding interest in locating similarities within mammalian communication (Scollon & Scollon, 2009). Van Leeuwen (2005) describes rhythm as a major source of cohesion in multimodal texts and communicative events not only as a structuring device but also as a means of getting the message across. Cohesion relates to the textual metafunction in language use. Van Leeuwen supports the idea that rhythm is biologically given and is the life blood in semiotics, as is balance in layout for visual modes. Rhythm is a cohesive resource that we, as humans, adjust to and orient towards; we tend to create rhythm internally even though it does not have a physical basis (Van Leeuwen, 2005). An important strand of research on human communication is how we organise talk and communicative acts. Patterns are set through breath units and phrases; the rhythm can also be seen in prosody, gestures and the use of gazes.

Norris (2011) focuses on rhythm in actions, showing that rhythm crosses modal boundaries. She also extends the notion of rhythm to practices, arguing that practices are rhythmical because one knows the step needed to align what is going on; we learn how to adjust (or oppose) because actions have a history via repetition. My work shows that the lack of a shared practice—rhythm at the level of practice—affects attention and agency. Everything is not rhythmical; however, we do relate to rhythm when it is not there. Because of its absence, we cannot be indifferent to it in the same vein as everything is social, even the a-social (Norris, 2019b, p. 33).

A focus on actions, interactions and multimodality does not mean that language is not an important and salient resource in communication and translation.

3.4 Language and mode

Multimodal theory makes the point of including resources other than language in analysis. Language is still central in many forms of communication in both our private and institutional lives. When language, mode and semiotic resources are explained in *Introducing Multimodality* (Jewitt et al., 2016), 'language' is defined as speech and writing, and 'mode' and 'semiotic resource' are sets of resources that are socially and culturally shaped. The relation between writing and speech, however, is not clear-cut:

> Indeed, some multimodal scholars have proposed to treat speech and writing as separate modes, for they constitute sets of resources that are only partially overlapping. (Others conceptualize language differently. For instance, in systemic functional linguistics, language is conceptualized as a semiotic resource, and spoken and written language is seen as variations in language use.) It is important to reiterate here that we use this terminology as means of synthesizing different approaches to multimodality; it has not (yet) been universally adopted! (Jewitt et al., 2016, p. 15)

Kress (2010, 2020) is the multimodal theorist who has most explicitly pronounced a position on the necessity to treat writing and speech as separate modes. This is because of the very different affordances they have and the differences in articulation they entail—visual/spatial and aural/temporal. In translation studies, language is seen as one mode, and differences in writing and speech are attributed to the medium and the time for production planning. Tomalin (2020) introduces the term 'proximal modes' for writing and speech, arguing that the correspondence between spoken and written language is high, at least in languages such as English, French, Italian and German. He also points out that mediating from writing to speech is not treated as a modal translation if another language is not involved (Tomalin, 2020, p. 139). Even if this is the case, it is not an argument to ignore their modal differences and variations in the use of writing and speech. A particular problem in translation from writing to speech occurs in languages in which the connection between writing and speech is far more complicated, which is the case for Arabic; some would argue that this also applies to English and its variants across the world.

Combining the very old term ‘language’ with the very new term ‘multimodal’ is, as Scollon and Scollon (2009) describe it, ‘Combining new and fresh with ancient richly developed complex perspectives’ (p. 171). One tradition in language studies is the so-called great divide between writing and speech, and the other is the tradition of studying nonverbal communication, mostly in relation to speech. This has masked non-verbal meaning-making in other forms of communication, such as typography, colour and design. As already mentioned, sight translation finds itself between literacy and oracy, between written and spoken discourse, between writing and speech, together with other modes and semiotic resources. Kress (2020) proposes that language can easily be substituted by semiotic resources in the explanation of metafunctions, arguing that exploring communication in this way ‘provides a workable frame for a social semiotic multimodal theory of meaning and meaning-making’ (p. 28), which would mean that language would be a semiotic resource in writing and speech.

3.4.1 Writing

As mentioned, in the examination of the multimodal complexity of sight translation, written texts are not monomodal constructs, nor is writing a static code. Writing is constantly cultivated, and it develops continuously. Historically, writing did not have all the graphic resources that it has today, and graphic signs carry many meanings (just take a look at the semiotic use of parentheses in the quotation above). A common belief used to be that writing could represent the thought or the spoken language just by writing the words down; in this way, the written text became the truth. There is, however, enough evidence that elucidating the meaning of written texts is far from being unambiguous; one need only look at the interpretation of holy texts (O’Sullivan, 2013).

Literary writers have developed many ways of signalling speech in their texts; in theatre plays, for instance, they use direct descriptions. In more general texts, they do so through graphic resources, such as exclamation points (a highly debated phenomenon) and question marks. The interrobang (‽) that Martin K. Speckte proposed in 1962 did not become a success[3]. The meaning potential of graphic resources can be illustrated through the need to tell who emphasised a particular portion of a quotation. The transcription of speech has evolved depending on its purpose; it poses an actual problem in legal procedures when trying to establish what was *actually* said (if we can ever know) when using transcribed telephone surveillance as evidence in court (Chakhachiro, 2016). There are so many meaning-making

[3] Interrobang. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interrobang

resources in speech that thoroughly writing and reading a written transcription require special competence. The mediation from speech to writing is explored more than writing to speech, as transcription has a vast history; it is also explored through the field of subtitling.

As literacy practices and written language have developed to adjust to the needs of distinctively written genres, such as law texts or academic writing, writing has developed beyond just being understood as a representation of speech. In this digital era, there is a vast amount of communication that relies on written language, together with other modes, such as still and moving images, sound and various degrees of interaction. Writing and speech differ substantially in terms of planning time and sturdiness, depending on materiality. Just as a written chat history might disappear, speech can be recorded. In the case of sight translation in public service encounters, the most common source for translation is a written, printed document. This might exploit semiotic resources, such as layout, structure, graphics, typography, font, colour, paper and images, in addition to genre and discourse.

Linell (2005) problematises the written language bias in language and communication studies and practices, in which analyses are done on units that are detached from context and viewed from a normative and instrumentalist perspective. For a long time, written source material was the only source for linguistic analysis, but technical and digital development changed that, and continuous technical development will give us new challenges and answers.

In the review article (Article 1), I argued that the very request for a sight translation contains an inherent attitude towards language, as if writing and speech create meaning in the same way. I do recognise their similarities and that speech and writing might serve the same purposes, such as being entertained by reading a book or by listening to an audiobook. The experience, however, will still be different, and as we shall see, the interaction with speech or writing demands different focuses; hence, treating writing and speech as a singular mode conceals its interactional differences (Kress, 2010; Kress, 2020).

3.4.2 Speech

In contrast to writing, which is cultivated, speech is regarded as natural, as is sign language (Wurm, 2018). The resources that are used together with verbal language in speech—when it is mediated through a channel, such as a telephone or on the radio—are sound, pauses and prosody (the telephone is dialogical, whereas the radio is not, influencing the resources that are exploited). More commonly in dialogues, the speaker and the listener are visually present, which opens up a range of different resources to rely on in addition to the above-mentioned:

gestures, facial expressions, gaze, body movement, posture and, depending on proximity, touch and interaction with others. Even when language is the dominant resource in a speech stretch, the other resources can function in a way that gives the verbal expression a totally different meaning.

A reader who interacts with a written text usually has control of the reading process (Kress, 2010). When this text becomes speech in the form of a dialogue, the interaction with the text, from a multimodal perspective, becomes slightly more complicated, partly because of the elusiveness of speech and sign (Kress, 2010; Wurm, 2018). Cognition might be equally complex in both reading and listening, depending on various factors related to, amongst other things, engagement (Rubin, Hafer, & Arata, 2000). I will not enter the cognitive sphere of multimodal reception. Rather, I move towards a literacy practice in which writing is mediated into speech: reading aloud.

3.4.3 Reading aloud

Reading aloud means mediating a written text into speech. It is not a natural thing to do; it must be cultivated and is hence categorised as a literacy practice (Duncan, 2018). Duncan maps reading aloud practices in Britain, finding that many respondents refer to reading aloud almost every day from e-mails, newspapers, novels and so on. The practices are mostly located in the private sphere but can also be found in institutional practices related to religion, education and workplaces. Research on adults' reading aloud practices is scarce. Surprisingly, I have been unable to locate research literature from an area where reading aloud is routine, namely the courtroom, where indictments, verdicts, transcripts, written evidence and so on are read aloud based on the principle of orality. These readings are accompanied by the participants' access to the written texts. There are studies of communication and participating in courts, but to my knowledge, there is no research with a separate focus on the practice of reading aloud in court. Some papers on sight translation specifically mention documents from courts. I discuss this briefly in the review article, in which I point to the inherent contradiction in staying very close to the source text for the sake of accuracy when this strategy is prone to interference and disfluency that might disrupt accuracy. The linguistic density of court documents is challenging for real-time translation, especially under time pressure.

In the literature on sight translation, only one study mentions reading aloud as an action that takes more effort than silent reading (Shreve et al., 2010). As mentioned, reading aloud is not a naturally given competence, not even when writers read aloud from their own books:

> Authors’ readings in Norway rarely have much whiz and bang about them. Because so many writers are rubbish at reading aloud, this ritual is quite rightly dreaded by organisers of literary events; instead, they like to suggest something they call “renderings from the book”. (Torgrim Eggen, 2019, p. 12 in his biography about the writer Axel Jensen[4]. Quote translated by Erik Skuggevik.)

3.5 Choosing an analytical framework

The theoretical approaches mentioned above are anchored in a view of communication as interaction and meaning-making as semiotic—socially and culturally shaped. The differences are in the focus of analysis and in the data that have traditionally been scrutinised. The systemic functionalistic approach is concerned with meaning-making and typically studies ‘texts that are readily available’ (Jewitt et al., 2016, p. 8), whereas a research question in social semiotics might be, ‘What was gained and lost in the process of “translating” from one mode to another?’ (p. 10). Conversation analysis, which I have not elaborated upon but is a commonly used framework in interpreting studies, typically asks, ‘How do they jointly “build” the activity up?’ This stresses that the evidence must be found in the recording(s) (p. 11). Mediated discourse analysis focuses on social action through perception and embodiment, as social actors act and interact in the environment, and is usually combined with ethnographic methods.

I chose the metafunctional approach for the textual analysis, as it relates to the systemic functional and social semiotic approaches. Speech and writing provide a means for realising meaning in each of the functions (Kress, 2020, p. 30). I was intrigued by the concepts of higher-level and lower-level actions (Norris, 2004), and I decided to try applying this framework to the last part of my study. Multimodal (inter)action analysis enables me to use more than video-recorded material to explain what is going on—in my case, the participants’ reflections on the interaction, as well as me being an insider in the interpreting field, which gives an ethnographic touch to it.

In Chapter 4, I demonstrate how I have approached sight translation from different perspectives in a more detailed and thorough manner than what my articles permitted.

[4] AXEL Fra smokken til Ovnen – storyen om Axel Jensen

4 Methodology

In this methodology section, I elaborate on the different steps I have taken to conduct my study, beginning with the literature review. The review isolated some interesting questions, which I aimed to answer through two separate analyses of a carefully planned roleplay simulating an institutional dialogue that included sight translation. One analysis has a textual focus, and the other has an interactional focus; both analyses apply a multimodal framework. I also consider my positionality and reflect on ethical questions related to the research.

4.1 Reviewing the literature

Reviewing the literature is one of the first tasks a PhD student must attend to. It is a job that has already commenced in the project description phase. The greatest challenge in this stage is to delineate the relevant literature, especially when undertaking an interdisciplinary study. The process of exploring sight translation has taken me on many inspirational side-tracks, such as other intermodal and/or interlingual practices (e.g. translation from writing to sign; Wurm, 2018), speech to writing (e.g. translation of telephone surveillance; Chakhachiro, 2016), subtitling (Chen & Wang, 2016), deafblind interpreting (Raanes & Berge, 2017) and audio description of film and theatre (Reviers, 2018; Roofthoot, Ramael, & Van den Dries, 2018).

Spoken language interpreting studies have included multimodality as a focus in addition to language. However, writing and speech have not received that much attention as separate modes. There is a great deal of literature related to writing and speech but not much on the mediation of writing into speech, which was my initial search area. In the literature, writing and speech are researched separately as either written or spoken discourse, in pedagogics as literacy and oracy or together as language and in other disciplines, such as anthropology (Goody, 1987). Writing and speech have long been of linguistic interest, and there is extensive research on the topic (e.g., Biber, 1988; Chafe, 1994; Halliday, 1989; Linell, 2005). There is surprisingly scant research that is directly connected with the mediation of writing into speech, although the practice is not uncommon. Reading aloud is done by radio speakers, teachers, writers and actors (audiobooks). Still, the most explored area in research is the role of reading aloud for young children (Duncan & Freeman, 2019). In multimodal studies, the interface between writing and speech is hardly scrutinised (Tomalin, 2020). As mentioned, multimodal studies focus either on multimodality and text (in a broad sense) or on multimodality and human interaction. This meant that I did not have a framework that was suitable for analysing the practice that included both perspectives. I shall not claim that I did not miss literature on local practices in research fields unknown to me, such as reception studies of speeches in the WHO or poem readings at outdoor festivals. Basically, after using several search engines, scouring the internet and having discussions with researchers in various fields, I realised that I needed to narrow my disciplinary scope. I then decided to focus exclusively on research literature that includes sight translation so that I can examine how modal aspects are treated in the existing knowledge base.

4.1.1 Approaching the literature from a multimodal perspective

A theoretical approach to the literature is a conceptual or focused review (Gough, Thomas, & Oliver, 2012). Unlike a state-of-the-art review, the goal here is to locate knowledge in extant research that is of interest for the chosen theoretical perspective. This meant that I had already chosen to consider sight translation from a multimodal perspective, inspired, amongst others, by multimodal approaches to subtitling (speech to writing) (Chen & Wang, 2016) and explorations of writing to sign language (Wurm, 2014). I searched the literature for descriptions that said something about multimodal aspects, even if the literature was not using multimodal terminology. In order to know what to search for, I first needed to explore basic theories in multimodality and social semiotics and their origins; these were initially delineated to the perspectives related to the concept of semiotic resources and their different affordances in speech and writing, in addition to the idea that modes are chosen because of their communicative potential (Kress, 2010).

A multimodal approach to writing and speech serves to illuminate the potential communicative obstacles of sight translation that may be lost if one focuses solely on language. To illustrate that this is related to safe communication, I included plain language perspectives. Plain language initiative is an international movement promoting the use of clear language in governmental institutions to secure communication with citizens. There are various initiatives within this movement, such as the Plain Language Association International (PLAIN). In Norway, it is called *Klarspråk.* The last PLAIN international conference was held in Oslo in September 2019. Several institutions around the world have included plain/clear language acts in their work. An important aspect of this is that not only shall people be able to understand, but they shall also be *empowered to act upon the information they are given*[5] (my emphasis). Responsibilities to make written communication more accessible lie with governmental

[5]Plain language definitions. Retrieved from https://www.iplfederation.org/plain-language/

agencies. The relation to sight translation is that when information is given as a read-aloud text, we cannot be sure if it is possible to act upon the information given, as the spoken text is ephemeral and may also be of poor quality (Havnen, 2019). I will return to issues on secure communication and legal safeguarding in my discussion of interpreters' responsibilities in interaction. Now, I describe the process I used to locate literature.

4.1.2 Locating literature

Sight translation, especially in face-to-face encounters, has been described as under-researched (Havnen, 2019; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). This phenomenon led me to a situation in which instead of finding exclusion criteria, I scoured all corners of the field to locate literature. I started by tracking references from recent works and later checking them against the BITRA[6] base that I, unfortunately, was not aware of in the beginning. This is one of the disadvantages of doing a PhD on interpreting within a programme for teachers' education. I will return to this in Section 4.5.4 about positionality. BITRA had a useful overview for my purpose and contained almost all the literature I had found. I focused on research literature, but I also included some learning material and conference papers. I did not do so systematically but based this on when they were frequently referred to in the research literature, so they were part of the knowledge base on sight translation. After I concluded my review, two relevant articles emerged. One was an eye-tracking study comparing novices with more advanced students in terms of reading patterns in sight translation (Chmiel & Mazur, 2013); it concluded that readability generated less cognitive load. The other article I found was a review article concluding that more research was needed in all areas of sight translation, here described as a hybrid method (Obidina, 2015). These two articles did not change the overall findings in my review article.

4.1.3 Exclusion of teaching material and non-English literature

When focusing almost exclusively on research literature about a practice, especially when most of it is done through experiments and on students, one must be careful about assuming that the claims made in the review are representative of practice. The picture might look different in everyday practice in the field and in learning institutions. Although I found that little attention was paid to the listener in the research literature, I had the impression, based on informal talks with colleagues at other universities, that the communicative aspect was a priority in exercises. As interpreting is about communication, this aspect may be taken for granted and inherent in

[6] BITRA. Retrieved from https://aplicacionesua.cpd.ua.es/tra_int/usu/buscar.asp?idioma=en

all evaluations and argumentations in the research literature, with the researchers not seeing the need to explicate it or document it. Such implied knowledge opens up the possibility of individualised interpretations of results and less-accountable research. What I can claim through my review article is that the listener's perspective is not explicit in research.

It is also a disadvantage to exclude literature that is not written in English. Jimenez Ivars (2008) reported from her doctoral dissertation in one article published in English and her further publications in Spanish would have proved useful for the review but could not be included. As I understood it, the guidelines she proposed on sight translation in her book on Spanish–English interpreting, *Primeros pasos hacia la interpretación Inglés–Español* (*First steps toward English–Spanish interpretation*) are much in line with the practice at my university (personal communication). Access to this valuable research-based teaching material became restricted by language. Hopefully, evidence-based practices spread locally to and through colleagues. In this context, China has a substantial body of literature on the language combination of Chinese–English in the form of several master's theses and teaching materials, some of which are summed up in a state-of-the-art literature review (Li, 2014); this formed part of my review.

Although my review does not cover all real-life practices, it does document a range of challenges related to the translation method and the research gap on sight translation in face-to-face interaction. This motivated me to design an experiment that formed the basis of two analyses resulting in two separate studies. I will first account for the experimental design and the participants' reflections before going through the steps of the textual (Article 2) and the interactional (Article 3) analysis.

4.2 Design

The data in the study are retrieved from two sources: 1) video recordings of three roleplayed institutional meetings and 2) the participants' reflections about the communicative event in which they were involved. Article 2 has a detailed description of the experimental setup, which I only briefly describe here.

4.2.1 Video recordings

The video-recorded material consists of three non-scripted roleplays with the same framing. A Serbian-speaking PSU met with a Norwegian-speaking PSR to get information about rights and obligations in case of illness at work in a simulated Norwegian public welfare context. They did not know each other's languages and were in real need of an interpreter to communicate. A certified interpreter participated and was instructed to do the job as usual. The PSR welcomed the PSU who was there to get information about cases of illness in a working relationship. This information was in a leaflet that the PSR handed to the interpreter for sight translation. The experiment was repeated three times with different interpreters and PSUs. The simulations were video recorded from two angles. The researcher (I) was not present in the room, and the cameras were already turned on before the participants entered. I chose these languages because they are my working languages when I interpret. In addition to the video-recorded material, the PSR and the interpreter were asked to write down their immediate reflections whilst I interviewed the PSUs in Serbian.

4.2.2 The participants' reflections and interviews

Most studies done on sight translation have focused on the process and the interpreter. Very few studies have included a real listener, and when there is one, their perspectives are usually not portrayed, such as in the works of Nilsen and Felberg (2017) and Vargas-Urpi (2019). Both my interpreter and teaching practices reveal that being a listener is not that easy and that PSUs and interpreters are focused on information (text). I was therefore interested in the reflections of all the participants immediately after the sessions. The PSR and the interpreter were placed in front of a computer with an open, blank document and a note on the keyboard thanking them for their participation and asking them to write down their reflections about the situation they had just been in. This way, their reflections were not biased by my questions, and I would also get an impression about what they emphasised. All their notes were 150–200 words long. The PSR wrote one for each session; the participants all wrote in Norwegian.

In the meantime, I interviewed the PSU myself in Serbian, as they did not know Norwegian. I had not been a participant in the experiment and did not know how the interpreting had been or who had done what and when, apart from what I had planned for, a sight translation. There were two reasons for not giving the PSU a written task. First, they were unfamiliar with the whole situation, and I assumed they might be confused about where to begin and end. Second, I wanted the possibility to ask follow-up questions for illuminating the topics, which are described below. In research on interpreting, it is generally more challenging to access minority-speaking interpreter-users, whereas both interpreters' and PSUs' voices are more often heard. I had a genuine opportunity to hear a minority speaker's reflections on interpreting. The three interviews were 9 minutes 45 seconds, 6 minutes 35 seconds and 4 minutes 10 seconds long, respectively. I informed the interviewees that I wanted their reflections on the situation and that the interviews would be recorded.

The interviews were semi-structured, prioritising the participants' reflections and perspectives but also leading them through some chosen topics (Braun & Clark, 2013). They first expressed their immediate thoughts, and then I followed up with the topics described below. I did not mention the topic if they had already touched upon them in their initial reflections or through answers to any of the other questions or input.

- General understandability
- Content of the text (first page, second page)
- The interpreter's reading (fast, slow, clear, unclear)
- Listener experience
- Perspectives on communicative aspects
- Anything else?

I was careful not to ask questions that would lead the answers in any particular direction, but I still attempted to obtain some information related to both the sight translation and the interactions. For example, when one was talking about how it was unfamiliar to use an interpreter, I would say, 'Did you understand?' and follow up with 'What do you remember?' If they only talked about the first points, I would say, 'And the other points on the next page??' If they did not mention anything about the interaction, only the interpreting, in the end, I would ask, 'What about the communication as a whole?' and 'Do you wish to say anything more?' (which was for all the three participants was that they wish they had been helpful). I was not as specific as to ask direct questions, such as 'How do you assess your communication with the PSR?' If a topic was not mentioned through the general stream of communication, this demonstrated that their focus was elsewhere. I did not ask directly for an evaluation of the interpreting method besides listenability/understandability. Some perspectives on that topic still emerged through the reflections unbiased of my take on what is important, such as length, inclusion or the difficulties of being a listener. Subsequently, I listened to the recordings, translated the answers into Norwegian and grouped all reflections by session in a document containing around 1,600 words (five to six pages).

The way I used these data was twofold. The participants' reflections served as an inspiration for the focus of Article 3, as they indicated that the interpreter-users struggled to focus, whereas the interpreters were occupied with their quite demanding task of sight translation. The participants' perspectives also served as illustrative examples and supplements to the discussions in both Articles 2 and 3.

There are some reflections that were not used, such as those concerning the participants' emotions and stress when these were not visible in the recordings. Examples are one interpreter having prejudices towards PSRs (in general) from the welfare administration and another interpreter thinking that the ventilation system was the camera, which made the interpreter uncomfortable. The PSUs did not catch this, or at least they did not mention it.

4.3 Analysing shifts in meaning-making

In Article 2, in which I presented the first analysis from the experiment, my focus was on meaning-making and how the interpreters' strategies affected metafunctions in the text. The analysis was not based on the interpreters' linguistic choices, even though they contribute to meaning-making, but rather on choices related to other resources representing the metafunctions: the ideational, interpersonal and textual (Halliday, 1978). These were realised through illustrations, punctuation, graphic highlighting and so on. Extracting the linguistic resources and focusing on other semiotic resources might foreground the salience of these resources and give a slightly skewed image of their importance in relation to language. It is worth bearing in mind that the analyses were partial; if combined with thorough analyses of the whole situation, the picture would be more detailed. However, the purpose of this study was to examine certain parts under a microscope, which meant isolating issues that could otherwise be overshadowed by language.

4.3.1 Isolating the elements for study

I created the leaflet for the experiment myself, the starting point being information from an existing government website[7] (Appendix 2; English version, Appendix 3). I thoroughly describe the adaptations in Article 2. I chose the theme of rights and duties in the case of illness at work for its relevance for the client actors. I used the text from the website, created a leaflet and, for analytical purposes, provided areas of interest (AOIs) that were not already there (images, a link, a footnote). The AOI concept was inspired by Shreve et al. (2010). The AOIs also included headlines, bullet points, numbers, italics and bold text, all of which contributed to various metafunctions of the text.

[7] www.nav.no

One of the preconditions for the experiment was that the text should not be complicated to translate from a language point of view. I had already decided that I wanted to look into resources, such as graphics, structural elements and images. A metafunctional approach to illustrate the shift in meaning potential was applicable, as the material analysed was writing to speech. Writing and speech were the starting points for developing theories of metafunctions, which were later identified in other modes by multimodal scholars. Therefore, looking at the semiotic resources and their metafunctions was already a possible framework of analysis. In this study, I did not analyse how the metafunctions are manifested at every level of the text; rather, I looked at how the various resources (AOIs) represented one or more metafunctions serving theoretically illustrative purposes.

The translations of the written text in my material did not divert from former studies of sight-translated texts; there were hesitations, disfluencies, repairs, explications and use of spoken discourse markers. In one of the situations, an interpreter rendered 'duty' into 'right', which caused confusion in the post-sight translation dialogue and would, if a complete analysis of verbal choices were done, contribute to a metafunctional shift at the ideational level. Apart from that, the interpreters did not report comprehension or production trouble related to language, except one concept they all found a solution to ('self-certification'). The three client participants who listened to the sight translation evaluated the translations as understandable. As mentioned, a precondition of the experiment was that language difficulties (in their narrow sense) should not overshadow other challenges, which, I believe, they did not, based on listeners' feedback and listening to the translations myself.

4.3.2 Transcriptions and annotations

I conducted the analyses in four steps: screening, transcription, annotation and systematisation. First, I watched the video recordings with the interpreter as my focus, writing down my first impressions and broadly evaluating the understandability of the translation. I noted a tendency of decic references being challenging, so I added them as AOIs when they changed in the translation process. Second, I watched the interpretations again with the Norwegian text in front of me, consecutively transcribing all the renditions of the AOIs for each interpreter under each other for easy comparison. I checked the transcriptions by going through the material two times more.

As the material was based on a focused experiment and limited in scope, the source text document was 413 words and the sight-translated part lasted 5–8 minutes, I preferred to use a basic word document for transcription, which is possible with small data sets (Heath & Luff, 2010). I did try Elan, but it was rather confusing when trying to incorporate the written source text and the renditions under each other, so I developed my own system, as I will show through some examples. The full list of all AOIs and categorisations is shown in Appendix 4.

At the top of the source text document (Appendix 2; English translation, Appendix 3), there is a headline naming the brochure/leaflet. The headline says, 'What should you do in events of illness?'[8] As mentioned earlier, I was not going to analyse the translation quality. I had evaluated the translation to be adequate, and the language did not pose troubles for these experienced and certified interpreters. Additionally, the listeners qualified the translations as understandable.

I transcribed and annotated the AOIs as follows (translation from Serbian done by me):

AOI 1: Headline: name of the document/structure

Text: What should you do in case of illness?

INT A:

Dakle, ovo je informaciona brožura naslovljena Šta raditi prilikom bolesti

Well, this is an information brochure entitled What to do in events of illness

INT B:

Znači stoji naslov šta treba da uradim u koliko sam bolestan

Well, headline says what should I do if I am ill

INT C:

Šta da radim u slučaju bolesti?

What should I do in case of illness?

The red marking is what comes in addition to the words in the headline and is a mediation of the non-visual resources that we understand from the layout and the genre. Deictic resources are marked in red when changed. For the purpose of readability of this text, when going through

[8] The translated brochure says, 'What to do in the event of illness?' The translator found it more idiomatic. I used a more literal translation here, as the translator's choice does not illustrate the point from the Norwegian source text.

the AOIs in the following, I mostly use the English translation of the Norwegian source (start) text, but for the analysis, I worked with the Norwegian text.

The interpreters' strategies of dealing with non-verbal resources are annotated with a system inspired by Wadensjö (1998). Wadensjö categorised the interpreter's renditions in relation to source text closeness in meaning as close, reduced, expanded and so on. These rendition categories are frequently used in interpreting research. I have adapted this way of thinking into categories based on how the interpreters express the meaning of nonverbal resources. These were strategies that I detected in the interpreters' renditions after listening to and transcribing their translations of the AOIs. I ended up with the following four categories of how meaning is (not) expressed/rendered.

i.	**0: not rendered**
ii.	**1: explicated as in the text (i.e. (---) as 'in parentheses')**
iii.	**2: explicated through a) gesture, b) tone, c) binder (discourse marker) or d) gaze**
iv.	**3: verbalising the semiotic meaning of the sign/reference**

Broadly, the categories are not rendered (0), direct transfer (1), mediated nonverbally (2) and expanded, verbalising the semiotic meaning (3). I will now show how I assessed the rendition and plotted the rendition categories into a table. I continue with the English translations of the Serbian rendition of the first AOI.

4.3.3 Analysis

INT A: Well, this is an information brochure entitled 'What to do in case of illness?'

INT B: Well, the headline says, 'What shall I do if I am ill?'

INT C: What shall I do in case of illness?

		INT A	**INT B**	**INT C**	**Comment**
AOI 1	Headline	3	1	0	
AOI 1	Reference 'you'	Neutral	1st person	1st person	All change

Interpreter A contextualises the headline with its function as a headline (title) and makes explicit what it is—a title (a brochure). Interpreter B says what it is, a headline, and interpreter 3 does not make any indication of the headline being a headline, either by gesture, tone, binder or gaze or verbally; this is why it is a 0 even if the text in the headline is translated, as the function is not rendered. This does not mean that the listener cannot understand the text as a headline/title from conventional text knowledge, but it is not detectable by anything other than being what the interpreter starts with.

The deictic references in this case were plotted in what was actually said, as these do not fit into the categories of graphic/structural resources (pronoun shift), but they relate to the interpersonal metafunction in the sense that the distance between the text and the reader/listener is affected; therefore, I decided to include them. I found it interesting that one interpreter changes 'you' into a passive construction, and the others change it into first-person singular; here, one might ask who 'I' is.

AOI 2: Logo /power/

The logo represents the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration (NAV).

		INT A	INT B	INT C	Comment
AOI 2	Logo	0	0	0	

NAV was not mentioned, not pointed to nor shown to the listener; this does not mean, again, that the listener does not know that the information is from NAV, as they are in a NAV office and the PSR has explained that they have developed a brochure. However, it still shows that this resource is not counted as giving meaning in this situation by the interpreter, and this part of the document is not visually supporting or adding to meaning through the sight translation.

The next AOI was quotation marks with the function of highlighting two concepts.

AOI 3: Quotation marks (highlighting)

<u>Text:</u> We have two arrangements related to illness—the first is a 'self-certification' and the other is a 'sick note'.

INT A:

(…) prvo je takozvano lično obaveštenje o bolesti, a drugo je lekarsko uverenje o bolovanju

(…) the first is a so-called self-certification, and the other is a doctor's sick note.

INT B:

(..) jedna od njih je vlastito opravdanje, pod navodnicima, a drugo je bolovanje.

(…) one of them is a self-certification in quotation marks, and the other is a sick note.

INT C:

(..) jedna je da napravite sebe lično opravdanje (…) i drugo se zove bolovanje

(…) one is to make a self-certification, and the other is called a sick note.

		INT A	INT B	INT C	Comment
AOI 3	«..» 1	3	1	0	
AOI 3	«..» 2	0	0	2	

Interpreter A explicates the semiotic meaning of the first quotation marks; however, such explication does not appear the next time it is used in the same sentence. The first explication, might, as I have discussed in Article 2, also be a typical phrase that interpreters insert before a culturally distinct concept, still functioning as highlighting. Interpreter B says 'in quotation marks' in relation to the first concept but not to the second one. The other concept, 'sick note', has an equivalent in the other language, which might be the reason for the interpreters not paying attention to the quotation marks. Interpreter C has some trouble with the first concept and turns it into a verbal phrase. The quotation marks related to the second concept I have categorised as 2 because of a combination of tone when uttering the concept and 'called', which together function as highlighting. The difference between *so-called* by interpreter A and *is called* by interpreter C is the meaning; 'so-called' is an addition (or verbalisation of qutation marks), and 'is called' might be an expanded translation, also serving as highlighting, but is not as explicit as interpreter A's solution. The next AOI I want to show here is the reference 'here'.

AOI 3: *here* as a deictic reference

Text: Here, you can read the most important things to know about the different schemes.

INT A:

U ovoj brošuri možete dakle da pročitate još (...)

In this brochure, you can then read more (…)

INT B:

Ovde možete pročitati još (…)

Here, you can read more (…)

C: I ovde možete pročitati još (…)

And here, you can read more (…)

		INT A	INT B	INT C	Comment
AOI 3	Reference 'here'	This brochure	here	and here	

In the following, there is an example of different versions of the categories I have named 2, which are explicated through semiotic means.

AOI 8: bold/emphasising/

Text: To qualify for the self-certification, you must have worked for **at least two months** for the employer from whom you report that you are ill[9].

INT A:

Da biste bili u stanju da upotrebite licno obaveštenje, morate biti zaposelni **najmanje dva meseca** (…)

*To able to use of self-certification, you need to be employed for **at least two months** (…)*

INT B:

Da biste mogli da se koristite time sto se zove vlastito opravdanje, morati raditi najmanje dva meseca (rising tone)

To make use of what is called self-certification, you have to work for at least two months (rising tone).

[9] In Norwegian, it says 'to make use of', not to be qualified. I use the translated text to avoid confusion when looking at the Appendix with the English text.

INT C:

Da biste mogli da napravite lično opravdanje, morate da radite najmanje dva meseca kod tog poslodavca kod koga ste se razboleli (looks upward)

To make a self-certification, you must work for at least two months at the employer where you got ill (looks upwards).

		A	**B**	**C**	**Comment**
AOI 8	Bold	2b	2b	2d	

As you can see here, interpreter C looks up after this sentence, which is not the end of the paragraph, and it is one of the few times during the sight translation that this interpreter uses gaze. For this reason, I have evaluated the gaze to function as highlighting of the content, including the two months.

I went through 18 AOIs (Appendix 4) in this manner before grouping them into categories: graphic signs, structural elements, illustrations and decic elements. Into the deictic elements, I also included some other elements that refer to something elsewhere in the text (the footnote) or in the world (www). I arrived at Tables 1–4 below, which are shown in Article 2. There are more than 18 columns because some of the 18 AOIs resulted in more than one rendition category, such as an inverted comma that was originally one AOI (3), which turned out to be differently rendered on the two occasions, and AOI 1 had an issue both with being a headline and the deictic reference ‘you’.

Structure	A	B	C
Headline	3	1	0
Headline	2c (3)	2c	2c
List	0	0	0
Bullet point 1	0	2c	0
Bullet point 2	0	2c	0
Bullet point 3	2 b	0	2 c
Page turning	3	2c	2c
New headline	3	3	2c
Numbered list	3	0	2c
End list	2c	0	2c

Table 1

Graphic signs	A	B	C
'…' 1 highlighting	3	1	0
'…' 2 highlighting	0	0	2
Bold highlighting	2b	2b	2d
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Italics	2b	0	0
Parenthesis (synonym)	3	3	0
Underlined 1	0	0	0
Underlined 2	2b	2b	0

Table 2

Images	A	B	C
Logo	0	0	0
Illustrations	0	0	0

Table 3

Deictic elements	A	B	C
Reference 'you'	Passive	I	I
Reference 'here'	3 (in this brochure)	1	1
Reference (single provider)	Single mother	Single father	Single provider
Footnote	0	0	0
Web page	2a + 1	1	3
See point	N	you	we
Page turning	we	we	we

Table 4

These tables, the transcripts and the filmed material were the bases of analysing the changes in meaning-making related to metafunctions when moving a text from one mode to another in Article 2. Some changes in the metafunctions were a result of the interpreters' strategies of dealing or not dealing with the AOIs. However, other changes were the results of the modal shift as such, especially at the interpersonal level. A linguistic analysis would probably show other complimentary, perhaps also contradictory, shifts in the metafunctions of the text. This analysis is also recommended. However, in this project, the main issues were the changes related to predefined AOIs, which prompted me to look at the situation not only as being related to the translation but also as an act of sight translation and its relation to the interactive pattern.

4.4 Analysing interaction

In Article 3, I discuss the interactional patterns in the simulated setting. Articles 1 and 2 were motivated by theory, whereas Article 3 was data driven; the data were already delineated by the roleplay, thus becoming the site of engagement (Norris, 2019b). I gave a great deal of thought as to how I should go about the analysis, as what happened in the simulated interaction was not difficult to identify; once the interpreter was given the written text, the interaction entered a phase that was clearly a disruption of the established pattern both in terms of modal configuration, mediational means and turn-taking. The rhythm of the first phase was re-established after the sight translation. During the sight-translated phase, the participants, even though involved in the same broader higher-level action—an institutional meeting—seemed to be in individual worlds.

I was already intrigued by Norris (2004) and the delineation of higher-level and lower-level actions combined with the foreground–background continuum of attention/awareness. In that vein, it is possible to say that Article 2 was driven by the theory of multimodal meaning-making, and Article 3 was motivated by the data and a need to find an applicable language for explaining and understanding this interaction, especially the (inter)actions that were not verbal. I reasoned that even if, both in the dialogue and the monologue in the meeting, language is the dominant mode of meaning-making, focusing on language and meaning-making would overshadow the other interactional aspects. I figured that the focus could easily be on the deviancy of the prototypical interaction rather than on the dynamics of what the participants actually did, as it was clear that they were doing *something* that, for two of the participants, did not include language production. Multimodal (inter)actional analysis does not give primacy to language being the mode that defines what is in focus and receives the most attention. Studies show that even when a speaker is verbally active, actions other than the particular interaction with the listener can be foregrounded (Norris, 2019a). I wanted to explore whether this framework would help me obtain a clearer picture of attention in the non-verbally active participants who reported struggles to keep focused in their reflections.

From the work on the other articles, I became aware of the concept of rhythm (see Section 3.X). I decided to try elucidating the rhythmical pattern of the meeting through the analytical tool modal density as an indication of attention/awareness (Norris, 2004). Pirini (2017) relates modal density and the attention/awareness continuum to agency, understood as ‘the ways in which, and to the extents to which, a person is compelled to, allowed to, and concerned, to act’

(Van Lier, 2010, p. x, as cited in Pirini, 2017). He shows that agency is connected with the social actor who controls mediational means/cultural tools that are relevant for a foregrounded higher-level action. In my experiment, this means that the interpreter has agency when holding and reading the information leaflet, controlling visual access and speed, for example.

4.4.1 Delineation for analysis

The interaction in the experiment was simulated, albeit spontaneous and authentic, and the predefined higher-level action was giving and obtaining information about illness when in a working relationship. There are three people talking in quite a simple setup comprising the layout—a classic triangle form—as shown in Figure 1 in Article 3.

When working with video-recorded material, studies emphasise that the video itself is not the data (Erickson, 2006; Norris, 2019b) but rather the starting point of the delineation of data. In my case, the data were already limited by the experiment, and they only contained 17, 13 and 8 minutes of recordings, which then composed the data set. The simulation had originally been rigged to focus on the interpreter's renditions of a written text; this was the data piece for the analysis in Article 2. The situation resembled a typical situation in which sight translation occurred in order to frame the sight translation to come naturally and with a real audience. The initial focus in the project was the interpreter's interaction with the text and the listener; however, when watching the films again and again, one could not help but recognise that there was something going on at the level of the whole interaction that I wanted to explore. As the site of engagement was predefined, I had to decide how I should select a data piece for the next analysis (Norris, 2019b), which would eventually become Article 3.

4.4.2 Identifying the actions

Lower-level mediated actions are the smallest pragmatic meaning units in multimodal (inter)actional analysis (Norris, 2004; Norris, 2019b). A lower-level mediated action is an action with a clear start and an end, that is, the action is detectable and (a)countable. A lower-level mediated action does not stand alone but is linked to other lower-level mediated actions, making up a chain of lower-level mediated actions. These chains of lower-level actions constitute and are constituted of higher-level mediated actions such as talking with a friend, cooking dinner or meeting in an office. Higher-level actions are delineated by having an opening and closing. For example, the sight translation opens and closes with the exchange of the written document, and the actual meeting opens with greetings and closes with farewells. It is possible to engage in several higher-level actions simultaneously; the modal density indicates to which action a social actor's attention is directed (i.e. which higher-level action is foregrounded by each social actor).

In my material, the starting point was the higher-level action of giving and receiving information—the meeting. This meeting, again, was divided into three phases, in which each phase represented new scales of higher-level actions, described as dialogues and a monologue (sight translation) in Article 3. These actions were co-produced by chains of lower-level actions, actions that were mediated through modes and mediational means. The lower-level actions were similar for all the participants, and the most relevant ones for the higher-level action were utterances (language), gaze shifts, gestures, posture and object handling (the document).

In multimodal (inter)action analysis, the next step after identifying actions is to delineate a small data piece from the data material for micro analysis, for example, to analyse particular actions, such as shifts of focus, initiation of turns, creation of opportunities to interact or evaluation of attention towards several simultaneous higher-level actions. My focus is on modal density throughout the meeting and the attention towards the shared higher-level action over time. Instead of cutting a piece, as in most multimodal (inter)action analyses, I pull out a thread. The way I have represented the modal density through colour in tables (Article 3, Figure 5, p. 13) has proven meaningful in teaching and in discussions with peers. I will return to the practical contribution in the discussion; now, I will proceed to modal density.

4.4.3 Measuring modal density

Modal density is a measure in which modal complexity and modal intensity are both considered (Norris, 2004; Norris, 2019b). Modal density indicates towards which higher-level action the chains of lower-level actions are directed. Usually, there are several higher-level actions occurring simultaneously. These are foregrounded throughout a communicative event by each social actor's production of lower-level action; the foregrounded higher-level action is the one the highest modal density of lower-level actions is directed towards.

Modal configuration is influenced by the environment, such as the layout of the table and chairs, which, to a certain degree, dictates proximity and movement. In my design, the setup was the same in all three situations, which did not open for too many configurations. The dominant changeable lower-level actions in the material were the ones described above: utterances (language), gaze shifts, gestures, posture and object handling (the document). This led to a situation in which the chains of lower-level actions were quite easily accessible on film, as there were no simultaneous higher-level actions or other social actors influencing the scene, that is, when focusing on higher-level action at the scale of the meeting.

A detailed transcription of all the materials did not seem an efficient way to evaluate modal density over time. I therefore developed a system of registering the density into a spreadsheet based on evaluation in time slots directly from the film, as demonstrated in Article 3.

I gave a lot of thought as to how I could analyse and describe the material without using micro-analytical transcription conventions that would have been too detailed and confusing to serve my purpose. I was interested in density over time; I started out trying to annotate and count how many modes were utilised in each time frame, but then I rejected that idea, as it became obvious that a mode is not countable; rather, lower-level actions are. As explained in Article 3, gazes take up different meanings through use. As my material was quite uncomplicated regarding the social actors' use of various modes (they were dominantly utilising the same modes and mediational means, co-producing a shared higher-level action with chains of lower-level actions that were stable over time and with little physical movement), I decided that it would be possible to evaluate the density based on the recordings. To be able to do that, a precondition is to identify and understand lower-level actions and their interactions, which is possible because of previous research at the micro level.

In Article 3, I presented a sample from the table in which I registered the modal density in time frames (Figure 1, extensive tables of all the situations, Appendix 5). Here, I will give two examples of how an evaluation of modal density was conducted. Bear in mind that throughout the situation, they all co-produce the meeting through stable modal configuration, so the evaluation of the variations of density is of the changeable mediated actions. The evaluation was done for each social actor individually and then together by replaying the same time frame several times.

Situation A	PSR	INT	PSU	Action
01.00 - 01.15	High	High	High	Greetings
01.15 - 01.25	High	High	Medium	Introduction
01.26 - 01.36	High	Medium	Medium	
01.37 - 01.46	Medium	High	Medium	
01.47 - 01.57	High	Low	Low	
01.58 - 02.07	Low	High	Medium	
02.08 - 02.11	High	High	High	Q - A (question - answer)
02.12 - 02.17	High	High	High	Q - A
02.18 - 02.24	High	High	High	Q - A
02.25 - 02-36	High	High	High	Q - A
02.39 - 02.50	High	Low	Low	Q
02.51 - 03.01	Low	High	Medium	
03.02 - 03.07	High	High	High	A -R (Answer - response)
03.08 - 03.18	High	Low	Low	
03.19 - 03.32	Low	High	Medium	
03.33 - 03.37	High	High	High	A - R
03.38 - 03.48	High	High	High	Handing over paper
03-49 - 04.00	Low	High	Medium	
04.01 - 04.12	Low	High	Medium	
04.13 - 04.22	Low/Med	High	Low	
04.23 - 04.32	Low	high	Low	
04.33 - 04.48	Low	High	Medium	
04.49 - 05.02	Low	High	Low	
05.03 - 05.21	Low	High	Medium	
05.22 - 05.34	Low/Med	High	Low/med	
05.35 - 05.44	Low	Med	Low	Int reading in silence
05.45 - 06.00	Low	High	Low	

Figure 1

An example of how I would evaluate modal density would be looking at the time stretch of 01.00–01.15. Here, the PSR meets the two entering participants standing, tells her name, looks at the interpreter and the PSU, shakes hands with both (pre-COVID-19 time) and says ‘welcome’. The interpreter translates this, shakes the hands of both and looks at them. The PSU presents herself and shakes hands with both. They all sit down. All in all, they are producing the same higher-level action of greeting one another through the same mediational means and modes producing lower-level actions, such as utterances, touch, gaze shifts and body movements in the timeframe of 15 seconds. All the social actors foreground this higher-level action with high density, especially the complexity contributing to this.

In the time stretch of 05.25–05.45, the interpreter has stopped speaking and focuses on the text, so there is object handling and gaze towards the text; the PSR and PSU are just gazing and waiting. The interpreter is still foregrounding the sight translation as part of the giving and receiving of information but with medium modal density and is not attentive towards the other participants who are just gazing at the interpreter; not having an output to react to, their gazes do not meet either, so the density here is evaluated as low.

In Article 3, the analysis is brought further by including the participants’ reflections, the concept of actions with history (3.3.2), rhythm (3.3.3) and Pirini’s (2017) tool for identifying primary agency. This contributes to the discussion of the interpreter’s responsibilities to balance attention and agency when disrupted by the translation method.

4.5 Methodological discussion

Because of my extensive experience in the interpreting field working at the administrative level as an interpreter and as an interpreter-trainer, I am well aware of the conditions under which the interpreters work, what they describe as challenges and constraints and how interpreting is organised in Norway. This put me in a position to plan the experiment in a very detailed way. It also gave me easy access to the participants and rooted my research in practice. For me, an underlying motivation is how my research can be of use in the practice field. It has kept me focused when I have been drawn towards philosophical dialogues with myself about translation even being possible or communication being researchable at all. However, I work every day, and I experience that life goes further and people solve problems because of translation and communication. I remain on track, and I believe that I am contributing to something that benefits interpreters, interpreter-trainers and researchers. In the following, I discuss the nature of the data, positionality and ethics and point out the limitations of the study.

4.5.1 Experimental data

The experimental data at the scale used in this study are similar to the data from case studies. The reason for not making just one case is the nature of the simulation; if three cases are similar, the ecological reliability is better anchored, and occurrences cannot be attributed to a fault in design. A real case study is, by definition, something that has happened; even if the case is a deviant one (Silverman, 2013), the same is not valid for simulations. I chose to make three simulations, both to test the design and to make some comparisons. I conducted the simulations in October 2017 on two different occasions. Three experiments might seem like a small sample, but the material is not meant to be generalisable or representative of all practices. The focus of my thesis was to widen the use of theoretical and methodological frameworks (Silverman, 2013). If quantity were an issue or an exhaustive occurrence of practices was the goal, two or three more experiments would not make a difference; the number would have had to be increased more considerably. Three seems to be a reoccurring number in explorative studies, such as in the works of Felberg and Nilsen (2017) and Pirini (2017). Qualitative research aims to broaden our understanding of a phenomenon and given that human interaction is never replicable and always situated, generalisation is not an issue. Reliability must be reflected in a sound description of the design and anchored in theoretical and methodological choices (Norris, 2019b). Furthermore, one problem in experimental research on sight translation has been the lack of thorough descriptions of input variables (Li, 2014). I consider my design to be solid and possible to replicate.

The preferred data in various discourse analytic approaches comprise naturally occurring interactions. In interpreting studies, however, experiments/simulations are frequent for different reasons, including the accessibility of cases and the unpredictability of data. In my case, the experiment was planned but not scripted; hence, the actual interaction was naturally occurring in the sense that the courses of actions were not predetermined, and the interpreting happened there (Hale & Napier, 2013). The same was true about the clients' reactions, as only the PSR had received instructions on behaviour, an instruction based on what I knew to be a typical way of behaving. The main difference with authentic settings was the possibility of controlling some of the variables, such as introducing a written text with certain characteristics.

4.5.2 Participants

Many researchers have reported that it is difficult to find interpreters who can volunteer for experiments (Liu, 2016); however, this was not the case for my study. The interpreter and public servant participants were recruited from my professional and personal network, and I did not have to pressure or motivate them to take part. They received a remuneration when the experiment was completed, a gift card of 500 NOK; they were not aware they would receive this until the experiment was finished. The client participants received the same amount. I recruited the clients through cultural organisations. I had no disagreements or challenges related to the collaboration. In later stages of the project, I asked for permission to use drawings for posters and presentations in which the participants could be identified, and I immediately received consent.

4.5.3 Transcription

Transcriptions are a mediation of material from one (or several) mode to another—graphic, still and linear. They are used both for analytical purposes and for representation of the analytical process and results. In my project, I did not originally plan to do multimodal (inter)actional analysis, and I did not obtain permission to use the filmed material for representing data, which is why stills were not used.

How much and which part of the interaction is transcribed reflect the researcher's focus and position (ten Have, 2002). At the beginning, I was very overwhelmed with the transcriptions I read and the transcription procedures I read about. I sometimes found them difficult to follow, as if involving a new language that I did not master, and I also had no time to learn. At the same time, my interest was not so much at the micro level of the phenomenon I observed.

Multimodal transcription is a highly complicated and time-consuming activity (Norris, 2019b). I considered that registering modal density over time would better serve the purposes of my research; a detailed transcription of all the material would distract my focus. The situation would have been different if I had decided to do an analysis at another scale of action. Within the higher-level action of sight translation, for example, there are higher-level actions at a different scale, such as reading, speaking and attending to the listener, which would be more or less simultaneous and be either for-, mid- or backgrounded in relation to modal density. Micro analysis and a detailed transcription would have been necessary to identify this. Another interesting path could have been a closer comparison of the three interpreters' styles in relation to contact with the listener. This would be in line with the more common use of transcriptions as illuminations of data for analysing particular episodes of actions or activities (Heath & Luff, 2010). One might argue that without a holistic transcription of all resources in a multimodal whole, it is not a multimodal analysis; however, all analyses are parts of a greater whole. What is important is the claim one makes with the research; in my case, both Articles 2 and 3 were explorations of new analytical frameworks to understand sight translation.

A lecturer once said that analysis at the macro level is meant to inform the masses, that at the meso level is meant to inform practitioners and that at the micro level is meant to inform theory (these will, of course, constitute and be constituted of one another). My interest is on the level of practice, and I wanted to use the toolbox from multimodal (inter)actional analysis to try to describe and explain occurrences in a way that could also be applicable in practice. This was partly inspired by the work of Norris (2004) and that of Krystallidou (2014), one of the few interpreting researchers who has applied this analytical framework. In her work with students, Krystallidou explained the concepts and did a *live* analysis in the classroom on video recordings of interpreter-mediated interaction.

This thesis is highly explorative and innovative. The annotation and representation of modal density in a table provide a fruitful basis for identifying interesting areas for further investigation, in addition to giving a visual impression of rhythm. This is a path I aim to follow, as I believe the concept of modal density in relation to rhythm could be developed as a useful tool for interpreters in relation to turn-taking strategies.

4.5.4 Positionality

I have been an interpreter since 1993, and I started by chance, as most interpreters in Norway did. I had known Serbian since I was 16, and there was a need for language aid. For me, that need originated in the wars in Yugoslavia, resulting in a huge increase—in a Norwegian context—in refugees finding their way up north. My first assignment was a documentation of abuse and torture. Later, I began working in administration, teaching interpreting at several levels and in various institutions. I have worked at Oslo Metropolitan University since 2007. I still occasionally do interpretation in police and hospital settings. Being so deeply involved with the field gives me some advantages, such as in the design phase described above. It can, however, also constitute a possible obstacle by making one see what one expects to see or is used to seeing. I could have supported a range of arguments with examples from my own experience as an interpreter and an interpreter-trainer. I have always tried to temper the urge to use them, instead actively engaging in the material and in the literature to anchor my arguments in a coherent, clear and transparent manner. This also means that I have tried to free myself from the common theoretical and methodological paths that are readily available to challenge my thinking and habitual perspective. That being said, I have still sought to relate to the dominant discussions in the field. Overall, I reason that my deeply entrenched position in the field is an advantage because it forces me to be thorough.

What has been more challenging is writing a thesis in the frame of educational science for teachers' education. I could follow the courses because of my background as an educated schoolteacher, and my master's thesis in Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian language and literature was a discourse analysis of textbooks. However, I have not had training in research on interpreting, so it has been a cumbersome path through literature that was not readily accessible via course material or former studies, although some of it is part of the curriculum in our BA in interpreting in the public sector. Luckily, I have been supported by supervisors and colleagues. I also had the opportunity to do some of the final work on the thesis as a visiting guest student at the University of Antwerp, where I received much appreciated input. Unfortunately, I had to leave earlier than planned because of COVID-19, but I kept in touch until finalisation. On two occasions, I have been a guest lecturer on sight translation at Ilisimatusarfik, University of Greenland, which has given me a lot of food for thought.

In my search for relevant literature for this interdisciplinary work, I have sometimes gone an extra mile looking for literature before discovering its almost non-existence, such as multimodal perspectives on the intersection of speech and writing are scarce, which was confirmed at a conference. The lack of research on adult reading aloud practices was confirmed by a recent article appearing after doing a control search on such practices.

4.5.5 Ethical considerations

All the participants in my study were fully informed about the experiment and the goal—an exploration of the under-researched area of sight translation. I informed them that they could withdraw at any given point (Appendix 7). They were contacted with the same information when I realised that I needed to extend the project (Appendix 9). The project was registered and approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data and prolonged through standard procedures (Appendices 6 and 8). I ensured the participants were not recognisable in the data presentation; however, they could identify themselves and their fellow participants, and they could remember what they did and what they said. I have stored the video and interview material on an external hard drive locked away when it is not in use; I am the only one who has analysed it. A technician helped me merge the films so that I could see all three participants in one frame. She did not understand the language and would not have been able to make sense of the material.

As mentioned, I recruited some of the participants, such as the interpreters and the PSR, through my own network. I have known them for a long time, and we have had various relationships: professional, semi-professional and personal (friendship). We have strong mutual trust in one another, and there have not been any incidents threatening our personal relationships or, as mentioned, professional cooperation. One might critique the possibility of replicating an experiment when the ties are personal, but when searching for participants, I did not primarily look for people I knew; rather, I looked for people with certain knowledge and qualifications. I have made these qualifications transparent in the description of the design.

If there is a risk to the participants, it would be connected with the interpreters' professional reputation because they, as freelancers, are vulnerable. I have great respect for the interpreters, and I do not wish to devalue their performance. As this study is an exploration into an area that is not well documented, and as there are no clear norms as to how to translate from writing to speech, such an evaluation would be out of place. I approached sight translation from a new perspective. The interpreters were not specialists in sight translation; hence, it was not possible for them to be familiar with best practices. Before the experiment, I informed them that my goal was to see what happened to the text, that the text was not linguistically challenging and that I would not evaluate or publish studies on translation quality. This may have made the interpreters too relaxed, as little was at stake in the situation; however, there was a real need for the participants to use an interpreter to communicate, and the interpreters did conduct the translation seriously. In one experiment, the interpreter struggled with some numbers three times at the beginning of the translation and was distracted by noise from the ventilation system, but the interpreter continued as if it was an authentic meeting.

I have been cautious not to mention the interpreters' genders and ages, as the interpreter community for this language is small, and the participants would be easily recognisable. Even if I am not evaluating them qualitatively, the other interlocutors evaluate these situations. Relating the results to the experimental setting and not focusing on personal factors were priorities when writing. I do not compare the interpreters with one another; rather, I relate their actions to theory and use them illustratively in my analyses and discussions. As I instructed the PSR to act in a certain way and not to act as usual, her actions must be related to the experiment, not to her profession. This was an important issue when representing findings and describing the data. I believe the representation of data here and in the articles does not harm the interpreters' or PSRs' reputation; the situation being a simulation is important. In both articles based on the experiment, I thoroughly describe the design as an important frame for the findings. However, I do not know whether other readers will evaluate practice from a different perspective; therefore, it is important to keep the participants as anonymous as possible.

4.5.6 Reliability

When limited samples or case studies are dealt with, reliability must be found in the coherence between a philosophical, theoretical and analytical/empirical framework (Norris, 2019b). Although this dissertation is interdisciplinary, I believe that the use of different frameworks for different focuses is sufficiently accounted for. The philosophical underpinnings for the various frameworks are not contradictory; moreover, the multimodal (inter)actional framework is inspired by the multimodal semiotic approach, amongst others. The main difference is, as mentioned, the focus of analysis. Inconsistency would depend on what I claim the results to mean. For example, I do not claim that meaning can be found in a text alone, even if I look for the meaning-making resources in a text. The purpose of the study was to account for the change in meaning potential rooted in the change of mode in my data. I do not claim anything about the communicative goal of the text or how it is perceived.

In the interactional analysis, the question is different, and the focus is shifted from the text to attention and agency in the interaction. Here, the question of meaning is absent, and the text only functions as an artefact or, in Norris' (2004, 2019b) framework, a frozen action. That does not mean that meaning cannot be analysed, but the focus is on the actions that make a salient difference in the interactional rhythm.

4.5.7 Limitations

The dissertation is a partial analysis, in which the focus is on the multimodal aspects of practices dominated by language. The findings gain their authority through the belief in my underlying knowledge of language and interpreting and my honesty when claiming that the text was easy, that the translations were correct and that these issues did not contaminate the parts that were scrutinised.

A critique might be raised about the significance given to the resources that are not language, or it might be claimed that I, in some ways, undermine the position that language has in translation and interpreting; this is, by far, not what I wish to signal. All forms of translation must require excellent linguistic skills and knowledge about languages and cultures; a focus on multimodal resources must exist together with, not instead of, attendance to language.

> Multimodal studies, and thus an extension of the research interest to all modes and their transfer, does not mean relativising the linguistic dimension in its relevance for translation, but rather placing it in a larger context and thus ultimately delving deeper into the transcultural mechanism of text composition and design. (Kaindl, 2020, p. 65)

This study does not exploit the full potential of the data, and additional analyses to complement the partial findings are possible (e.g. microanalysis of gaze patterns and nods, analysis of meaning potential, including language, rhythm in turn-taking or interpreters' use of discourse markers in their renditions in relation to listeners' feedback signals).

It is also important to highlight the explorative nature of this study that by no means aims to be exhaustive about sight translation practices; rather, it aims to introduce new perspectives into the understanding of sight translation as a multimodal, interactional practice. In further work, it would be feasible to conduct more interdisciplinary projects with other intramodal and/or intralingual practices, such as sign language interpreting and speech to writing, and with other practices related to accessibility, such as audio transcription.

5 Findings

A pervasive theme throughout the articles is sight translation both as an interpreting method contributing to meaning-making at a textual level and sight translation as an interactional practice with a substantial impact on the dialogical pattern in face-to-face encounters. It began as a theoretical discussion through a focused review of the extant literature on sight translation. This was followed by an article on the interpreter's mediation of written semiotic resources and the effect of modal shifts on meaning-making. I elaborate on the interactional pattern related to the act of reading in relation to rhythm in the last article. All the articles connect to the interpreter's function/role/responsibility, as the research is soundly rooted in practice. In the following, I present the main findings from the three articles that form the basis of the subsequent discussion about the contribution of this thesis.

5.1 Article 1: 'Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation: A critical review'

The main purpose of Article 1 was to determine as much existing knowledge on sight translation as possible and what those findings mean when analysing them from a multimodal perspective on communication. Most studies on sight translation were done on the translation processes in the realms of conference interpreting and interpreting education; hence, they were interpreter centred. The primary data sources were transcribed monologues, and the participants were usually students of both interpreting and translation; sometimes, they were experienced professional conference interpreters. Most of the studies were experimental, and few had an interactional approach, although recently, there has been an increased interest in sight translation in face-to-face encounters. The literature also argues that sight translation as a method with unique challenges demands special skills, such as reading and mediating writing to speech. The challenges related to working from writing to speech seem to be included in coordination in the effort model. Performance is challenged by language, time and interpreters' competencies, resulting in inaccuracy, disfluency (hesitations, false starts, repairs, uneven speed) and interference. Information retention is high. Strategies to enhance fluency, such as condensation and paraphrasing, are not recommended in court because of the need for accuracy. Sight translation in face-to-face encounters challenges interaction, and the interpreter's strategies are affected by the presence of a listener. Thus far, the listener's perspective has not been scrutinised in the research. From a multimodal perspective, the challenges in production also challenge the listener's perception, especially when affecting cohesion, which is a vital part of understanding. My review concluded that in practice, many interpreters conducted sight transition without special training, allowing for performances that threatened listeners' perception. Through a multimodal perspective, I refined the understanding of sight translation as a unique translating method in the review. I argued in favour of the need for specialist knowledge in multimodal understandings of written and spoken texts. I also highlighted the need to further explore interactional aspects of modal shifts. In the article, I questioned whether existing sight translation practices are secure communication, asking if they are potential threats to participation and legal safeguarding. This argument was rooted in the knowledge about the challenges in the method and the proposed lack of specialised training.

I follow up with the research gaps detected in the review article in the next articles: first, the interpreter's effect on the meaning-making process in Article 2 and, second, the effect of the sight translation act on interaction in Article 3.

5.2 Article 2: 'Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making'

In Article 2, my aim was to see how interpreters' mediation of typical written resources affected meaning-making, assuming that the interpreters' strategies had a semiotic impact as part of multimodal meaning-making. Interpreters excluded several semiotic resources that had specific meaning potential in the written text, such as graphic signs and a footnote which provided important content; there were also deictic elements changing reference. Some structural elements were transferred just as they were written, and listeners did not have visual access to the text. The interpreter's choices did affect the direction in which the text moved ideationally (ideology, factual), textually (structural) and interpersonally (the relation between the text and the perceiver). The shift of mode, without regard to the translation, affected interaction in terms of distance to the text. Distance was affected by language use and gazes, body posture and the proximity between the reader and the listener.

The findings foregrounded the necessity for the interpreter to understand the repertoire of resources used in written texts, how they contribute to meaning-making and how the interpreters themselves contribute through the choices they make. I argued for taking a closer look at the idea of accuracy, especially when linked to translation across modes. I also proposed that the interpreter should orient towards the interaction at a broader level as part of interpreting specialisation.

These shifts in the textual and interpersonal metafunctions, as well as the participants' perspectives on the situation, gave me the idea to explore the interactional dynamics involved and participants' attention and agency. I assumed this question was related to the act of reading aloud, which I further explored in Article 3.

5.3 Article 3: 'Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction'

My primary concern in Article 3 was how the act of sight translation influenced the interactional pattern understood as rhythm. I investigated this by measuring modal density as an indication of attention and agency directed towards higher-level actions. My main findings were that the interactional patterns caused by sight translation affected attention and agency. For once, the interpreter dominated the interaction by having the highest modal density and control over the mediational means. The other social actors were fighting to focus on their own actions—monitoring and listening—which are still related to the higher-level action of giving and receiving information. In addition, the interview data revealed a lack of shared action history (practice) amongst the social actors, which affected the rhythm on the level of practice, as the actors did not know how to align with one another in the situation. In this article, I furthered the argument of interpreters' responsibility to secure participants' possibilities for attention and agency based on their position as specialists in the interaction and based on having more agency in sight-translated interaction.

5.4 Interrelation

As mentioned at the beginning, I did this work successively, that is, I wrote one article after the next, building on the results and questions raised in the preceding work. The question posed about secure communication in Article 1 is related to the lack of renditions I discovered and wrote about in Article 2 and the struggle for focus discussed in Article 3. My theorisation about the modal shift affecting meaning-making is demonstrated in Article 2, and I further scrutinise it in terms of interactional rhythm and the possibilities to exercise agency in Article 3. Together, the findings contribute to existing research in areas formerly unscrutinised.

The following discussion illustrates my contributions to knowledge about sight translation and outlines how my study can contribute to interpreting, in general.

6 Discussion

In this chapter, I begin by discussing the significance of my findings for the understanding of sight translation as a unique and challenging translation method that spoken language interpreters conduct. I outline which knowledge, in addition to language skills, interpreters must have to practice sight translation in a safe manner, both as contributors to meaning-making and as coordinators of the interaction.

Wadensjö (1998) introduced the concept of coordination into our understanding of dialogue interpreting. She demonstrated that in addition to translating, the interpreter is coordinating by turn-taking and clarifying for the sake of translation, showing that interpreters are active participants in the interaction. In line with this, I argue that coordination includes interpreters' facilitation of interlocutors' *possibilities* to exercise agency. Agency in this context refers to the ways in which and the extent to which a person is in a position to act if or when they want to (Van Lier, 2010). There is confusion related to what the concept of coordination embraces and how overt this coordination is accepted. That the interpreter affects interaction by coordination has, for example, been used as an argument against the interpreter as being impartial (Skaaden, 2019). What coordination entails in the interactionist view on interpreting needs to be explicated in the same vein as the concept of coordination in Gile's (2009) effort model on sight translation, as discussed in Article 1 and in Section 2.11. My aim is not to define coordination but to explicate what it might entail without compromising the interpreter's role as impartial. I do so with loyalty to all interlocutors' agency, both regarding sight translation and interpreting, in general, which is the focus of the second part of the discussion in Section 6.2.

In the second part, I demonstrate how multimodality might inform interpreting, in general, both as a meaning-making activity and as an interactional practice. I also illustrate how multimodal (inter)action analysis provides a lens that can clarify the multiple, simultaneous actions (translation, coordination, interaction, agency, secure communication) in which the interpreter is involved. Multimodal analysis focusing on actions offers an alternative way to understand the complexity of interpreters' work and might support interpreters in making suitable decisions in their situated practices. Measuring modal density in one of the tools that can be used pedagogically and visualisation through colours in tables can serve as a way to obtain an impression of the interaction.

6.1 Insights into sight translation

In this dissertation, I have explored areas of sight translation that have not been scrutinised before. Analyses of shifts in meaning-making in sight-translated text at the level of metafunctions are, to my knowledge, non-existent. As revealed in the review article (Article 1), analyses on sight translation are predominantly done on the translation process and product from a linguistic, monologist point of view with regard to information retention and linguistic accuracy (Havnen, 2019). Interactional studies on sight translation have a primary focus on the interpreter's coordination of the translation process; in the communicative event, they pay limited attention to the social actors' attention, which is understood as focus, and agency, which is understood as the possibility to act.

I first discuss the multimodal aspect of meaning-making before proceeding to the interactional aspects of sight translation. I then tie the findings together through a discussion of the appropriateness of the method.

6.1.1 Understanding and transferring meaning potential

The review article (Article 1) points to the risk in communication when interpreters do not have the necessary competencies in reading and multimodal text analysis to conduct qualitative sight translation, or when texts are of such a character that they are not suitable for sight translation. Sight translation is prone to disfluencies, inaccuracies and interference, affecting cohesion in texts, which again makes them potentially difficult to follow and thereby challenging to understand and act upon (Havnen, 2019). I also theorise about the modal shift interfering with the listener's perception, as written texts are made for readers, not for listeners. This position gains support from my findings in Article 2. My analysis of interpreters' mediation of written resources demonstrated that some structural semiotic elements were transferred from writing to speech as if the listener saw the text (written interference). Other semiotic resources were not immediately treated as contributing to meaning-making; at least, their meaning potential was not included in the rendition, such as bold letters and other graphic resources. Meaning expressed in ways other than through language was often ignored and dealt with unsystematically (e.g. images, lists). This finding aligns with those of other studies on sight translation showing that the focus is predominantly on the level of verbal meaning-making and the text's informative function (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). In addition, the interpreter's strategies seem to be intuitive (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Jimenez Ivars, 2008). My study (Article 2) shows that processing texts by dominantly focusing on verbal content affects meaning-making. These findings are not exclusively related to interpreters' choices; rather, as I suggest in the review article, they are a consequence of moving from writing to speech.

Here, we can isolate two processes. The first concerns the understanding of meaning potentials in the start text in terms of meaning-making. The second is the transfer of graphic semiotic resources into a new mode (speech) that exploits other resources with different affordances. Understanding is a precondition to rendering meaning potential. This means that interpreters need excellent reading strategies and analytical skills. Angelelli (1999) points out that this competence seems to be taken for granted in interpreting education. Later studies have confirmed the influence of reading strategies on production (Akbari, 2017; Lee et al., 2012; Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). Wu (2019) finds that text readability influences the level of processing. Furthermore, reading strategies and readability are connected with and related to background knowledge (Zheng & Xiang, 2014). Developing competencies in these areas is necessary to prevent the shallow processing of texts, creating the possibility of rendering a broader spectrum of meaning potential.

For the mediation process, it is also necessary to know that resources in the other mode are different and that choices must be made as to which resources express similar meaning potential or function. If the overall tone of a text is very strict, this strictness can be mirrored through voice and prosody in addition to verbal choices. This means that multimodal meaning-making is connected both to the understanding of written texts and to the rendition into the spoken mode. In my material, renditions varied from close to the written source to more adapted to the spoken mode, such as saying 'in parentheses' or 'that means' when a parenthesis is found in the text, respectively. When signs in the text have a more or less conventionalised equivalent in the spoken mode, such as punctuation and question marks, their meaning or function also tends to be included. A graphic resource does not necessarily have a given equivalent in the other mode: 'Punctuation marks may seem entirely conventional. Yet the signs made with them are specific, made for the occasion with culturally given resources' (Kress, 2014, p. 74). In other words, the interpreters must grasp the function a sign has in a given text; these signs are culturally shaped. I mention the potential differences in written and spoken literacy traditions in Article 2, and as Adami and Pinto (2020) also point out, more research into contrastive semiotics of signs in relation to translation is needed.

Interpreters are used to analysing spoken utterances; they know how meaning-making is shaped by the situation, institutional context, culture and discourse. It seems that such knowledge is not part of the understanding of written texts in sight translation, in which the focus is on the verbally produced content in the written text. Not including all resources from the written text in sight translating can be compared with not transferring the illocutionary force in a doctor's speech act or empathic talk in dialogue interpreting (Albl-Mikasa, 2019). The understanding of what contributes to meaning-making and the nature of language in this process is not that straightforward. For some, language would contain all the dimensions above, and excluding some resources would not make any sense. However, the opposite position also exists regarding other resources as additions to language or simply playing a supportive role. Multimodality embraces the idea that all communication is multimodal and that language, in the strict sense of the word, is not always the most important resource in meaning-making (Jewitt et al., 2016).

An example from Felberg and Nilsen (2017), also discussed in Article 1 (Havnen, 2019), is a date that, at sight, is obviously wrong; it is uttered the way it is written. However, the interpreter tries to draw attention to the mistake by voice and gaze, hoping to make the listener react. For the interpreter, the mistake is obvious, as numbers are more salient at sight than when spoken. In writing, numbers are spatially distributed, and it is possible to see them all at once, whereas when spoken, they are sequentially distributed and elusive; hence, spatiality and graphics contribute to meaning. The choice of not pointing out the wrong date shows a reluctance to *add* anything that is not verbally expressed. However, the interpreters still choosing to indicate something wrong through gaze and pointing, maybe because they do not consider the exploitation of other resources than language as additions. From a multimodal point of view, an obviously wrong date could be pointed out, which would be transferring meaning through other resources. Just showing the date on paper amongst other understandable words is a possibility, although this could also be blurrier than what it would be for a reader who understood the text. Some might not agree with a solution in which the interpreter points out, at sight, an obvious mistake, arguing that the interpreter cannot take responsibility beyond the translation. However, I would argue that this is *part of* the translation because of the different affordances of writing and speech. Not addressing it provides inaccuracy and prevents the listener's potential agency (to react) in the situation.

A concern for education and practicing interpreters should be the development of reading and analytical skills that are necessary to understand texts in order to translate at sight. I argue that multimodal analysis must be included in developing such skills. Knowledge about modal affordances and meaning potential is necessary to perform the translation when moving from one mode to another. In the same vein as interpreters must know two languages, when translating at sight, they must also know how different modalities and semiotic resources work together and how to mediate them.

Another question that I posed in Article 1 is the suitability for sight translation; even if interpreters are highly skilled in reading, modal mediation and translating, the method has some interactional implications that do not relate to the interpreters' competence. For the interpreters, this becomes clear when including interaction as a professional concern. As Ozolin (2017) mentioned, it should not be all about the interpreter per se; without the interlocutors, there is no interpreting.

6.1.2 Interaction and the act of sight translation

As suggested in Article 1, detected in Article 2 and further explored in Article 3, the modal shift and the very act of reading aloud influence the interactional pattern in face-to-face encounters. Through my analysis of metafunctions in the text in Article 2, I find that the effect of the modal shift in relation to the interpersonal metafunction is salient. The choice to mediate deictic elements and use spoken discourse markers influences the relationship between the start text and the listener at the level of formality. One example is when two of the interpreters connect an impersonal category with the concrete person (single provider = single mother/single father), or they connect the reader (interpreter) and the listener (client) through the pronoun 'we' (e.g. 'We will now turn to the next page'). The relation between the reader and the listener is also influenced by body posture and proximity coming forward as dialogical; however, the act of reading (sight translation) enforces a monologue. I further explain this in Article 3 and in Section 3.1 in this dissertation. Sight translation is not a shared practice for the participants in the interaction; therefore, exercising agency becomes a challenge, as the social actors do not know how to align with one another. The interpreter controls the mediational means, which affects the possibilities the others have in intervening, thus influencing agency. Agency is also influenced by attention challenges when listening to sight translation. Concentration problems affect memory and the possibility of acting upon the given information. A goal for secure communication is using the information given, as I explain in Article 1 and Chapter 4 regarding plain language. How the reading is organised affects whether and how the other participants might be included to exercise their own agency in the interaction. In the articles, I propose some solutions on how to achieve this.

To conclude, not only does the interpreter need knowledge about how various semiotic resources contribute to meaning-making, but the interpreter also needs to understand the position of the listener(s) and the less-active parties in such situations.

6.1.3 Safe translation?

Safe translation is my construct for this thesis; it relates to secure communication and legal safeguarding (where *safe* comes from). In Norway, the communicative responsibility is placed on the PSR, both through general laws about legal safeguarding and through specialist laws on, for example, patient rights. In interpreted discourse, this responsibility is still within the PSR's role. The interpreter's core principle is impartiality and accuracy, and the interpreter's role is to facilitate such responsibility (Skaaden, 2020). As I have argued in my articles, knowledge about the communicative hindrances in sight translation is specialist knowledge related to the translation and interpreting field. Until the users of interpreting services gain extensive knowledge about the interpreted interaction, the interpreter is the key professional who decides upon the methods to use. This is not as easy as it sounds, as interpreters sometimes lack this knowledge. Even when they are very knowledgeable, they still do not enjoy professional status as co-specialists. Interpreters' lack of knowledge and lack of professional agency are potential threats to communication.

Based on my findings about interpreters' knowledge and practice, shifts in meaning-making and interactional challenges, I find that sight translation is quite a hazardous practice. Frankly, I am speaking with concern about sight translation being done on a regular basis with a range of different texts, such as patient recovery information given after a surgery (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019), lengthy legal documents sight translated on the phone, as in my experience, and specialist reports put forward in meetings with limited time for preparation. I am likewise concerned about the lack of acceptance of the interpreter influencing how the reading is organised.

The dilemma of responsibility when working at the intersection of spoken and written discourse is problematised in the study of Määttä (2015). He poses questions about language ideologies in public service interpreting and connects the language used with power issues. He argues that the discourse on the use of written texts in public administration might be a greater problem than cultural differences or interpreters' competencies. He proposes that communicative challenges are connected with monolingual and monolithic language ideologies. What is salient in Määttä's (2015) text, which takes an interpreter's perspective, is the low status that interpreters have in negotiating their position, as they sometimes fear that they will be regarded as difficult and are thus in danger of losing assignments. The problem of compromising quality for efficiency (and cooperation) is also put forward by interpreters in Norway (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019). Interpreters express concerns about their own practices whilst constructively suggesting how to increase secure communication, especially through better conditions for preparations.

To conclude this section about how my findings can inform sight translation practice, I argue that knowledge about the challenges in sight interpreting must be a concern for interpreter training and interpreter-user training. Even if one conclusion would be to refrain from sight translating most documents, interpreters need to understand why and be able to explain the limitations of the method. *If* interpreters do take up such a task, they need knowledge about how to do it in a safe manner. The bigger question is the ‘if’. Existing practice, including when the interpreter is trained or certified, needs to be questioned from an interactional point of view. More research is needed in this area on various text types and through different media (phone and video) from the cognitive perspective of the listener. Similar questions are raised in relation to translations of written material into sign language: ‘Such development[s give] rise [to] questions regarding which modes and media lend themselves to be use in what contexts for which purposes, questions which have led to an increase of multimodal studies’ (Wurm, 2018, p. 136). There are also questions to be addressed related to written and spoken literacy across cultures and languages, as some cultures have more developed oral practices, different written practices and a distant relationship between writing and speech.

In sum, safe translation is related to an interpreter’s knowledge about meaning-making and interaction; whether such translation should be conducted must be a concern of the knowledgeable interpreter. I believe that interpreter-users cannot be expected to have such specialist knowledge. It is also possible to ask interpreters to refrain from doing sight translation in interpreters’ codes of conduct, as is the case in Belgium (Määttä, 2015).

I now move on to how a multimodal approach to meaning-making and multimodal (inter)action analysis might contribute to interpreting, in general.

6.2 Informing spoken language interpreting

The multimodal exploration into sight translation may serve as a magnifying glass for other forms of interpreting that should also be considered multimodal, even if interpreting is dominated by speech, and the translation is intermodal. Semiotic contribution is more evident when translating from writing to speech because of the shift of mode and the exploitation of different resources in the two modes; it is also more easily detectable through analysis. As all communication is multimodal, I believe that a multimodal approach can benefit spoken language interpreting, in general. In spoken discourse, the utterances undergo interpretation and mediation, and resources other than language can support decision-making. Interpreters' choices affect interaction, a relation that I mentioned before. This is entangled in interpreters' work as translators and coordinators at several levels. I take the impartial, professional interpreter as a starting point.

6.2.1 Multimodal meaning-making in dialogue interpreting

Different languages may express meaning in different ways, such as politeness, humility, assertiveness or agreement. The interpreter must make choices all the time if the aim is to perform similar speech acts as the primary speaker. However, there is still a dominant focus on how this meaning potential is expressed through language use (including situatedness, context, culture and discourse) and a tendency to look at other resources, such as gestures and facial expressions, as complimentary to language or, in the case of positioning, proximity and gaze, as mainly having a structuring function. Including a greater repertoire of meaning-making resources as an integrated part of meaning-making enables the interpreter to make more knowledgeable decisions when translating. This is in line with Krystallidou's (2017) call for focusing on developing visual literacy (i.e. attendance to non-verbals) in interpreter education. By simultaneously analysing all modes and resources, such as gaze, gestures, body posture and proximity, and accepting them as semiotic, one may counteract the linguistic equivalency paradigm that is, even if highly debated, still a prevailing orientation point in translation (Boria & Tomalin, 2020). The same is the case with the verbal focus in interpreter training amongst interpreters and interpreter-users (Krystallidou, 2014; Krystallidou, 2017). These arguments resonate with my experience as an interpreter and an interpreter-trainer. I illustrate this point through an example from my own teaching practice. I begin the course Communicative Competence in Interpreting with the following sentence:

> You know, in Norway, it is <u>not prohibited</u> to sell sex, <u>but</u> to earn money through someone who is selling sex and forcing someone to sell sex, that is <u>not prohibited</u>.

The students (who are mainly also practicing interpreters) easily evaluate this sentence to be wrong. They categorise the last 'not' as a slip of the tongue, which is quite common with the word 'not'. Furthermore, I tell them that the situation was a police interview with a scared trafficking victim. Here, a very empathetic and caring police officer was trying to gain her trust to make her talk. In the end, I tell them that the interpreter chooses to make the sentence right, removing the ‘not’ in the second part. This causes an intense discussion about the interpreter’s role and responsibility. Some claim that the interpreter is in no such position to change anything. ‘What if that was deliberate?’ ‘The interpreter could ask for clarification’. ‘The interpreter should have said it the way it was said’. ‘What if it was a sign of a disconnected and unengaged police officer? Should the victim not know?’ I then present the evidence:

- Knowledge of law (common knowledge, highly debated law, discourse)
- Knowledge about language (slips of the tongue happen, especially with ‘not’)
- Grammatical knowledge (BUT separates opposites)
- Multimodal complexity (The police officer behaved calmly and was empathetic, as seen in his posture, voice and choice of words. The victim was scared, as seen in her posture, gestures, gaze and voice.)
- Knowledge about police methods of establishing rapport and trust
- Interpreters’ codes of conduct as impartial and loyal towards the text

The interpreter has all the choices the interpreters propose above, and all of them will lead to different scenarios that the interpreter is unaware of until one option is chosen. The main basis for decision making in the discussion seems to be the interpreter’s ethics, expressed as a role and responsibility towards the verbal utterance; this is where it becomes complicated. Asking for clarification (even when actually understanding) favours the police officer and attracts attention to the interpreter. Interpreting it the way it was said, depending on the language, might make the mistake more salient or less salient. A literal rendition may also cause confusion and add an element of distrust to the situation. Changing it, if the police officer finds out, might make him distrust the interpreter or be happy for the help, depending on his expectations. There is not only one answer- Leaving the decision to be guided by the interpreter’s role and the verbal utterance and detaching it from the rest of the interaction and meaning-making resources, comes across as very inflexible. Attending to all resources does not necessarily mean mediating them all; rather, it refers to using them to support an adequate translation and courses of action. I return to this in terms of the interpreter’s influence on interaction.

An understanding of interpreting inspired by the four-strata model (discourse, design, production, distribution; see Section 3.2.1) (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001) clarifies that it is impossible to escape being part of meaning-making via the process of re-producing and re-distributing. What is important in interpreting is to accept that despite the ideal goal of accuracy, some shift in meaning-making is inevitable. If we do not recognise this, we cannot analyse or detect the shift. Furthermore, acknowledging the influence prevents the shifts from departing too far from what can be anchored by some kind of evidence related to meaning-making resources. As Krystallidou (2017) puts it, interpreters need visual literacy, and they must actively use gaze to capture resources; this influence meaning-making, giving the interpreters additional bases for their choices.

In the example above, the police officer's attitude contradicts the verbal utterance, as does common knowledge; these all contribute to the meaning-making. Furthermore, every choice has some interactional consequence. Just as the interpreter cannot avoid contributing to meaning-making, the same is valid for their choices having interactional consequences. Only when the interpreter is conscious about their influence on interaction can the interactional work be done smoothly. Several studies have pointed out how interpreters affect interaction and the communicative work of the interlocutors (Krystallidou, 2014; Krystallidou & Pype, 2018; Majlesi & Plejert, 2018; Wadensjö, 2001).

There seems to be an agreement about the necessity for interpreters to coordinate turn-taking and to ask for clarifications, repetitions, explanations and so forth as part of them exercising discretion. However, these actions are related to the verbal interaction:

> The interpreter offers a service by rendering someone else's talk in another language for clients, i.e., speakers and listeners, who both depend on the interpreter's specialised skills to solve their problem of how to communicate (verbally) by applying specialised interpreting skills in unique situations that are difficult to standardise, hence, the interpreter exercises discretion. (Skaaden, 2019, p. 151)

As an example of such exercises of discretion, Skaaden (2019) describes an interpreter correcting their own translation mistake of an ambiguous term, which is in accordance with coordinating translation. She also points to the interpreter's role as a coordinator 'to promote interlocutors' continued focused interaction' (cf. Wadensjö, 1998, p. 274, as cited in Skaaden, 2020). These roles are sometimes misinformed as contradictory (Skaaden, 2020, p. 175). However, through smooth coordination, focused interaction is accomplished by the interpreter not 'getting in the way'. The underlying attitude here is that coordination should not be intrusive.

Making a choice, as described in my teaching example, might be seen as an exercise of discretion by the interpreter; however, expanding the communicative aspect to include more than the verbal dimension might be understood as too intrusive. Such a choice does not advocate for either participant but for both. The coordination is still at the level of meaning-making, but more resources are included to support adequate choices by considering the interaction as a whole.

In the case of sight translation, I have argued for knowledge-based, visible and transparent interaction management (Article 3), exactly for the purpose of facilitating focused interaction for the primary interlocutors. Interpreters are reluctant to interfere too visibly, often leaning on the idea that the others are responsible for their own communication, but not recognising their own influence. Making choices primarily based on role might hamper communication (Dean & Pollard, 2011).

6.2.2 Analysing interaction and making choices

Sight translation might be an extreme case of transferring interactional responsibility to the interpreter. In typical face-to-face interaction, there is a more evenly distributed interactional rhythm. Interpreters affect interactional patterns through their coordination of turns, gazes, their position and their translation decisions. As interpreters are always under pressure to make rapid choices in real time, their analyses and translations must be done quickly. Their choices can be supported by what is foregrounded in the interaction at any given time, which can be visible through modal configurations and modal density (Article 3). The framework of multimodal (inter)action analysis, what is traditionally described as context in other analytical frameworks, is included in analysis as integrated in the interaction (Norris, 2004). In this vein, context-based ethical reasoning for making interpreting choices (Dean & Pollard, 2011) is supported by the multimodal (inter)actional analytical framework. Both ways of understanding interpreting focus on the complexity of the situation, in which rule-based behaviour related to interpreters' role or demands for accuracy often does not fit. Context, or multimodal complexities, might serve as a more reliable basis to inform interpreters' decisions about courses of action as the interaction evolves. This is not a call that leads to excessive liberty and potential anarchy, as Rudvin (2020) warns when discussing the unsolvable problem of impossible equivalence loyalty and real meaning-making. The leading star is still the translation of meaning potential; however, it should be rooted in the analysis of several levels simultaneously, including promoting interactional agency.

Norris (2004, 2019b) explains that higher-level actions are mediational means/cultural tools that are utilised and work simultaneously in chains of several lower-level actions. A higher-level action that involves the highest modal density is foregrounded, as explained in Section 4.4. In my teaching example, gaining trust could be defined as a higher-level action, foregrounded by the modal density: positioning, body posture, use of voice, choice of words and gaze. If the interpreter asked for clarification, the translation would be foregrounded perhaps, although not necessarily, at the cost of gaining trust. The interpreter's actions are part of the higher-level actions of gaining trust, translating and exercising a professional role. Choosing a course of action based on the interpreter's prescribed role would foreground the interpreter's acting out their professional role, in which maybe the higher-level action of gaining trust should have been given primacy. Sometimes, the interpreter's role must be foregrounded, such as when facilitating attention in sight translation. Again, this must be decided upon based on continuous analytical work. Accepting that there are several actions going on simultaneously and looking for their interconnectedness might help us to further understand the complex interactional dynamics of interpreted interaction.

We know that interpreters are coordinators of turns; however, what dictates the turn varies. Turn-taking is influenced by interpreters' memory capacity, note-taking abilities and the interlocutors' chunking or not chunking. As rhythm is an important cohesive device in communication, interpreters' turn-taking should be further scrutinised in terms of rhythm and attention, which Wadensjö (2001) also proposes. She accentuates the need for the interpreter to be in the communicative radius to be able to manage the turns and to have the opportunity to exploit sight/gaze. Gaze is a powerful tool in face-to-face interactions for all the interlocutors involved (Vranjes et al., 2018; Wadensjö, 2001). An exploration of its full potential when listening, speaking and taking turns could counteract the strange idea about instructing people where to look in interpreted interaction; instructions are even written down in some codes of ethics (Phelan, 2020, p. 107), as are other prescriptions of behaviour (Dean & Pollard, 2011). If we accept monitoring interlocutors' comprehension as part of the interpreting process, as Englund Dimitrova and Tiselius (2016) proposed, gazing is an indispensable tool.

If an interpreter can take very long turns, it does not necessarily mean that it is the right choice to do so. In the same vein, even if the interpreter has the capacity and knowledge to sight translate a document, this does not mean that it is a good idea in the given situation. Monteoliva-Garcia (2020) describes a challenge that police officers encountered when working with interpreters; they found it difficult to gain access to the interlocutors' emotional aspects and had a reduced ability to manage them. Such knowledge is valuable for interpreters; they are not supposed to manage the emotional aspects, but they should choose courses of action that support such work though turn-taking and the use of embodied resources. Interpreters' use of gestures, gaze and body posture can support or counteract the other participants' communicative work (Krystallidou, 2014; Wadensjö, 2001). I find it important to regulate interpreters' strategies via a focus on interaction that is less interpreter centred.

Recognising interpreters' impact and learning about interpreter-users' perspectives strengthen interpreters' knowledgeable facilitation of agency. This should be a shared responsibility that can be promoted by engaging with interpreter-users in research, such as what Monteoliva-Garcia (2020) does.

I finish this discussion with reflections about the interpreter's responsibility that I have already touched upon in all three articles and in this discussion.

6.2.3 Professional responsibility

Moving towards responsibility and teleological ethical thinking, Dean and Pollards (2011) argue, enhances both critical thinking and confidence, as decisions must be made based on choices between several solutions, seeking the optimal one. This view is also in line with another approach promoting knowledge-based solutions that interpreters can explain and reflect upon (Albl-Mikasa, 2019). Decisions should be informed by understanding, not by role.

Despite the recognition of the coordinating role that interpreters have in interaction (Roy, 2000; Wadensjö, 1998), this area is still a bit fuzzy because of confusion between the interpreter's professional role as impartial and the communicative role of actively contributing through translation and coordination. Even if an interpreter is part of the co-construction and co-production of meaning and contributes to the discourse process, this does not mean that they must exercise advocacy on behalf of the interlocutors. Rather, the interpreter's impartial role frames how the interaction and translation might be managed to the benefit of all participants' agency.

The discussion about the interpreter's role and responsibility is, as mentioned, multifaceted: levels are mixed up, the terminology is confusing, the status of ethical codes or codes of conduct varies and interpreting is not necessarily defined but rather implicitly understood (Ozolins, 2016). The same can be said about language, meaning and coordination. I agree that signals about what interpreting actually is can be confusing. Interpreters learn that meaning-making is complicated and that there are no clear solutions to all challenges; however, they are also informed by rule-based guidelines of behaviour (Dean & Pollard, 2011). Many interpreters learn that they must take responsibility for turn-taking, thereby influencing interaction. At the same time, the interpreter shall only translate the interlocutor's verbal utterances and not take communicative responsibility beyond verbal communication; this is the position promoted in the Norwegian model (Phelan, 2020, p. 120). Therefore, the interpreter shall only translate, and the interpreter shall coordinate and not get in the way of communication. The effect of the coordination, however, is conditional to the interaction; hence, it is a concern for the interpreter. The fine line between responsibility for the interaction (providing a possibility for agency) and not for its communicative success (advocacy), is intricate and demands appropriate analytical lenses.

Taking responsibility demands knowledge. Interpreting in public services is its infancy when it comes to professionalisation, and some countries are more regulated in practice than others. There is still a way to go before the profession is filled with educated practitioners recognised as specialists at the same level as the consumers of interpreting services are. So far, we must continue to develop knowledge through research that can inform educators and stakeholders who are interested in secure communication and safe translation.

This study is partial and exploratory in nature; it is open for expansion and challenge. I am curious to engage in cross-disciplinary research with other translation and interpreting practices across modes. The limits and potentials of different ways of translation and interpretation may become clearer by taking a closer look at the broader spectrum of meaning-making resources invoking new solutions and changes of norms. Some areas of translation studies have already incorporated multimodality into their fields, such as sign language interpreting, subtitling, audio description and literary translation. Translation studies, in general, show an increased interest in multimodality (Boria & Tomalin, 2020), a field that my thesis contributes to.

7 Conclusion

Through the exploration of sight translation from a multimodal perspective, I have contributed to the field with knowledge that refines our understanding of sight translation. I have used different approaches to account for challenges in meaning-making that are consequences of the translation method and the change of mode. I have also explored interactional rhythm. My choice of analytical tools has proven beneficial to understanding the complexities of sight translation at the point in which spoken and written discourse interact. I have also illustrated how multimodal (inter)action analysis may provide a lens to clarify the multiple, simultaneous actions that interpreters are involved in.

This work also contributes to multimodality studies; so far, both the relation between speech and writing (Jewitt et al., 2016) and the intersection between translation and multimodality have not been sufficiently developed (Pérez-González, 2020). Multimodality is more integrated into translation research than knowledge on translation is into multimodality (Kaindl, 2020). The description of an interpreter as a mediational means (Norris, 2019b) is an example.

I show that although speech and writing are proximal modes, their different affordances and the way these are mediated have an effect on meaning potential and agency in face-to-face encounters. This relation, which is under-researched, should be further analysed both in interpreting and in monolingual read-aloud practices in schools, courts and other institutional settings.

Future research should include the mapping of documents that undergo sight translation and listeners' reception studies, preferably in cooperation with consumers of interpreting services, as a step towards collaborative concerns about legal safeguarding.

8 References

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9 Appendix

Appendices

Appendix 1: List of literature that forms the basis of Article 1

Appendix 2: Text for sight translation, Norwegian, also an appendix to Article 2

Appendix 3: Text for sight translation, English translation

Appendix 4: Transcriptions and annotations of AOIs, basis for Article 2

Appendix 5 Spreadsheet representing annotations of modal density, basis for Article 3

Appendix 6: Research permission from Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD)

Appendix 7: Consent form – Participants

Appendix 8: Extensions of research permission from NSD

Appendix 9: Information to participants about the extension of the project

Articles

Article 1: ‘Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation – A critical review’

Status: Published in issue 6 of *FITISPos International Journal – Public Service Interpreting and Translation*, May 2019.

Article 2: ‘Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making’

Status: Published in issue 34 of the *Journal of Specialised Translation (JoSTrans),* July 2020.

Article 3: ‘Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction’

Status: Resubmitted after peer review to *Perspectives: Studies in Translation Theory and Practice,* December 2020

Year	Title	Writer	Aim	Method	Findings/Discussion	Published in
1989	Information Retention as a Parameter for the Comparison of Sight Translation and Simultaneous Interpretation: An Experimental Study	Viezzi, M	Compare Sight translation to Simultaneous interpretation Research has not documented the effect of ST as an effective training tool	Measuring information retention Mental processes that are represented in both tasks Experimental Interpreting students 4th year and interpreters	Confirms earlier findings ST more shallow processing Related to morphosyntactic differences in language pair Monolingual reading and listening similar (uclear if subjects read aloud or silent) Processes of ST and SI are not parallel due to the "forms of the messages are presented in" p. 68.	The interpreters newsletter No2
1990	The importance of Sight Translation in an Interpreting Training Program	Weber, W	Explaining the purpose of Sight translation for students who training to be conference interpreters	Experience (1 reference)	You must use strategies to for presenting in the form of a restructured "oral" speech ST for preparation Good for speed, should be thought early Differentiate St for T and I Needs to be thought separately	Interpreting - Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow Chapter, Monograph ATA
1992	The praise of sight translation (and squeezing the last drop thereout of)	Viaggio, S	Arguing for the usefulness of ST as a tool Introducing a game he uses in teaching – introduces different strategies	Experience from teaching	Introduces about translation and interpretation (differs as fundamentally as writing and speech)	The interpreters Newsletter 4
1993	Teaching sight translation to future interpreters	Martin, A	Towards a definition "hybrid" Normative "oralizing" written resources (punctuation). Arguing for ST in studies and the necessity of practice	Case study Self paced translation of written text with little preparation. Student exercise - outlines teaching methodology – experience based on Curves et al.	ST included in training for preparation of other skills + a method Problematize differences in written and oral language Added difficulty Linguistic inference Mediating modes (tendency to source fidelity)	XIII FIT world congress - paper
1996	Sight Translation And Human Information Processing	Moser – Mercer, B	Presentation on preliminary findings on approaches to ST Defines ST through process "aural and visual information processing"	Experimental design - comparing professionals and students. Text to be rendered orally in front of an audience. A speech. Building on experiments on SI	Discusses ST status and different forms – many variations. Results: Significant difference in time Students; source oriented – micro-content. Professionals shifting more easily between modes (medium). Prof: Faster analyzes, less misreading, better repair	Proceedings from the Fifth International Conference Basic Issues in Translation Studies

1998	Medium shift in interpretation: Do interpreters produce oral texts?	Ondelli, S	Discusses the continuum of spoken and written language, linguistic approach Context: Conference interpreting Can interpreters ignore their audience?	Analyzing use of demonstratives in 12 Italian spoken interpreted texts. Exams SI and CI.	Must make a distinction between written for reading aloud and written for reading. Planning is a decisive factor. Dejan Le Feal (1982) interpreters find "medium shift" more difficult. In their text they address cohesion and textuality. References. Text are made more explicit at surface level	The Interpreters' Newsletter
1999	The role of reading in Sight translation: Implications for teaching	Angelelli, C	Arguing for developing reading skills in ST training. ST complex activity. Aim: Questioning some assumptions made in teaching ST	Theoretical discussion Reading theory Schemata theory Focus on process	It is possible to train strategic reading for ST deriving from theory. Many assumptions, little research on what produce the source of problem/challenge in ST Discusses relations and references – coherence. Background information crucial. Conclusion: ST widespread, not systematically implemented, should be.	The ATA chronicle
2004	Sight translation and interpreting A comparative analysis of constraints and failures	Agrifoglio, M	Exploring the conditions for preforming – identifying constraints and problems ST: Complex and unique technique "at the boundary between T&I" Cognitively demanding Unexplored	Experimental design Comparing ST with CI and SI Monologues Assessed by listening and transcriptions Six professional interpreters Oral and written language – Chafe and Danielewicz	Oral and written language affects the interpreter's perception – readers and listeners do not concentrate on the same elements Higher information retention in ST ST more meaning and expression failures Memory necessary also in ST for coherence and cohesion. "Losing the referent". Strong interference (visual)	Interpreting
2004	Shared Attention during Sight Translation, Sight Interpretation and Simultaneous Interpretation	Lambert, S	Is performance enhanced or hindered by visual presentation of the text "a specific type of written translation as well as a variant of oral interpretation" (process more towards INT)	Experimental design comparing attention I ST, SIT and SIM Cognitive approach. Simultaneous processing Same text, three parts 14 subjects ST, SIT, SIM Training Text assessed by three judges towards a translation of the text	ST and SInt has higher performance score than SI. Suggestive trend for future research ST can be used as an intermediate step towards SIT and SIM. Different processes and procedures. Benefit from automaticity – in initial stages, mistakes are made in output.	Meta

2005	Training of Interpreters: Some Suggestions on Sight Translation Teaching	Ersozlu, E	Differs between ST as an exercise and method Suggestions for exercises in ST	Sharing exercises from interpreter training in Turkey	Exercises are to build mental agility, linguistic flexibility and analytical skills. As a method, fidelity to text is crucial – register is kept and strategies such as paraphrasing is not used	Translation journal
2007	Mastering sight translation skills	Sampaio, G	Discussion on the state of the art Different ST definitions, theory and skills Unexplored but widespread in various forms	Presenting the methodological approach in conference interpreting training in Brazil on the bases of preliminary research and experience	Defining "written input(…) verbal output" "the interpreter has to be especially efficient in changing modes(…) p. 65 Theory: Gile, effort model Course: Efficient. Students need to be proper training due to the complexity of ST	Traduca y Cominicacao
2007	A vista; New challenges for tailor made translation types on the example of recorded sight translation	Biela-Wolonciej, A	Illustrated a new technique in the technical/business world. Refers to ST as a distinct method – especially in USA	Practitioner description of steps when doing a recorded ST Comparing the methods in a table	Corrections. Output quality. Communicative aspects Problematize change of mode, cognitively demanding for interpreter Questions Lamberts performance scores ST is demanding for the listener Lower cost than written translation	Kalbotura
2007	Syntacrobatics Quality and reformulation in simoultaneous with text	Setton, R & Motta, M	Testing quality of SI with text. Exploring ways of triangeling sources to determine interpreting quality	Testing user quality judgment and transcript based measures of accuracy, style, fluency 24 speeches in French from 2 English speeches. Experts and novices Detailed account	Quality in interpreting is difficult to assess. Cherry picking Discussing the difficulties of ecological validity in experiments. Assessing audios Major errors significant predictor, positive effect of lexical and cohesive elaboration, none for restructuring. Experience matter	Interpreting
2008	Sight translation and Written translation; A comparative analysis of problems, strategies and translation errors within the PACTE translation competence model	Ivars, J	Finding specific translation skills and competences in ST compared to written translation	Experimental design, empirical and exploratory Last year students Translating, ST – cause of problems Monologues.224 words Transcriptions Questionnaire Self-perceived problems and strategies Pilot PACTE	The study of problems and strategies – gives insight to process ST has time constraints, lack of macro processing. Quantitative and qualitative differences in numbers of problems Differences in sub-competences Pshyco-physiological components more relevant in ST Low awareness of strategies	International journal of interpretation and translation

2009	Exploring Translation and Interpreting Hybrids. The Case of Sight Translation	Dragsted, B & Hansen, I.G	Reporting on a comparative study written and ST Defining ST as hybrid On oral and written language: Chafe and Danielewitcz	Experiment Small scale, preliminary Comparative Monologues Transcription Can translators benefit from ST?	Orality has a lot to offer translation Behavioural differences in task solution Reading differently Assessing: accuracy, fidelity, clarity ST text manipulated into written	Meta
2010	Skill transfer from Sight Translation to simultaneous Interpreting: A case study of an effective teaching technique	Song, S	Presenting a case study to demonstrate the potential in a new technique of teaching ST for SI.	Pedagogical experiment - preliminary Students Monologue Using PowerPoint to simulate input conditions in SI – the time constraint	Compares this method to ST prepared and non prepared Discusses the skill transfer	International Journal of Interpreter Education
2010	Cognitive effort, syntactic disruption, and visual interference in a sight translation task	Shreve, G.M, Lacruz, I & Angelone, E	Aims to explore cognitive effort in ST compared to written Giles effort model (old) Emphasizes C	Eye tracking revealing information on influence of disruption on cognition effort. Manipulated texts with AOI 11 participants, translation students – 1 phd	ST sensitive to disruption Extraordinarily sensitive to visual interference Supporting Agrifoglio(2004) on SL visual presence impacting TL expression and coordination of reading and translating Length also matters	Translation and Cognition (book)
2010	Sight translation Prima vista	Čeňková, I	Overview Defined as a separate mode of interpreting "(…)from written into oral form".		The poor cousin of other interpreting modes Practiced in a wide range of work situations Little attention in research Used in training	Handbook of translation studies
2011	Speaking your translation: students´first encounter with speech recognition technology	Dragsted, B, Mees I.M, Hansen I.G	Examining quality outcome compared to time spent on tasks and find out if translators could benefit from speech recognition technology	Discussing 14 students process and product in written translation, ST and ST with speech recognition (SR) technology in an experimental design Some validity problems	Quality is not considerable better in written translation compared to ST ST is faster than both written and SR *(transcription time in ST added?)* Errors in speech recognition caused by mispronunciation (2^{nd} language problem)	The International Journal of Translation and Interpreting Research
2011	Sight translation and speech disfluency Performance analysis as a window to cognitive translation process	Shreve, G.M, Lacruz, I & Angelone, E	Proposes that speech disfluencies in ST provides information about cognitive phenomena associated with ST as well as problem solving	Experiment Manipulated text A and B with AOI Eye tracking, key logging Written translation and ST Translation students – new at task	Method can inform translation studies about translation expertise and challenges in translation process. Congruence to eye tracking study Connection between disfluency and repair No overt listener	Methods and strategies of Process research: Integrative approaches in Translation studies (Book)

2012	Performance Criteria Descriptors for Cognitive Processing Skills used in Sight Translating	Paez, B	Paper suggests ways to improve the clarity of assessment criteria by improving details of required skills and knowledge	Literature search on ST and cognition, discussing skill/assessment criteria's on the bases of research	Distinct mode of interpreting in Australia Cognitive processing abilities: analyzing and scanning texts, memory, controlling reading, producing concurrently. Research gap: on practice and skills in specific settings and cultures	Conference proceedings AUSIT 2012
2012	What skills to student interpreters need to learn In sight translation training	Lee, J	Discussed pedagogical implications for interpreter training, discussed condensation as a strategy and proposes further research	Preliminary findings of pilot study of 3 professional and 6 student interpreters performances measured by accuracy, target language expressions and delivery qualities Authentic texts	Intermodality, written source and oral target text, has not been examined in existing literature Delivery: time and disfluency. Repairs are frequent. Accuracy =the message Students more expression failures Preparation activities did not show a meaningful connection	Meta
2014	Sight translation as a topic in interpreting research: progress, problems and prospects	Li, X	Reporting on the state-of-the-art. Outlining possible research needs	Critical evaluation of current literature Discusses methodology, definition and classification, cognitive features, efficiency as aptitude test, pedagogy and assessment.	Important area, under researched Professional practice ST as pedagogical tool Studied as process, product, pedagogy Controlled experimental studies	Across Languages and Cultures
2014	The impact of cultural background knowledge in the processing of metaphorical expressions	Zheng, B & Xiang, X	Exploring the role of impact of cultural background knowledge on ST with focus on metaphors	Experimental design. 68 English language students. Course in interpreting. Experiment group and control group Triangulating results – recordings, transcripts, interviews	Following up a study (2013) concluding that metaphors demand more effort in the understanding phase. Cultural background knowledge alleviates cognitive load – shorter time, better quality Not influencing choice of strategy, but reduces omissions	Translation and Interpreting studies
2014	Undergraduate research on Sight Translation: Implications for Interpreter Training	Sampaio, G	Presenting four undergraduate projects as part of an ongoing project on ST lead by author.	Empirical, qualitative, comparative. Analyzing texts. Theoretical underpinnings Interpretive theory of Translation and Effort models.	Two projects on ST form the point of view of students, one trainer, one on professionals. Students: many difficulties Trainers: Little formal training, find it very relevant for both T&I Prof: ST is fundamental and frequently used More research needed	TradTerm

2014	A study of the problems encountered in sight translation	Shula, P	Exploring ST in terms of faithfulness to meaning and purpose of source message, proper use of expressions and grammar. Background knowledge and problem-solving skills.	Experiment on ST from L1 to L2. 9 T&I students. Small scale study. Text 107 words Theoretical underpinnings Chafe and Danilewicz (1987) and Gile (2009) Norm of ST: Mikkelson (1995)	Results: Focus on perfect lexical choices. Obstacle in production, hesitations, repairs. Errors, omissions, clumsiness. Problems observed as in Ivars (2008) “The translator's perception of his task and how he positions himself in the translation process as a whole affects his approaches to problem solving”	CBÜ Sosyal Bilimer Dergisi (Journal of Social Science)
2015	Sight Translation	Chen, W	Defines with focus on process. “hybrid” T&I.	Overview – state of the art Defining key terms Historical perspectives Current issues: ST in curriculum, in professional environments, Recommendation for practice: T&I, pedagogics Future directions	Difficult process Often treated as skill,, not mode Differentiate ST in conferences and legal settings. ST without preparation (court) - legal implication. A distinctive mode, specific competence, not all interpreters are trained.	The Routledge Handbook of Interpreting
2015	Reading skills for sight translation in public sector services	Nilsen, A.B & Monsrud, M	Discussing reading skills for ST and suggesting a way of testing	Testing reading speed in 92 interpreters with various language background	Reading skills can not be taken for granted Important skill 70% have speed below the average reader Variations according to language background	The international journal of Translation and Interpreting Research
2015	Utfordringer ved prima vista tolking i asylintervjuer	Felberg, T.R.	Aims to find out why there is such variation in interpreting speed in ST amongst interpreters	Exploring the case of ST in Asylum Interviews. 13 reports, qualitative and speed, 4 languages, work shop with interpreters, researcher´s notes.	Complex explanation; interpreter, text & context, the other interlocutors, fatigue etc.	Fleks
2017	Exploring Semiotic Resources in Sight Translation	Felberg, T & Nilsen, A.B	What kind of semiotic resources do interpreters use when interpreting from a written text? Multimodal and socio-semiotic	Exploratory video-recorded experiment Three professional interpreters. Two texts. Passive listener. Focus group interview.	Variations between the interpreters. ST changes the interactional pattern Not all text suitable for ST Differences in gaze Calls for teaching multimodal aspects systematically	JoSTrans

2017	Short- Term Memory in the Production Phase of Sight Translation	Van Dam, H & Sand Pedersen, E.	Aims to test the hypothesis if short term memory is required in target text production	Experiments on T&I students Spanish - Danish. Quantitative and qualitative analyzes. Manipulated text (problem triggers). News article. Also interviews. Chafe and Danilevicz (1987) Gile (1995, 2009)	Hypothesis confirmed. The translators had little awareness of it. Effort model needs to be clarified when it comes to memory effort – both in reading and in production. Self –monitoring an effort in all models.	Journal of Language and Communication in Business
2017	Needed Skills and Strategies to Improve the Efficiency of Sight Translation in Classroom Context	Akbari, A	Investigating transcriptions on the basis of accuracy, delivery quality and target language expressions (Lee, 2012).	Pilot study. 10 students. 4. Professionals. English to Persian. 3 texts Conference int. Time measure of reading and interpreting. Error evaluation of transcript. Raters: professional interpreters. Interpreters self-perceived problems	Students struggle to free them self from source. Strategies needed for fluency (time) and quality. Simplifications: paraphrasing, restructuring and sentence splitting. Macro-level processing. “(…)Crossing out irrelevant and excessive information and attaining smooth and precise text in target text”. (p. 40) More research is needed on strategies.	TransKom
2018	Sight Translation and its status in training of interpreters and translators	Krapivkina, O.A	Investigating challenges in ST and exercises to overcome them	Descriptive analyses of teacher assessment and student's self-assessment questionnaires. Text 248 words. 57 students	Public speaking is the most challenging criteria Register and genre, easy Needed training: clarity and fluency of delivery, the coherence of discourse, accuracy, speed, tone, volume Should be thought separately	Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics
2018	Interpreter-mediated drafting of written records in police interviews	Defranc, B & Verliefde, S	Is there a written turn? Which position does it have? How does the interpreter attend to the written turn?	Singel case study on turn taking - exploring the case of text drafting in interview Interpreters qualifications unknown	Pas du quatre – crossing both language and modal divide. Interpreter exploit the written text to shape turns Turn status is attributed to the document.	Target
2018	Sight Translation in Public Service interpreting: a dyadic or triadic exchange	Vargas-Urpi, M	Exploring ST as dyadic or triadic in a public sector setting	Simulation, role-play. Information about student enrolment Chinese - Spanish Short text 1 PSI, 4 cultural mediators.	Interactional angle Cultural mediators more dyadic. The PSI more triadic Text structure is challenging ST not defined	The Interpreter and Translator trainer

Appendix 2

Hva skal du gjøre ved sykdom?

Selv om du er frisk og rask i dag, kan det skje uforutsette hendelser som gjør at du ikke kan utføre jobben din. I den forbindelse har du både plikter og rettigheter.

Vi har to ordninger ved sykdom – det ene er «egenmelding» og det andre er «sykemelding». Her kan du lese det viktigste om de ulike ordningene[1]

Egenmelding

For å kunne benytte deg av egenmelding, må du ha arbeidet **minst to måneder** for den arbeidsgiveren du melder deg syk for. Du kan bruke egenmelding inntil tre dager fire ganger i løpet av tolv måneder

- For fravær utover tre kalenderdager, kan arbeidsgiver kreve sykemelding
- Egenmeldt fravær forut for sykemelding, regnes som egenmeldingsdager
- Egenmelding kan ikke kombineres med gradert sykemelding (se punktet om sykemelding på neste side)

Ved barn eller barnepassers sykdom kan du ha inntil ti dagers fravær. Egne regler gjelder for omsorg for flere enn to barn og barn med funksjonshemninger, samt om du er aleneforsørger. Se Folketrygdloven §§ 9-5 til 9-8. Du har rett til fravær ved barn eller barnepassers sykdom etter fire ukers ansettelse hos arbeidsgiver.

Dersom bedriften du jobber i er en IA-virksomhet, kan du bruke egenmelding i opptil åtte kalenderdager. Egenmelding kan brukes i 24 kalenderdager i løpet av en 12-måneders periode. Det er ikke begrensning på antall ganger retten kan benyttes.

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[1] Det gjelder egne regler for frilansere og selvstendig næringsdrivende https://www.nav.no/no/Person/Arbeid/Sykmeldt%2C+arbeidsavklaringspenger+og+yrkesskade/Sykepenger/Sykepenger+til+selvstendig+naringsdrivende+og+frilansere

Hva skal du gjøre ved sykdom?

Sykemelding

Hvis du ikke har rett til å benytte deg av egenmelding, må du ha sykemelding av lege hvis det er medisinske grunner til at du ikke kan jobbe.

Den som sykmelder deg skal vurdere gradert (delvis) sykmelding og diskutere muligheter og løsninger med deg. Det finnes ulike typer sykmeldinger, og ofte er det mulig å være delvis i arbeid.

For å ha rett til sykepenger i mer enn 8 uker, har du som hovedregel plikt til å være i arbeidsrelatert aktivitet

Det finnes ulike ordninger for at du skal kunne komme fortest mulig tilbake i arbeid.

1) Gradert sykemelding (du opprettholder kontakt med arbeidsgiver og gjør tilpassede oppgaver)
2) Avventende sykemelding (arbeidsgiver får beskjed om at sykemelding kan unngås ved tilrettelegging av arbeidsoppgaver)
3) Sykemelding for enkeltstående behandlingsdager (Du kan få sykmelding hvis du får behandling som gjør at du ikke kan jobbe samme dag)
4) Friskmelding til arbeidsformidling (du går fra å være stønadsmottaker til å være aktiv arbeidssøkende).

Finn mer informasjon på www.nav.no eller snakk med din fastlege

What to do in the event of illness?

Although you may be in good health now, unforeseen events may make you unable to do your work. In such a situation, you have both obligations and rights.

We have two schemes in the event of illness – one is the «self-certification», and the other is the «sick note». Here you can read the most important things to know about the different schemes[1]

The self-certification

To qualify for the self-certification, you must have worked for **at least two months** for the employer from whom you report that you are ill. You may use the self-certification up to three days four times in twelve months

- For absences extending beyond three calendar days, the employer may demand a sick note
- Self-certified leave prior to a sick note is counted as self-certification days
- Self-certification may not be combined with a part-time sick leave (please see the section on sick notes on the next page)

In the event of a child or childminder's illness, you may take up to ten days of leave. Separate rules apply when caring for more than two children, or for children with disabilities, as well as for single providers. Please see the National Insurance Act, Sections 9-5 through 9-8. You are entitled to leaves for the illness of a child or a childminder after four weeks of employment with your employer.

If the company where you work is an IW company, you have the right to self-certify up to eight calendar days. Self-certification may be used for 24 calendar days in a 12-month period. There is no limit on how many times this right may be used.

[1] Separate rules apply to freelancers and self-employed persons https://www.nav.no/no/Person/Arbeid/Sykmeldt%2C+arbeidsavklaringspenger+og+yrkesskade/Sykepenger/Sykepenger+til+selvstendig+naringsdrivende+og+frilansere

What to do in the event of illness?

Sick notes

If you do not qualify to use self-certification, you will need a sick note from a physician if there are medical reasons for why you cannot work.

The sick note's issuer must consider a part-time sick note and discuss possibilities and solutions with you. There are various types of sick notes, and often, it is possible to work part-time.

To be entitled to sickness benefit for more than 8 weeks, it is generally mandatory to participate in a work-related activity.

There are various schemes to get you back to work as soon as possible.

1) Part-time sick note (you stay in touch with your employer and do adapted work tasks)
2) Pending sick note (your employer is notified that sick leave can be avoided if your work tasks can be adapted to your needs)
3) Sick note for individual treatment days (You can get a sick note if you receive treatment that means that you cannot work the same day)
4) Fit for employment (you transition from receiving benefits to actively seeking employment).

Find more information at www.nav.no or talk to your regular general practitioner.

Appendix 4

Transcriptions and annotations related to Article 2

This document is a representation of how I transcribed and annotated the recorded material which was a sight translation of a Norwegian document (Norwegian version Appendix 2, English version Appendix 3). which composes the bases for Article 2. The analytical steps are described in more detail in chapter 4.3.2 and 4.3.3 in the synopsis.

Since the material was a focused, controlled experiment and limited in scope, I preferred to use a basic word document for transcription and annotation. The text length was 413 words and the sight translation lasted around 5-8 minutes.

Further in this document I show transcriptions and/or descriptions of how the interpreters addressed preplanned, non-verbal Areas of Interest (AOIs) that were in the source text such as quotation marks, illustrations, bullet points etc. When going through the AOIs here, I use the English translation of the Norwegian source text, however I worked with the Norwegian source text- The red markings are additions to the words and is a mediation of the non-verbal resources which meaning we understand from lay out, genre and use of semiotic resources. Also, deictic resources are marked in red when changed.

The interpreters´ strategies of dealing with non-verbal resources are annotated with a system inspired by Wadensjö (1998). Wadensjö categorized the interpreter's renditions in relations to source text closeness in meaning, as close, reduced, expanded etc. (p. 106-108), these rendition categories that are frequently used in interpreting research. I have adapted this way of thinking into categories based on how the interpreters express the meaning of nonverbal resources. These were strategies that I detected in the interpreters´ renditions after listening and transcribing their translations of the AOIs. I ended up with the following 4 categories of how meaning is (not) expressed/rendered.

i.	**0: not rendered**
ii.	**1: explicated as in the text (i.e. (---) as 'in parentheses')**
iii.	**2: explicated through a) gesture, b) tone, c) binder (discourse marker) or d) gaze**
iv.	**3: verbalising the semiotic meaning of the sign/reference**

Appendix 4

Broadly, the categories are not rendered (0), direct transfer (1), mediated nonverbally (2) and expanded, verbalising the semiotic meaning (3).
In the following, I present the AOIs and how I have categorised them.

AOI 1: Headline: name of the document/structure

Text: What should you do in case of illness?[1]

INT A:

Dakle, ovo je informaciona brožura naslovljena Šta raditi prilikom bolesti

Well, this is an information brochure entitled What to do in events of illness

INT B:

Znači stoji naslov šta treba da uradim u koliko sam bolestan

Well, headline says what should I do if I am ill

INT C:

Šta da radim u slučaju bolesti?

What should I do in case of illness?

		INT A	INT B	INT C	Comment
AOI 1	Headline	3	1	0	
AOI 1	Reference ‘you’	Neutral	1st person	1st person	All change

AOI 2: NAV – logo /power/

See Appendix 2

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 2	LOGO	0	0	0	

[1] The translated brochure says, ‘What to do in the event of illness?’ The translator found it more idiomatic. I used a more literal translation here, as the translator’s choice does not illustrate the point from the Norwegian source text.

Appendix 4

AOI 3: Quotation marks /highlighting/

Text: We have two arrangements related to illness—the first is a 'self-certification' and the other is a 'sick note'.

INT A:

(…) prvo je takozvano lično obaveštenje o bolesti, a drugo je lekarsko uverenje o bolovanju

(…) the first is so called self-certification, and the other is a doctor's sick note

INT B:

(..) jedna od njih je vlastito opravdanje, pod navodnicima, a drugo je bolovanje.

(…) one of them is self-certification, in quotation marks, and the other is a sick note

INT C:

(..) jedna je da napravite sebe lično opravdanje (…) i drugo se zove bolovanje

(…) one is to make a self-certification, and the other is called sick note

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 3	'self-certification'	3	1	0	
AOI 3	'sick note'	0	0	2	

AOI 4: Here /deictic element/

Text: Here you can read the most important about the two arrangements

INT A:

U ovoj brušuri možete dakle da pročitate još (...)

In this brochure you can then read more (…)

INT B:

Ovde možete pročitati još (…)

Here you can read more (…)

C: I ovde možete pročitati još (…)

And here you can read more (…)

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 4	Reference 'here'	In this brochure	Here	And here	

Appendix 4

AOI 5: Footnote /exception to arrangements/

Footnote says: [1] Separate rules apply to freelancers and self-employed persons (link to web-site)

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 5	Footnote	0	0	0	

AOI 6: Cartoon /illustrates content, supplement/

There were two, none of them where made visible (see appendix 2)

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 6	Cartoon	0	0	0	

AOI 7: Sub headline /structure/

Text: The self-certification

INT A:

Prvo je dakle lično obaveštenje o bolesti

Well, first self-certification

INT B:

Prvo vlastito opravdanje

First *self-certification*

INT C:

Znači lično opravdanje

Well, *self-certification*

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 7	Headline	2c (3)	2c	2c	

AOI 8: bold /emphasizing/

Text: To qualify for the self-certification, you must have worked for **at least two months** for the employer from whom you report that you are ill[2].

[2] In Norwegian, it says 'to make use of', not to be qualified. I use the translated text to avoid confusion when looking at the Appendix with the English text.

Appendix 4

INT A:

Da biste bili u stanju da upotrebite licno obaveštenje, morate biti zaposelni **najmanje dva meseca** (…)

To able to use of the self-certification, you need to be employed for ***at least two months*** *(…)*

INT B:

Da biste mogli da se koristite time što se zove vlastito opravdanje, morati raditi najmanje dva meseca (rising tone)

To make use of what is called self-certification, you have to work for at least two months (rising tone).

INT C:

Da biste mogli da napravite lično opravdanje, morate da radite najmanje dva meseca kod tog poslodavca kod koga ste se razboleli (looks upward)

To make a self-certification, you must work for at least two months at the employer where you got ill (looks upwards).

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 8	Bold	2b	2b	2d	

AOI 9: Bullet points /structure/

- For absences extending beyond three calendar days, the employer may demand a sick note
- Self-certified leave prior to a sick note is counted as self-certification days
- Self-certification may not be combined with a part-time sick leave (please see the section on sick notes on the next page)

INT A:

Interpreter does not illustrate anything that can prepare the listener for an upcoming list. Between the bullets points there are pauses; one long, one shorter. On the third bullet point, interpreter puts down the paper – listener peeks.

INT B:

Sada pod prvom tačkom (…)Druga tačka (…)

Appendix 4

Now under the first point (...) The second point (...)

Interpreter goes directly to third and last bullet point. Listener has no access to the length of the list, not saying third point might serve as an indication that it is the last point.

INT C:

There are some challenges in the translation and the interpreter clarifies issues with both parties, the interpreter does not indicate a list, but marks the third and last bullet point saying:

I lično opradanje (…)

And *self-certification (...)*

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 9	A list	0	0	0	
AOI 9	Bullet point 1	0	3	0	
AOI 9	Bullet point 2	0	3	0	
AOI 9	Bullet point 3	2 b	0	2 c	

AOI 10: Reference to next page in parenthesis /pointing forward/

Text: Self-certification may not be combined with a part-time sick leave (please see the section on sick notes on the next page)

INT A:

O tome malo kasnije na sledećoj stranici

About.that a little later on the next page

INT B:

I u zagradi stoji vidite tačku o bolovanju na sledećoj strani

And in parenthesis it stands look at the point about sick leave on the next page

INT C:

Pogledaćemo o tome kasnije informacija na sledećoj strani

We will look at that later..information on the next page

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 10	Parentheses	3	1	3	

Appendix 4

AOI 12 Single provider (neutral reference, general)

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 11	Reference	Single mother	Single father	Single provider	

AOI 13: Italics / a special practice in some inclusive workplaces (IW)/

Text: *If the company where you work is an IW company, you have the right to self-certify up to eight calendar days. Self-certification may be used for 24 calendar days in a 12-month period. There is no limit on how many times this right may be used.*

INT A:

(pause)

Ako je organizacija za koju radite tzv IA organizacija (…)

***IF** your organisation for which you work a so-called IW organisation*

INT B:

U koliko preduzeće za koje radite (…)

If the company where you work (…)

(a short break indicating new paragraph, same way of interpreting as before)

INT C:

Very short break, starts out with same tone throughout the paragraph

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 13	Italics	2b	0	0	

AOI 14: Page turning and new headline /structure/

Text: Sick notes

INT A:

Idemo na drugu stranicu koja se tiče bolovanje tj lekarsko bolovanje

We go to the next page that has to do with sick notes i.e doctors sick notes

INT B: (returns document, PSR says there is another page). Å ja (laughs) Imamo i drugu stranu (We also have another page).

Dakle, sada je tema bolovanje.

Well, now the theme is sick notes

INT C:

I sad prelazimo na bolovanje

And now we go to sick notes

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 14	Page turning	3	2c	2c	
AOI 14	Pageturn pronoun	we	we	we	
AOI 14	New headline	3	3	1	

AOI 15: Parenthesis /synonym/

Text: The sick note's issuer must consider a part-time (graded) sick note and discuss possibilities and solutions with you[3].

INT A:

(…) gradirano to jeste postepeno bolovanje

(---) graded that is partial sick note

INT B:

(…) gradirano odnosno delimično bolovanje

(…) graded that is partial sick note

INT C:

(..) može vam dati delimično bolovanje

(…) can give you partial sick note

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 15	Parenthesis	3	3	0	C chooses one of the options

AOI 16: Underlined (2) /power – importance – politics/

Text: To be entitled to sickness benefit for more than 8 weeks, it is generally mandatory to participate in a work-related activity.

There are various schemes to get you back to work as soon as possible.

[3] The parathesis is not in the english translation of the Norwegian source text. The version in phatanthesis is chosen, I put the other option in phatentheis for illustration

Appendix 4

INT A:

Da biste imali pravo na dodatak za bolovanje duže od osam nedelja, morate kao glavno pravilo biti u aktivnosti koja je vezana sa poslom. Postoji razni sistemi koje će vam mogućiti da što brže se vratiti na posao.

To have the right to sickness benefit for more than eight weeks, you must as general rule be in a work-related activity. There are various schemes that will help you get back to work as soon as possible.

No stress on must does not use the formal word for mandatory which is the underlined word.

INT B:

Da bi se dobilo pravo na isplatu bolovanja/platu u toku bolovanja više od osam nedelja, imate kao glavno pravilo dužnost da budete u tu nekoj aktivnosti koja je u relaciji sa Vašem poslom. Takođe postoji različita rešenja da možete što pre (tone) doći nazad na posao/vratiti se na posao.

To get the right to paid sick leave/payment during sick leave more than eight weeks, you have as a general rule a duty to be in some kind of activity in relation to your work. There are also schemes that you as soon as possible get back to work/return to work.

INT C:

Da biste imali pravu na naknadu za bolovanje duže od osam nedelja, vi imate obavezu da budete u aktivnosti koje je relevantna za vaš posao. Postoji različiti rešenja koje se primenjuju da se što brže vratite na radno mesto.

To have the right to payed sick leave for more than eight weeks, you have an obligation to be in activity relevant for your job. There are different schemes used to get you back to work as soon as possible.

		A	**B**	**C**	**Comment**
AOI 16	Underlined 1	0	0	0	
AOI 16	Underlined 2	2b	2b	0	

Appendix 4

AOI 17: Numbered list with parenthesis /structure/

Text:

1) Part-time sick note (you stay in touch with your employer and do adapted work tasks)
2) Pending sick note (your employer is notified that sick leave can be avoided if your work tasks can be adapted to your needs)
3) Sick note for individual treatment days (You can get a sick note if you receive treatment that means that you cannot work the same day)
4) Fit for employment (you transition from receiving benefits to actively seeking employment).

INT A:

After the information above the list about different schemes says:

Ovde su navedena 4

4 are mentioned here

Prvi je takozvani postepeno bolovanje što znači da .()

The first is so called partial sick note which means that (...)

Pod broj dva imate takozvano (…) To znači da ()

Under number two you have (...) That means that (...)

Pod broj tri (…) što znači da…()

Under number three (...) which means that (...)

I pod broj četiri takozvano (…) što znači da.()

And under number four so called (...) which means that (...)

Interpreter looks at listener between the numbers. Also adds “so called” before the different schemes, it is not marked here in red as it is not an AOI.

INT B:

Pod jedan (…) U zagradi stoji (…)

Under one (...)In pharantheis stands (...)

Pod dva (..) a u zagradi stoji (…)

Under two (...)In pharantheis stands (...)

Pod tri(…) u zagradi stoji (…)

Under three (...)In pharantheis stands (...)

Pod četiri (…)…u zagradi stoji (…)

Under four (...)In pharantheis stands (...)

Nothing indicates the length of a list or its end. Starts immediately after the sentence about the schemes, no pause.

INT C:

Starts after a short break.

Prvo rešenje je…znači (…)

First scheme is (...) meaning (...) (adding "scheme" linking to the previous sentence and indicating more to come)

Drugo je bolovanje…to jeste (…)

The second is (...) that is (...)

Treće je….znači (…)

Third is (...) meaning (...)

I (…) znači (…)

And (...) meaning (...)

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 17	List	3	0	2c	
AOI 17	End list	2c	0	2c	
AOI 17	Parenthesis (4)	3	1	3	

AOI 18: Reference to website

Text: Find more information at www.nav.no or talk to your regular general practitioner.

INT A:

Za više informacija imate vebstranicu ovde navedenu (shows the sheet to client) nav tačka no i pre toga tri puta dobbelt v

For more information you have a web page written here (shows sheet to the client) nav dot no and before that three times double v.

INT B:

Više informacije možete da nađete na sajtu www.nav.no

You can find more information on the site www.nav.no

INT C:

Ukoliko želite još informacija, možete ih naći na vebstranici nava ili kod vašeg lekara primarnog lekara.

If you want more information you can find it at NAVs website or at your general practitioner

		A	B	C	Comment
AOI 18	Web page	2a+1	1	3	

Appendix 4

Overall impression of the interpreters (INT) contact style

INT A: Gazes, head movement

INT B: Cohesive discourse markers (language), gaze

INT C: Hand and body movement, proximity

Time spent on the translation

INT A: 7 minutes and 38 seconds

INT B: 7 minutes and 15 seconds

INT C: 5 minutes and 26 seconds

Appendix 5 Modal density

Situation A	PSR	INT	PSU	Action
01.00 - 01.15	High	High	High	Greetings
01.15 - 01.25	High	High	Medium	Introduction
01.26 - 01.36	High	Medium	Medium	
01.37 - 01.46	Medium	High	Medium	
01.47 - 01.57	High	Low	Low	
01.58 - 02.07	Low	High	Medium	
02.08 - 02.11	High	High	High	Q - A (Question - Answer)
02.12 - 02.17	High	High	High	Q - A
02.18 - 02.24	High	High	High	Q - A
02.25 - 02-36	High	High	High	Q - A
02.39 - 02.50	High	Low	Low	Q
02.51 - 03.01	Low	High	Medium	
03.02 - 03.07	High	High	High	A -R (Answer - Response)
03.08 - 03.18	High	Low	Low	
03.19 - 03.32	Low	High	Medium	
03.33 - 03.37	High	High	High	A - R
03.38 - 03.48	High	High	High	Handing over paper
03-49 - 04.00	Low	High	Medium	
04.01 - 04.12	Low	High	Medium	
04.13 - 04.22	Low/Med	High	Low	
04.23 - 04.32	Low	high	Low	
04.33 - 04.48	Low	High	Medium	
04.49 - 05.02	Low	High	Low	
05.03 - 05.21	Low	High	Medium	
05.22 - 05.34	Low/Med	High	Low/med	
05.35 - 05.44	Low	Med	Low	Int reading in silence
05.45 - 06.00	Low	High	Low	
06.01-06.15	Low	High	Low	
06.16 - 06.28	Low	High	Low/Med	
06.29 - 06.46	Low	High	Low/Med	
06.47 - 06.59	Low	High	Low	
07.00 - 07.07	Low	High	Low	
07.08 - 07.36	Low	High	Low/Med	
07.27 - 08.04	Low	High	Medium	
08.05 - 08.17	Low	High	Low/med	
08.18 - 08.31	Low	High	Low	
08.32 - 08.40	Low	High	Low/Med	Turning page
08.41 - 08.50	Low	High	Low/Med	
08.51 - 09.01	Medium	High	Low/Med	PSU Turning page
09.02 - 09.19	Low	High	Low/Med	
09.20 - 09.28	Low	High	Medium	
09.29 - 09.41	Low	High	Low/Med	
09.42 - 09.48	Low	Medium	Low	Int reading in silence
09.49 - 10.12	Low	High	Low	
10.13 - 10.26	Low	High	Low/Med	
10.27 - 10.42	Low	High	Low/Med	
10.43 - 11.07	Low	High	Low/Med	
11.08 - 11.22	Low	High	Low	
11.23 - 11.24	Low	High	Medium	
11.25 - 12.04	Low	High	Low	
12.05 - 12.25	Low	High	Medium/High	Wrapping up reading

Appendix 5 Modal density

12.26 - 12.37	High	High	High	Transiting into dialogue
12.38 - 12.47	High	Medium	Low/medium	
12.48 - 12.57	Medium	High	High	
12.58 - 13.09	High	High	Low	
13.10 - 13.20	Low/Med	Medium	High	
13.21 - 13.30	Medium	High	Low/Med	
13.31 - 13.46	High	Low	Low	
13.47 - 14.01	Low/Med	High	Medium	
14.02 - 14.14	Low/Med	High	Medium	
14.15 - 14.40	High	Low	Low	
14.41-15.07	Low/Med	High	High	
15.08 - 15.32	High	medium	Low/Med	
15.33 - 15.59	Medium	High	Medium	PSU turns paper
16.00 - 16.11	Low/Med	Medium	High	
16.12 - 16.24	Medium	High	Low	Disruption
16.25 - 16.34	High	Medium	Low/med	
16.35 - 16.45	Low/Med	High	Low/Med	
16.46 - 17.07	High	Low/Med	Low/Med	
17.08 - 17.24	Low/Med	High	Medium	
17.25 - 17.42	High	High	High	Saying goodbye

Appendix 5 Modal density

Situation B	PSR	INT	PSU	Action
00.16. - 00.32	High	High	High	Greetings, sitting
00.32 - 00.41	High	High	High	Q - A - R
00.42 - 01.06	High	Medium	Low/Medium	PSU leaves to get paper
01.07 - 01.19	High	Low	Low	
01.20 - 01.24	Medium	High	Low/Medium	
01.25 - 01.51	High	Low	Low	
01.52 - 01.59	Low	High	Low/Medium	Handing over paper
02.00 - 02.06	Low	High	Low/medium	
02.07 - 02.22	Medium/Low	High	Low/medium	
02.23 - 02.42	Low	High	Low	
02.43 - 03.05	Low	High	Low	
03.06 - 03.16	Low	High	Low/Medium	
03.17 - 03.55	Low	High	Low/Medium	
03.56 - 04.10	Low	High	Medium	
04.11 - 04.29	Low	High	Low	
04.30 - 04.39	Low	High	Low/Medium	
04.40 - 05.15	Low	High	Low/Medium	
05.16 - 05.35	Low	High	Low	
05.36 - 05.59	Medium	High	Low/Medium	
06.00 - 06.12	High	High	Low/Medium	Exchange about turning paper
06.13 - 06.34	Low	High	Low	
06.35 - 06.50	Med/Low	High	Low	
06.50 - 07.02	low	High	Medium	
07.03 - 07.26	Low	High	Medium	
07.27 - 07.52	Low	High	Low/Medium	
07.53 - 08.12	Low	High	Medium	
08.13 - 08.39	Med/Low	High	Medium	
08.40 - 09.07	Low	High	Medium	
09.08 - 09.19	Low	High	Medium	Returning paper
09.20 - 09.31	High	High	Medium	Q - A - Q
02.32 - 09.46	Medium	Medium	High	
09.47- 09.57	Medium	High	Medium	
09.58 - 10.07	High	High	High	
10.08 - 10.17	High	Medium	Low	
10.18 - 10.35	Medium	High	Medium	
10.36 - 10.41	High	High	High	
10.42 - 11.19	High	High/Med	Low/Medium	
11.20 - 12.09	Medium	High	Medium	
12.10 - 12.14	High	High	High	
12.15 - 12.23	High	Medium	Medium	
12.24 - 12.33	Medium	High	Medium	
12.34 - 12.44	High	High	High	Wrapping up
12.44 -13.01	High	High	High	Saying goodbye

Appendix 5 Modal density

Situation C	PSR	INT	PSU	Action
01.53 - 02.06	High	High	High	Greetings
02.07 - 02.19	High	Medium	Medium	PSR talks to INT instead of PSU
02.20 - 02.29	Medium	High	Medium	
02.30 - 02.46	High	Medium	Medium	Handing over paper
02.47 - 02.56	Medium	High	High	
02.58 - 03.09	Low	High	Medium	
03.10 -03.25	Low	High	Low	
03.26 - 03.36	Low	High	Low/Med	
03.37 - 03.46	Low	High	Low/Med	
03.47 - 03.56	Low	High	Low	
03.57 - 04.14	Low/med	High	Medium	
04.15 - 04.24	Low/med	High	High	INT trouble with numbers
04.25 - 04.31	Low	High	Low/Med	
04.32 - 04.54	Low/Med	High	Low	PSR looks suspicious when INT has little trouble
04.55 - 05.20	Low	High	Low	
05.21 - 05.38	Low	High	Low	
05.39 - 06.00	Low	High	Low	
06.01 - 06.06	Low	High	Low	
06.07 - 06.10	Medium	High	Low	Turning the page
06.11- 06.21	Low	High	Low	
06.22 - 06.27	Low	High	Low	
06.28 - 06.39	Low	High	Low	
06.40 - 07.02	Low	High	Med/Low	
07.03 - 07.12	Low	High	Low	
07.13 - 07.25	Low	High	Low	
07.26 - 07.42	Low	High	Medium	
07.43 - 07.57	Low	High	Low/Med	
07.58 - 08.13	Low	High	Low/Med	
08.14 - 08.22	Low	High	Low/Med	Returns paper
08.24 - 08.35	High	High	Medium	R - Q - A - R
08.36 - 08.44	High	High	Medium	
08.45 - 09.00	High	High	High/med	Wrapping up
09.00 - 09.12	High	high	High	Saying goodbye

Randi Havnen
Postboks 4, St. Olavs plass
0130 OSLO

Vår dato: 04.08.2017	Vår ref: 54657 / 3 / HIT	Deres dato:	Deres ref:

Tilbakemelding på melding om behandling av personopplysninger

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 06.06.2017.
Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

54657	*How are cohesive resources typical for written communication mediated into spoken communicative mode (transduction/transpositioning) when sight translating official documents*
Behandlingsansvarlig	*Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig	*Randi Havnen*

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 31.08.2019, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Dersom noe er uklart ta gjerne kontakt over telefon.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS Harald Hårfagres gate 29 Tel: +47-55 58 21 17 nsd@nsd.no Org.nr. 985 321 884
NSD – Norwegian Centre for Research Data NO-5007 Bergen, NORWAY Faks: +47-55 58 96 50 www.nsd.no

Hildur Thorarensen

Kontaktperson: Hildur Thorarensen tlf: 55 58 26 54 / hildur.thorarensen@nsd.no
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Personvernombudet for forskning

Prosjektvurdering - Kommentar

Prosjektnr: 54657

FORMÅL

Det er lite kunnskap om tolking fra skrift til tale i et multimodalt perspektiv - forskning på denne type tolking tar mest for seg språklige og kognitive utfordringer for tolker. Også de andre deltakerne i en kommunikativ setting påvirkes av at en modalitet blir mediert til en annen, avhengig av hvordan dette gjøres. Prosjektet skal undersøke ulike praksiser og analysere praksisen i et multimodalt perspektiv. Formålet er å øke kunnskapen om tolking fra skriftlig tekst til muntlig tale for å utvikle bedre utdanning for tolker i offentlig sektor, samt øke kunnskap om de kommunikative aspektene i situasjoner der tolking fra skrift til tale benyttes som metode slik at eventuelle utfordringer med denne type kommunikasjon blir belyst.

INFORMASJON OG SAMTYKKE

Ifølge prosjektmeldingen skal utvalget informeres muntlig om prosjektet og samtykke til deltakelse. For å tilfredsstille kravet om et informert samtykke etter loven, må utvalget informeres om følgende:

- hvilken institusjon som er ansvarlig
- prosjektets formål / problemstilling
- hvilke metoder som skal benyttes for datainnsamling
- hvilke typer opplysninger som samles inn
- at opplysningene behandles konfidensielt og hvem som vil ha tilgang
- at det er frivillig å delta og at man kan trekke seg når som helst uten begrunnelse
- dato for forventet prosjektslutt
- at data anonymiseres ved prosjektslutt
- hvorvidt enkeltpersoner vil kunne gjenkjennes i den ferdige oppgaven
- kontaktopplysninger til forsker

Vi anbefaler at informasjonen også gis skriftlig.

SENSITIVE OPPLYSNINGER

Det behandles sensitive personopplysninger om etnisk bakgrunn.

INFORMASJONSSIKKERHET

Personvernombudet legger til grunn at forsker etterfølger Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus sine interne rutiner for datasikkerhet.

PROSJEKTSLUTT

Forventet prosjektslutt er 31.08.2019. Ifølge prosjektmeldingen skal innsamlede opplysninger da anonymiseres. Anonymisering innebærer å bearbeide datamaterialet slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes. Det gjøres ved å:

- slette direkte personopplysninger (som navn/koblingsnøkkel)
- slette/omskrive indirekte personopplysninger (identifiserende sammenstilling av bakgrunnsopplysninger som f.eks. bosted/arbeidssted, alder og kjønn)
- slette digitale lyd-/bilde- og videoopptak

SAMTYKKEERKLÆRING
DELTAKELSE I FORSKNINGSPROSJEKT

Ansvarlig institusjon: Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus
Kontaktperson: Randi Havnen ranha@hioa.no

Prosjektet formål er å gi innsikt kommunikative aspekter i en tolkemediert samtale der det også tolkes fra skrift til tale.

Datamaterialet er regisserte rollespill som tas opp. Opptakene oppbevares på en server med sikret tilgang og behandles av forsker og eventuelt av forskerens veiledere.

Deltakerne bes også kort reflektere over sin opplevelse av rollespillet etter opptak, skriftlig eller muntlig med lydopptak.

Teksten som benyttes i opptaket er utviklet og tilrettelagt av forsker for formålet.

Alt materialet behandles konfidensielt og deltakerne blir anonymiseret ved publisering av resultatene.

Prosjektet avsluttes høsten 2019, noen resultater vil publiseres før den tid.

Deltakelse er frivillig og man kan trekke seg fra prosjektet uten begrunnelse

Navn: _______________________________________

Dato: ______________Signatur: _____________________________________

For deltakere som ikke behersker norsk, er innholdet gjort kjent muntlig

NSD NORSK SENTER FOR FORSKNINGSDATA

NSD's assessment

Project title

How are cohesive resources typical for written communication mediated into spoken communicative mode (transduction/transpositioning) when sight translating official documents.

Reference number

715043

Registered

16.07.2019 av Randi Havnen - ranha@oslomet.no

Data controller (institution responsible for the project)

OsloMet - storbyuniversitetet / Fakultet for lærerutdanning og internasjonale studier / Institutt for internasjonale studier og tolkeutdanning

Project leader (academic employee/supervisor or PhD candidate)

Randi Havnen, ranha@oslomet.no, tlf: 92618087

Type of project

Research Project

Project period

01.09.2017 - 30.06.2020

Status

20.11.2020 - Assessed

Assessment (2)

20.11.2020 - Assessed

NSD har vurdert endringen registrert 19.11.2020.

Vi har nå registrert 30.06.2021 som ny sluttdato for behandling av personopplysninger.

NSD vil følge opp ved ny planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til videre med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Gry Henriksen
Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

20.08.2019 - Assessed

BAKGRUNN
Behandlingen av personopplysninger ble opprinnelig meldt inn til NSD 06.06.2017 (NSD sin ref: 54657) og vurdert under personopplysningsloven som var gjeldende på det tidspunktet.

Den 22.07.2019 meldte prosjektleder inn forlengelse av perioden for behandling av personopplysninger.

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen/hele prosjektet vil være i samsvar med den gjeldende personvernlovgivningen, så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet 20.08.2019 med vedlegg, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan fortsette.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER
Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:
https://nsd.no/personvernombud/meld_prosjekt/meld_endringer.html
Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET
Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 31.12.2020.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG
Prosjektet har innhentet samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vår vurdering er at samtykket også er gyldig etter gjeldende personvernregelverk. Prosjektet la opp til et samtykke som var en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som ble dokumentert, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake.

Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen er dermed den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER
NSD vurderer at behandlingen av personopplysninger følger prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER
Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

Det opprinnelige informasjonsskrivet (lastet opp på siden «Utvalg 1» i meldeskjemaet) var tilstrekkelig uformet.

Det skal sendes ut oppdatert informasjon til de registrerte med ny dato for anonymisering av datamaterialet og supplerende informasjon om de registrertes rettigheter etter gjeldende personvernregelverk.

NSD vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte har mottatt, i kombinasjon med oppdatert informasjon som skal sendes ut, oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER
NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Eva J B Payne
Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

E-mail December 2020 about extension of project to participants, information same as first exstetion

« Dragi učesnici mog doktorskog projekta/ Kjære prosjektdeltakere,

Evo, još malo se sve produžuje, ali uskoro gotovo. Ista informacija kao ispod važi i produženje je odobreo sa strane Centra za zaštitu i obradu ličnih podataka u istraživanju NSD do kraja juna 2021. Predajem tezu 28/12.
En liten forlengelse til, men snart ferdig. Samme informasjon som under gjelder og forlengelsen er godkjent av NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata til juni 2021. Jeg levere avhandlingen 28/12.

Lep pozdrav,
Vennlig hilsen
Randi Havnen»

Pošto se projekat produžio iz različitih razloga, obaveštavam vas da će se podaci o vama, kao i snimci, sačuvati do kraja 2020. godine. Inače važi i dalje mogučnost da se povučete u bilo kojem delu projekta.
Cilj projekta je isti: istraživanje komunikativnih aspekata u usmenom prevodu pisanog teksta. Naglašavam da u ste u objavi rezultata, anonimni, i da samo ja imam pristup sveukupnom materijalu koji sam skupljala u saradnji sa vama. Sav materijal se čuva na odvojenom disku. Vi uvek imate uvid u podatke o vama.

Prilažem i dokument koji ste potpisali početkom projekta, kome je bilo potrebno prevedeno je i usmeno, a ukoliko vam treba pismeni prevod, slobodno recite.

Inače, objavljen je jedan članak kao deo projekta, ali nije vezan sa snimkama, i drugi, koji jeste, ali je još u procesu, i poslaću ga čim bude prihvaćen i objavljen.

Ukoliko imate žalbe vezano sa obradom ili čuvanjem ličnih podataka, obratite se *personvernombud* na OsloMet-u ingrid.jacobsen@oslomet.no Tel: 67 23 55 34 ili Centralnom odgovornom centru za zaštitu i obradu ličnih podataka u istraživanju NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS personverntjenester@nsd.no Tel: 55 58 21 17

Sdrčan pozdrav,
Randi Havnen
OsloMet – strobyuniversitetet (tidligere Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus)

Kjære prosjektdeltakere,

Fordi prosjektet er forlenget av ulike grunner, informerer jeg om at informasjon om dere, og opptak vil bli oppbevart til slutten av 2020. Dere har fremdeles muligheter til å trekke dere fra prosjektet til enhver tid. Målet for prosjektet er det samme, ny kunnskap om kommunikative aspekter i tolking fra skrift til tale. Jeg understreker at dere i forbindelse med publisering av resultatene er anonyme, og kun jeg har tilgang til materialet som jeg samlet i samarbeid med dere. Alt materialet oppbevares på en ekstern harddisk. Dere har innsyn i egne opplysninger.
Vedlagt finner dere den opprinnelige samtykkeerklæringen som dere skrev under i starten av prosjektet. Den er på norsk og ble tolket muntlig til dem som trengte det. Om det er ønskelig med en oversettelse, si fra.

Hvis dere har klager knyttet til oppbevaring eller behandling av personopplysninger, henvend dere til personvernombudet ved OsloMet ingrid.jacobsen@oslomet.no Tel: 67 23 55 34 eller NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS personverntjenester@nsd.no Tel: 55 58 21 17

Vennlig hilsen
Randi Havnen
OsloMet – strobyuniversitetet (tidligere Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus)

Article 1

‘Multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation – A critical review’

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MULTIMODAL AND INTERACTIONAL ASPECTS OF SIGHT TRANSLATION: A CRITICAL REVIEW. / ASPECTOS MULTIMODALES E INTERACCIONALES DE LA TRADUCCIÓN A LA VISTA: UNA REVISIÓN CRÍTICA.

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Abstract: Sight translation is a method used by interpreters to translate written documents such as verdicts, medical records, and agreements, which often involve civil rights and duties, into speech. Research on sight translation generally adopts a strong monologist focus, overlooking its interactional aspects, and the dominant linguistic understanding of sight translation disguises the effects of the modal shift from writing to speech on communication. Multimodal theory considers the choice of mode to be important for meaning-making; one might choose writing for the sake of precision or speech for its interactional potential. The communicative implications of modal shifts in community interpreting settings have not been sufficiently explored. This article presents a critical review of extant research on sight translation and a discussion of the findings based on multimodal theory. Its aim is to refine the understanding of sight translation and, thereby, raise awareness of potential obstacles in communicative practices which in turn may have consequences for civil rights and participating in today's multilingual Europe.

Keywords: Sight translation; Multimodality; Interaction; Transduction.

Resumen: Los intérpretes utilizan la traducción a la vista para transformar en discurso oral documentos escritos como veredictos, historias médicas y contratos, que suelen implicar derechos y deberes civiles. En general, la investigación sobre traducción a la vista adopta un marcado enfoque monológico, y deja de lado el aspecto de la interacción. Asimismo, la perspectiva lingüística dominante oculta los efectos que entraña el cambio de modalidad comunicativa, escrita a oral, sobre la comunicación. Según la teoría multimodal, la modalidad influye en la creación de significado: la comunicación escrita favorece la precisión, mientras que la oral fomenta la interacción. Las consecuencias de los cambios de modalidad sobre la comunicación en la interpretación en contextos públicos no han recibido suficiente atención investigadora. En este artículo se presenta una revisión crítica de la literatura sobre la traducción a la vista y sus conclusiones desde la perspectiva de la teoría multimodal, con el objetivo de contribuir a su comprensión y concienciar sobre posibles obstáculos en la comunicación, que, a su vez, pueden derivar en consecuencias para los derechos civiles y la participación ciudadana en la Europa multilingüe de la actualidad.

Palabras clave: Traducción a la vista; Multimodalidad; Interacción; Transducción.

1. Introduction

Listen! All written texts have a tone that you can hear when you read.
—Marlon James

Sight translation is frequently used as a method in public sector encounters in today's multilingual Europe. The use of this method presupposes a belief in its ability to convey written texts across a language barrier, to a member of the community who cannot read the majority language. This article presents a critical review of studies on sight translation, with a focus on knowledge related to multimodal aspects. Importantly, the review reveals the limited research on sight translation as an interactional practice. By combining existing knowledge about sight translation with a multimodal approach, I discuss sight translation both as an interpreting method and as an interactional practice. In this manner, I help refine the conceptual understanding of sight translation and support the call for methodological innovation in interpreting studies on the basis of multiple interactional resources (Davitti, 2019). I argue that besides translation skills, skills in mediating between modes are needed in sight translation.

Traditionally, sight translation has been perceived as an exercise to prepare conference interpreters for the task of simultaneous interpreting (Weber, 1990; Viaggio, 1992; Čeňková, 2010; Li, 2014) or for language learning (Sampaio, 2007; Chen, 2015). However, community interpreters are also expected to sight translate a range of written material that often encompass civil rights and duties. Such documents include terms for arrangements before an interview or a meeting, reports/transcripts, verdicts, decisions, journals of medical histories, declarations and other written evidence (Weber, 1990; Sampaio, 2007; Li, 2014; Chen, 2015; Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). To date, most research on sight translation has focused on the conference domain, in which legal safety is not a major consideration, however the few studies done on community interpreting settings, document challenges related to text types and interactional dynamics (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017; Vargas-Urpi, 2018).

In public sector encounters, government institutions and their representatives are responsible for safeguarding communication. The plain language movement is one initiative to secure communication. The International Plain Language Federation defines plain language communication as follows:

> A communication is in plain language if its wording, structure, and design are so clear that the intended audience can easily find what they need, understand what they find, and use that information (IPLF, 2019).

Current sight translation practice might be a hindrance in communication and consequently threaten legal safeguard and participation.

The plain language definition recognises readers' interaction with the text – their processes of finding, understanding and using information. However, it mainly concerns written materials. In sight translation, written materials are mediated into speech, and the intended reader becomes a listener. The practice of reading written documents aloud is unique to interpreted discourse; if documents are read aloud in monolingual settings, the listener can usually follow the document by sight or bring the document along for further reading. Thus, the shift in modality in sight translation relates not only to the written text and the interpreter's mediation but also to the interaction that moves through an artefact to the spoken mode. This shift influences interactional dynamics. Even if these aspects are rarely discussed in literature on sight translation, they might become clearer through the inclusion of a multimodal perspective.

A multimodal approach to sight translation aligns with the more general multimodal shift in translation and interpreting studies (Gonzalez, 2014; Davitti, 2019). This turn has resulted in several articles on various translation and interpreting areas, such as speech to writing or writing to sign (Pasquandrea, 2011; Wurm, 2014; Chakhachiro, 2016; Chen and Wang, 2016; Davitti and Pasquandrea, 2017; Raanes and Berge, 2017; Ticca and Traverso, 2017). These works represent the broad interest in multimodal communication and interaction (Norris and Maier, 2014; Bonsignori and Camiciottoli, 2016). Multimodality sheds light on the communicative challenges in interactions, in which modes intermingle and create highly complex ecologies (Davitti and Pasquandrea, 2017).

Through this article, I contribute a new perspective on sight translation. I analyse existing knowledge about sight translation and discuss the findings from a multimodal perspective, thereby providing insight into both the interpreting method and the interaction as a whole.

Interpreting and translation studies frequently share a theoretical framework with other related disciplines (Wadensjö, 1998), resulting in the overlapping use of terminology in the literature. In multimodal theory, a mode is understood as communicative and comprising a set of socially and culturally shaped semiotic resources (Kress, 2010). A mode in interpreting studies is a practice, such as simultaneous or consecutive interpreting. To separate these concepts in this article, mode is used to refer to a communicative mode, and interpreting and translation modes are referred to as methods. Mediation between modes is called transduction, and mediation between languages is called translation or interpreting.

This paper is structured as follows. In the next section, I present multimodal perspectives related to writing and speech, and modal shift. This is followed by the methods used in the review and then the findings sections where I present findings related to multimodal aspects. I then discuss the benefit of the multimodal approach and finish with some concluding remarks.

2. Multimodal perspectives

The multimodal turn in various fields of communication studies is motivated by the need to describe communicative resources in detail (Ledin and Machin, 2018). One line of work is guided by Halliday's social functional linguistics, which describes how language meets representative, interactional and ideological metafunctions. This perspective has been accounted for in other communicative modes, such as visual images, which exploit meaning-making semiotic resources other than language (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 1996), and recently also in touch as a mode (Jewitt, 2018). A critique to the functionalistic perspective as a main focus in multimodal studies is related to the limited attention to how and when distinct modes are used and to their material affordances (Ledin and Machin, 2018). Another line of research focuses on talk in interaction done in the framework of conversation analysis, which include multimodal resources and the relation between these and talk (Mondada, 2016). What is common in the two traditions is the idea that language does not create meaning alone and that one needs to account for other resources to understand interaction.

Simplified, one might say that sight translation finds itself at the intersection of two modal discourses and between research traditions. From the perspective of the participants in an interaction in which a document is translated, the artefact, here the document, affects both sequentiality and turn taking, which have been described in studies on dialogue interpreting in a multimodal conversation analysis perspective (Davitti and Pasquandrea, 2017). In sight translation, the written texts undergo a modal shift, and the new mode exploits different semiotic resources which affect the meaning potential and interaction (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). I find Kress's (2010) and Van Leeuwen's (2005) approach to multimodality and social semiotics suitable for an understanding of the latter phenomenon.

From a multimodal perspective, all communication is multimodal, and the choice of mode is considered a part of the communicative project; each mode has a unique potential for meaning-making (Kress, 2010). Modes differ in materiality (e.g. paper, screen, sound) and in affordances and limitations (e.g. printed text lasts, digital text is highly changeable, sound disappears). Defining the constitution of a mode might be confusing. Norris (2004: 11) describes a communicative mode as ”a system of representation” that is not static. What defines a mode and semiotic resources varies according to context; music, layout, proximity, gaze or gesture can all be independent modes, or they can function as semiotic resources when exploited in another mode, such as speech that exploits sound, gesture and language. Determining which semiotic resources are exploited and the manner of doing so depends on the discourse, genre and style, which are all socially and culturally shaped, similar to modes (Van Leeuwen, 2005). Western societies, for example, prefer writing in formal public communication (Kress, 2010). Modes are constantly reshaped, and a good example is written communication through new digital technologies, affecting both how we produce and read such texts (Serafini, 2014).

2.1 Writing and speech

Linguists, such as Biber (1988), Halliday (1989) and Chafe (1994), have studied linguistic differences in writing and speech. Biber's (1988) main contribution was that no linguistic phenomena are found exclusively in writing or speech and that differences between them can be attributed to, amongst other things, genre and style. Halliday (1989) emphasises how time for production planning can influence linguistic choices in writing and speech. Chafe (1994) uses a cognitive approach to explore the experience of conciseness through writing and speech, defining writing and speaking, as well as reading and listening, as different cognitive processes. Recent research builds upon these studies, arguing that writing should be understood as a cultural artefact, in contrast to spoken language, which is embodied and distributed; therefore, writing and speech belong to different cognitive domains (Kravchenko, 2009). Dealing with written texts as cultural and historical artefacts involves different dynamics and skills compared with real-time interaction through spoken language, which is a fast-fading mode. Additionally, speech is mostly dialogical, and 'the other' is important in the meaning-making process (Linell, 1998).

Multimodal perspectives align with the linguistic views mentioned and argue that labelling both writing and speech as language disguises their differences (Scollon and Scollon, 2009; Kress, 2010). Writing and speech differ in their production, exploitation of semiotic resources and perception. Although they share language (lexis and syntax) as a resource and both construct linear sequences, writing and speech are displayed differently and have different types of materiality. Writing is spatially displayed through graphics on paper, screen or other media types. Readers usually approach written text based on their own interests (Kress, 2010). Thus, they may skip parts of the text, read recursively and/or read the text several times. Listeners are more at the mercy of the text, although their level of interaction will influence their perception.

A vital element in perception is the sense of coherence. In texts, coherence is linked to cohesive resources. Cohesion is sometimes confused with coherence. Cohesion is a property of the text, whereas perceived coherence is affected by listeners' or readers' knowledge of discourse, genre and style, which are semiotic dimensions present in all communication (Van Leeuwen, 2005). A lack of cohesion in a text can, for example, be compensated for by readers/listeners knowledge.

The four basic cohesive resources are rhythm, composition, information linking and dialogue (Van Leeuwen, 2005). Layout establishes a balance in written texts, and rhythm has a similar function in spoken texts. Van Leeuwen (2005) argues that both perceptions of balance and rhythm are biologically given and are vital for human interaction; they are linked to perceptions of coherence. Information linking and dialogue, both interactional and between modes and semiotic resources, are present in both written and spoken texts, although they are expressed differently because of their different materiality. Writing is typically guided by punctuation, headlines, font, layout, design elements and visual images, all of which function cohesively. In speech and face-to-face interactions, sound, prosody, gesture, facial expression, gaze, proximity and space have similar functions (Kress, 2010). Cohesion is also expressed in both written and spoken communication through textual relations and references.

Building on the assumption that writing and speech are different modes used for specific purposes, we need to look at the process of changing mode, which occurs in sight translation.

2.2 Change of mode–transduction

Transforming one mode into another, such as a book into a movie, or a script into a scenic event, is defined as transduction (Kress, 2010). When transducting, one analyses the meaning potential in one mode and chooses the most suitable way to create the same meaning in another mode. A purpose of this process may be to highlight some meaning aspects in the original mode or to convey a personal interpretation of the meaning. In sight translation, such freedom does not exist; the interpreter is supposed to convey the same meaning as expressed in the source text. In transduction from writing to speech, this process might seem less of a challenge because language is the dominant resource in both; however, language does not create meaning alone, nor do the modes writing or speech. Writing and speech interact with other modes in meaning-making, and, as stated above, the resources exploited in the respective modes are different. A resource from a written text does not necessarily have a corresponding resource in another mode, that is why different modes are used in the first place. A photo has a different meaning potential than a spoken mediation of a photo; through the sequentiality of talk and choice of words, the speaker changes what is salient, compared with a visual, spatial photo in which the viewer concurrently sees the whole.

3. Method

This review is explorative. I investigate how sight translation is treated in the literature, and approach this knowledge from a multimodal perspective; the review might therefore be categorised as conceptual (Gough, Thomas and Oliver, 2012). The intention is not to systematically review the state of the art, as a comprehensive review of sight translation studies already exists (Li, 2014).

3.1 Searches

To obtain an overview of studies on sight translation, I started by manually searching journals and handbooks on interpreting and translation studies (Čeňková, 2010; Chen, 2015). The snowball effect of this search allowed me to locate relevant works, identify experts and examine references. This method was used because my initial searches ("sight translation" OR "sight interpreting" OR "prima vista") using the library search engines Oria and Academic Search Premier did not produce relevant hits. I also performed a recent control search in the Academic Search Premier, Scopus and Modern Language Association databases with the same search string as above to ensure that I did not miss new studies. This resulted in two articles published in 2018. Most of the articles I located did not appear in the above-mentioned databases, although most of them did appear in the BITRA database, which also included articles in several languages and a few articles concerning sight translation as a tool for developing other interpreting methods. These are not included in this review. I also excluded master's theses and materials written in languages other than English. However, I included some conference proceedings and personal accounts because they are frequently referred to and thereby contribute to the knowledge base on sight translation.

3.2 Analytical approach

In total, I reviewed 36 articles on sight translation. I support my arguments with research on other specialised methods of translation/interpreting that include multimodal perspectives, as well as two practice guidelines. They add to the discussion on translation and multimodality and supplement the understanding of sight translation as a multimodal practice.

As this review is motivated by multimodality, my primary focus has been to search for descriptions, explanations and evaluations that concern the shift in mode from writing to speech, as well as any topic relevant to multimodality, including written texts, reading, speech and listening, and aspects of cohesion that are fundamental in interaction. I also looked at the literature in terms of theme, method/design, whether the approach is monologic or dialogic and whether sight translation is considered a tool or a method.

4. Findings: From monologues towards dialogues

Amongst the 36 papers reviewed, 19 reported on experiments that investigate the interpreting process and/or pedagogy. Six were theoretical discussions of single cases or teaching experiences, five were analyses based on texts with a theoretical discussion, three were intended to share a personal experience, two were overview articles in handbooks and one was a review article. Research is dominantly done on monologues; only four recent studies have a dialogic setting. Five studies were concerned with written translations. The majority of the studies concerned conference interpreting, and only a few focused on public service interpreting.

Knowledge on sight translation has been mainly obtained through experimental studies usually involving students or, in comparative analyses, professionals and students. When text length is accounted for in the studies, they are short, the experiments are conducted in language labs and the analyses are based on transcriptions; these give valuable insights into the interpreting process but exclude interactional aspects. Furthermore, research on sight translation highlights the translation process based on Gile's (1995, 2009) effort model. The newest contribution to this line of research is an article on short-term memory in sight translation (Pedersen and Dam, 2017). In addition to cognitive perspectives, most studies are linguistic and monologic and pay little attention to communicative aspects. However, attention to a listener's perspective is implicitly found through these studies' focus on quality assessments of production/performance. One article uses a multimodal approach to study professional interpreters' exploitation of semiotic resources (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). Many authors agree that sight translation has specific competence needs that are different from those of both the translation of written texts and interpreting in spoken discourse (Ivars, 2008; Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012; Paez, 2014; Chen, 2015; Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). The review shows a slight increase in the interest in sight translation as a part of interaction; three studies focused on non-professional interpreters' mediation of written texts in public service interpreting, in which the main focus was the interactional dynamics in connection with the artefact (Ticca and Traverso, 2017; Defrancq and Verliefde, 2018; Vargas-Urpi, 2018).

Although limited research examines sight translation as interaction, the findings of these studies provide valuable insights when revisited from a multimodal perspective. Before I discuss the implications of this approach, I will present some relevant findings in greater detail. These findings relate to multimodal aspects, which I discuss in the next section.

4.1 Norms of practice

One argument regarding the shift from written to spoken text in sight translation is that the ideal translation "should sound as if the interpreters were merely reading a document written in the target language" (Mikkelson and Willis, 1993: introduction). Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz (2010: 63) describe the target text as "(…) spoken output, in as close to a normal 'reading out loud' cadence as can be managed". Other authors emphasise the new text as an oral version of the written text (Martin, 1993), which should be easily understandable

(Čeňková, 2010). These views reflect the traditional norms of translation and interpreting practice as source or target oriented (Schäffner, 2010), and the discussion on whether sight translation should be understood as translation, as it involves a written source, or interpreting, as it has a spoken target. Ivars (2008) concludes that the competencies required for sight translation are closer to those for interpreting than to those for translation, measuring sight translation in the frame of a translation competence model. Although scholars argue that sight translation should be considered a method in its own right (Sampaio, 2007; Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012; Li, 2014), it is frequently referred to as a hybrid (Martin, 1993, Dragsted et al., 2009; Nilsen and Monsrud, 2015) or as being at the boundary between translation and interpreting (Agrifoglio, 2004).

4.2 Accuracy and fluency

Accuracy is a core element of translation and interpreting assessments. Sight translation is considered a method that preserves more information than other methods and is therefore more accurate, as the interpreter has access to the written text and is less pressured in terms of memory effort (Gile, 2009). However, studies show that expression failures often occur in sight translation, causing some changes in, and loss of, meaning (Agrifoglio, 2004). These failures take the form of interference, disrupted syntax or speed, and they have various sources (Agrifoglio, 2004; Lambert and Clas, 2004; Ivars, 2008; Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz, 2010; Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone, 2011). For instance, Ondelli's (1998) study of interpreting students' documents over-represents production problems in spoken renditions of written texts compared with other spoken texts; however, a small-scale study of professional interpreters' speech errors in sight translation shows the opposite. This study compared the same speaker doing sight translation and producing impromptu and extemporaneous speech. The production variations are hypothesised to be related to differences in idea articulation. Interestingly, the study found different patterns of speech errors in the various texts; sight translation had more morphological and grammatical errors (Bakti, 2017).

Another related and frequently discussed criterion of quality in sight translation is fluency. In some studies, an interpreter's performance was evaluated as more successful when the interpreter "add[s] qualifiers, or connectives that are absent in the source text to achieve smooth delivery" (Li, 2014: 72). According to Weber (1990), the interpreter must make the text understandable and listenable, and he/she has some freedom to change the syntax and expressions in the spoken version for the sake of a smooth delivery. However, this leeway is considered inapplicable to legal documents; in this case, it is necessary to "render the exact same words" (Weber, 1990: 52). In Lee, Vandaele and Bastin's (2012) study, the strategy of condensation is considered successful for creating fluency. Nonetheless, Lee, Vandaele and Bastin (2012) and Weber (1990) mention that condensation should not be used in legal procedures. Mikkelson and Willis (1993) also argue that as a fluency strategy, paraphrasing should not be used in court. Akbari (2017: 40) measures quality in sight translation by using a "smooth and precise style in the target text" as a criterion. He describes a successful translation as one in which the interpreter chooses strategies, such as linguistic simplification, lexical and syntactic compression, and exclusion of redundant information. An overall impression in my review is that fluency is more frequently *not* achieved, with a few exceptions represented by very experienced professionals (Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012). That being said, the studies are dominantly exploratory experiments, pilots or preliminary reports, and, as Li (2014) has pointed out, they exhibit several problems related to input control and methodology.

The written text in sight translation is described as challenging not only in terms of text complexity but also in terms of the visual presence of the text. Failures, such as interference, are overrepresented in sight translation compared to other interpreting methods (Agrifoglio, 2004). This may occur because the interpreter is exposed to the text the entire time and is therefore unable to distance him-/herself sufficiently from the source text. On the other hand, some studies show that the visual input is not disturbing when the interpreter applies proper reading strategies (Moser-Mercer, 1995; Lambert and Clas, 2004; Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012). Angelelli (1999) emphasises that reading competence and analytical skills in text processing are important for sight translation, which has been confirmed by Akbari (2017). Another explanation for disfluency relates to time; sight translation is often performed on the spot with little or no preparation (Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone, 2011). Time pressure influences text macro processing, leaving the interpreter at the micro level, which seems to increase the degree of interference (Ivars, 2008). In the same manner, novices are more concerned with words and sentences (Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz, 2010; Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012), whereas experienced readers are more concerned with meaning and misread less (Moser-Mercer, 1995).

Nilsen and Monsrud (2015) discuss reading competence in their study of reading speed amongst interpreters involved in asylum interviews in Norway. The authors find significant differences in interpreters' decoding skills, and the results indicate greater challenges for readers whose first language is syntactically different from Norwegian. The effect of syntactic distance and its influence on the quality of sight translation are mentioned in other studies, which propose that they affect coordination and production efforts (Viezzi, 1989).

Notably, a study exploring constraints in texts through disfluency in production found that manipulated syntactic difficulties do not always pose challenges to interpreters (Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone, 2011). The researchers discovered that time influences the instances in which the manipulated syntax becomes an obstacle; the problems increase as the translation progresses (Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone, 2011). It is proposed that the reason for this is the constant struggle with interference faced by interpreters when orally translating a written text. The texts in Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone's study (2011) are short, but a measurable decline in problem-solving effort is observed after only one passage.

4.3 Writing and speech

When explicitly discussed in the literature, written and spoken language and the differences between them are examined based on the work of Chafe and Danielwicz (1987) (Ondelli, 1998; Agrifoglio, 2004; Dragsted et al., 2009; Şulha, 2014; Pedersen and Dam, 2017). Chafe and Danielwicz (1987) explore the properties of written and oral language, and their main conclusion is that writers and speakers exploit various available resources depending on the context and purpose of the communication. For example, differences in vocabulary, the use of hedges, the length of intonation units and the degree of involvement are found in conversations and amongst academic lecturers, letter writers and academic writers. This understanding of the differences between written and spoken language underpins explanations of challenges in the translation process (Agrifoglio, 2004; Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz, 2010; Zeng and Xiang, 2014).

Attention to modal shifts is present in some descriptions of sight translation, including "from written input to oral output" (Angelelli, 1999: 27) and "written to oral register" (Sampio, 2007: 67). Only Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz (2010) describe reading aloud (mediating a written text into speech) as a separate effort that demands extra resources also in monolingual settings. Lee, Vandaele and Bastin (2012) do mention that the intermodal nature of sight translation might necessitate special skills, but they do not elaborate. Sampio (2007: 65) presumes that "the interpreter has to be especially efficient in changing modes (…)". Ondelli (1998), referring to Le Fèal (1982), mentions that interpreters find mode shift more difficult in relation to cohesion and textuality.

Differences in written and spoken language are more frequently highlighted in studies where sight translation is compared to other methods of interpreting and translation (Agrifoglio, 2004; Lambert and Clas, 2004; Ivars, 2008; Dragsted et al., 2009). Whether a source text is written or spoken affects the interpreter's perception of the source text, which, in turn, influences the translation. Agrifoglio (2004) compares consecutive interpretation, simultaneous interpretation and sight translation and demonstrates that the mode of the source text affects memory, as well as the cohesion and accuracy in the target text. This finding is especially evident with numbers; when perceived via listening, they are translated wrongly or approximately, but when perceived visually, they are translated accurately.

4.4 The lack of interactional aspects

Interactional aspects are hardly mentioned in the literature. Weber (1990) and Sherve, Lacruz and Angelone (2011) point to a text's length as a challenge not only for the interpreter but also for the listener, who might reach a point of saturation. According to Spitz and Hlavac's (2017) guidelines for interpreting asylum transcripts, the interpreter is advised to attend to listeners' needs so that the interpretation supports engagement. They propose that an asylum seeker is likely to listen attentively; however, interpreters in Norway report that listeners have problems engaging in and following sight translation (Felberg, 2015; Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). We know little about the reasons for these difficulties; they can be related to the source text, the quality of the translation or to characteristics of the listener.

No studies problematise listeners' perceptions of the interpreted text; performance is assessed by predetermined criteria, which are not always defined, and the evaluations predominantly concern transcripts. Only two studies included an evaluation of recordings as a supplement (Agrifoglio, 2004; Zheng and Xiang, 2014). Pedersen and Dam (2017) consider a higher tolerance for disfluency in spoken language in their analyses of incoherence, and they comment on the methodological implications of not having actual listeners.

An experimental pilot study explored professional interpreters' use of semiotic resources when sight translating (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017), with a focus on the interpreter's interaction with the text and the listener, although the listener was instructed to not verbally interact with the interpreter. The interpreters tried to signal to the listener when they discovered an obviously wrong date in the written document by using their voice and by pointing and gazing. Gestures, facial expressions, prosody and positioning were also utilised, either for cohesive purposes or to draw attention to salient issues in the text. The interpreters restricted their verbalisation of anything that could be considered an addition (i.e. saying something that was not verbalised in the written text). Two of the interpreters visualised quotation marks with hand movements, and the third verbalised them as "Quote. End of quote" (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017: 240).

Three studies discuss the coordinating function of the document in the interaction. Interpreters in Felberg and Nilsen´s (2017) study handled the document differently depending on how they positioned themselves and where they placed the document, influencing also their use of gaze and gestures. In Defrancq and Verliefde (2018), which was a one case study, one of the findings was that the document constituted a participant in the turn taking dynamics. Vargas-Urpi's (2018) study included analyses of verbal and non-verbal engagement strategies also in connection with text content and structure.

5. Discussion

The starting point for the discussion is the function of sight translation as an interpreting method and as an interactional practice between primary participants in face-to-face meetings which is common in community interpreting. The issues revealed in the review, when looking at them from a multimodal perspective, lead us to question both the understanding of sight translation as an interpreting method and an interactional practice. First, I suggest adding the concept of modal mediation to the understanding of sight translation whilst also discussing the source/target orientation to practice. Second, I argue how multimodal aspects support a target orientation. Third, I question the suitability of sight translation practice before I finally highlight areas for future research.

5.1 Refining the understanding of sight translation

Sight translation is, as mentioned, mainly studied in the framework of Gile's (1995, 2009) effort model, with a focus on the cognitive effort involved in translating a written source to a spoken text in the target language. This model is based on analyses of monologues, and mediation between modes seems to be embedded in other efforts (i.e. translating or coordinating). Analyses within this framework show that sight translators experience much pressure, even more so than when using other interpretation methods. This pressure is attributed to differences in the two languages and/or reading challenges and not explicitly to the shift in mode, although this shift seems to entail extra effort for the translator/interpreter. An overly linguistic approach to sight translation might conceal interactional differences related to mode, in the same way as labelling writing and speech as "language" would consider these a single mode (Scollon and Scollon, 2009; Kress, 2010). In transduction, effort is manifested, amongst other ways, through the constant struggle against interference, which burdens the brain over time (Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz, 2010). Sight translation requires not only reading, memory, coordination and production but also mediation between modes. One must assess the resources exploited in the source, transform them and render them using different resources in the target text. This process requires transduction skills in addition to translation skills, as well as strategies for the exploitation of semiotic resources in the rendition.

The norms of sight translation are oriented towards loyalty to the source text and form and loyalty towards the spoken mode and listenability. The first approach seems to guide interpreters who hesitate to add anything that is not verbal to the rendition (Felberg and Nilsen, 2017), and it is also advocated in the literature to guide certain text types for the sake of accuracy. Fluency influences listenability, but strategies, such as paraphrasing, chunking and condensation, are considered unacceptable in the legal context because accuracy is important (Weber, 1990; Lee, Vandaele and Basin, 2012). Administration of people's rights and duties can be defined as a legal context, and documents that are sight translated include verdicts, regulations and decisions. These documents are typically complex and sometimes lengthy, and the translation might benefit from the strategies mentioned above for the sake of fluency. However, these texts are instead advised to be subjected to a source-oriented strategy that is prone to disfluency, according to knowledge about the challenges and obstacles in sight translation.

When interpreters are not specifically trained in sight translation, they rely on their knowledge of interpreting spoken discourse. According to interpreters' code of ethics, interpreters should not add, omit or change the text. Performance in sight translation, however, is evaluated as better when, for example, qualifiers are added (Li, 2014). One might ask whether *adding* is the right word to describe what interpreters are doing when they exploit spoken connectives and qualifiers or when they verbalise graphic resources.

Knowledge of semiotic resources and their different affordances might support choices of mediation, which brings me to discuss how multimodal perspectives can inform interpreter practice.

5.2 Multimodal argument for a target oriented practice

From a multimodal point of view, the real-time creation of a spoken text that resembles its written form seems almost impossible; the time for planning is a salient factor that influences one's ability to produce complex texts. This is a modal difference: speech is produced under time constraints. We therefore need to ask whether an interpreter should take on such a task, when knowing that their interpretations are difficult to follow or inaccurate. On the other hand, a target-oriented approach might not be in opposition to the need for accuracy, as the perception of accuracy is different in writing and speech. Research on sight translation supports the idea that mode affects perception. Agrifoglio (2004) shows that what interpreters cognitively perceive, based on their output, differs depending on the mode of the source text. Thus, mode influences salience, defined as what the reader or listener pays attention to and remembers. Felberg and Nilsen's (2017) study focuses on how interpreters try to draw attention to text elements that they consider salient, such as an obviously wrong date, by staring and pointing. On the basis of knowledge about the accuracy of numbers in writing, as reported by Agrifoglio (2004), and considering that writing might be the preferred mode for accuracy, an overt explanation about the mistake could be justified because of the differential affordances of writing and speech. A date appears more accurate when perceived by sight than by listening. Staring and pointing might not be understood as an obvious transduction of a mistake, if so it would at least demand a shared understanding of such resources. Modes and semiotic resources are culturally and socially shaped; furthermore, semiotic resources in one mode do not necessarily have a counterpart in another mode (Kress, 2010).

Other strategies in sight translation that can be justified by multimodal arguments include linguistic simplification and avoidance of redundant information (Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012; Akbari, 2017). For example, whilst a list of legal paragraphs or long numbers is visually present and distributed spatially in a written text – and is therefore clear to a reader – a change to sound changes this clarity, and following the text by listening is likely a different experience, which probably confuses more than it clarifies.

The above-mentioned adding strategy can be understood as transduction of cohesive resources from one mode to another; speech exploits different cohesive resources than writing. In a study on sign language and cohesion, McDermid (2014) concludes that an interpretation is evaluated as better by the perceiver when cohesive resources are added to the interpretation. I propose that in this case, addition is attributed to the shift in mode. Cohesion, as stated previously, is present in all texts. Van Leeuwen (2005) roughly describes it as rhythm in speech and balance in print. In other words, a balanced written text must have rhythm when spoken.

When interpreting between deaf and blind people, the interpreter's task is to compensate both for what is said and for what is not seen, such as facial expressions and positioning in the room (Raanes and Berge, 2017). In sight-translated interaction, the proposed reader becomes a listener, and compensating for the reader's control could be understood as a concern for the interpreter. Consequently, it is not a violation of the code of ethics to mediate what is evident in sight in another way for the listener. When discussed, interpreters' choices seem to be guided by intuition, not by research-based knowledge (Ivars, 2008; Felberg and Nilsen, 2017). By including multimodality in the understanding of sight translation, interpreters can expand their strategic choices and base their practice on knowledge of both modality and language.

5.3 Suitability of sight translation

With knowledge of modal aspects, interpreters in public sector services would also have knowledge to assess documents for their translatability and to evaluate appropriateness related to the medium of communication (i.e. a telephone, a screen, or face-to-face interaction). As prior research shows, considerable linguistic challenges are associated with sight translation; the change in mode poses additional challenges. Not only must the interpreter have the capacity and competence to perform sight translation, but the written document must also be appropriate for sight translation from an interactional perspective (NCIHC, 2009). I believe that the interpreter is the best actor to decide on whether an interpreting method is appropriate and should be able to argue the limitations of the method, both in terms of its competence and interactional purpose.

Another aspect of practice is that sight translation is starting to be recognised as an independent interpreting method that requires unique competencies and norms of practice. Teaching and testing, however, are far from standardised. In addition, even in Norway, which has progressed quite far in the professionalisation of interpreting (NOU, 2014), two-thirds of interpreter assignments in public sector services are conducted by non-professionals (IMDI, 2017). This is probably not unique to the Norwegian public sector. One can therefore assume that documents are often sight translated by actors with little or no prior training in the method, delivering performances similar to those of students who process texts at the micro level and produce disruptive texts (Lee, Vandaele and Bastin, 2012; Akbari, 2017). Since many community interpreters are not trained or tested in sight translation skills, lack of sufficient reading skills and strategies are very likely to influence interpreters' performance (Nilsen and Monsrud, 2015). Lack of skills pose a threat to the communicative purpose of the original text that was originally meant for readers, hence a threat to both legal safty and participation.

5.4 Proposed areas for future research

As interpreters are affected by mode (Agrifoglio, 2004), so is the perceiver of the sight translated text, who becomes a listener. No studies have analysed meaning-making in sight-translated discourse as a whole or the listeners' perception of the texts. It is mentioned that it seems like listeners have difficulties to follow, but the reasons for this need to be explored. Studies must be carried out on texts with various lengths and in different settings (i.e face-to-face, through phone, screen, recorded). Recordings can solve the elusiveness of speech (Biela-Wolonciej, 2015) and further investigation is needed on interactional aspects of such recordings.

In face-to-face interactions, interlocutors offer interpreter possibilities to solve challenges, both textual and interactional. How this opportunity is exploited must be explored and documented because 'the other' is important in the meaning-making process (Linell, 1998). Therefore, sight translation is not an isolated practice in which the meaning is in the texts.

Future research should involve users of interpreting services who would benefit from knowledge about the potentials and limitations of various interpreting methods. They are, in the end, the ones who are responsible for (secure) communication and legal safeguard.

Other interesting aspects are the concept of readers' privilege and how the act of reading affects interaction (Scollon, 1998), as well as the cultural dimensions related to written and oral communication and canons of use. Modal and semiotic affordances are culturally shaped, influenced by literacy, technology and ideology. Can this knowledge inform interpreters in their sight translation process?

6. Conclusion

In this article, I have highlighted the scarcely explored but widespread communicative practice of sight-translating written documents, a method that is frequently used in community interpting settings. Approaching sight translation as an interactional practice from a multimodal perspective raises many questions about interpreting practice that relates to legal safeguards, perceptions and understanding, thus also participation. I have documented a considerable research gap related to the absence of the listener's perspective and the limited attention to the process of transduction in sight translation. In addition, as the results of extant research are mainly based on experimental studies of monologues, findings on the dialogical and communicative aspects of sight translation are limited.

A limitation of this study is that teaching materials and curricula are not included. A different approach to communication could emerge from the investigation of teaching practices. Additionally, I touch upon but do not discuss issues concerning the methodological aspects of experiments on sight translation and their ecological validity, as well as criteria for the assessment of sight-translated texts. An assessment based exclusively on written transcriptions creates methodological problems with analysis, such as a possible written language bias.

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Article 2

‘Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making’

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Where did the footnote go? How the change of mode in sight translation affects meaning-making

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how interpreters affect meaning making when translating a written text into speech. The analyses are based on Halliday's theory of linguistic metafunctions from a multimodal perspective. The data are obtained from a strictly controlled design that isolated textual factors related to typical written resources other than language to explore how interpreters addressed them. By placing sight translation in Kress and van Leeuwen's model of the four domains of meaning-making – discourse, design, production and distribution – the interpreter becomes a contributor as a re-producer and a re-distributor, adding more layers to the meaning-making process. Findings reveal that the interpreters vary in how they adapt the text to the spoken mode, and that their exploitation of semiotic resources affect the meaning potential. Although the interpreter´s code of ethics advises against altering the meaning potential, the findings show that such shift is unavoidable because of the modal shift. This study contributes with new insight about semiotic differences in written and spoken texts and shows that meaning potential related to all metafunctions changes through the sight translation process. This change is most evident at the interpersonal level in face-to-face encounters. These new insights should inform interpreters' sight translation practice and training, as well as future research.

KEYWORDS

Sight translation, multimodality, shift of mode, interpreting, interaction.

1. Introduction

Sight translation, or interpreting from writing to speech, is a method that is frequently required as part of interpreters' assignments in face-to-face interactions, for example, translation of reports after interviews, verdicts, decisions or orientation about rights (Čeňková 2015; Chen 2015). Existing research on sight translation does not reflect this practice; rather, studies are predominantly conducted on monologues analysing pedagogies, efforts, linguistic challenges and skills (Havnen 2019; Vargas-Urpi 2019). More recently, scholars have shown interest in exploring the multimodal and interactional aspects of sight translation (Felberg and Nilsen 2017; Vargas-Urpi 2019) and how the introduction of a written text influences the dialogical pattern (Davitti and Pasquandrea 2017; Defrancq and Verliefde 2018; Ticca and Traverso 2017). In Translation and Interpreting Studies, including translation between modes, there has been a movement toward including multimodal aspects in theories and methodologies (Boria and Tomalin 2020; Davitti 2019; Gonzalez 2014; O'Sullivan 2013; Tuominen *et al.* 2018). Surprisingly, the modal shift in sight translation and its effect on meaning-making have so far not been examined in empirical research (Havnen 2019).

The need for sight translation emerges when the intended reader of the written text does not have access to the document in the original language. A written translation might be time-consuming or expensive, so sight translation becomes the solution to overcoming the language barrier. This practice does not seem to consider the effect of the modal shift, possibly assuming that writing and speech create meaning in similar ways, as language is the dominant resource in both modes. Sight translation as a communicative practice does not have a monolingual counterpart. In a literate society, the expectation is that everyone can read, and a person is seldom in a situation in which something needs to be read aloud, if not for the sake of pleasure. One can think of this kind of translation as an adaptation for a person who has a temporal literacy impairment, hence related to accessibility issues.

From a multimodal perspective, mediating from one mode to another, or the very move from one meaning-making domain to another, is considered semiotic in itself. The mode shift affects the meaning potential. A typical example is a teacher's execution of a syllabus in the classroom. However detailed the design is, the teacher's choices affect what is foregrounded, hence altering the meaning-making (Kress and van Leeuwen 2001: 7). According to the interpreter code of ethics, an interpreter cannot alter the meaning. However, in practice, since the so-called cultural turn in translation studies in the early 1990s, translators' discursive presence in translated texts have been well-document and shifts in meaning can occur when moving from one language to another. There is not "'a pane of glass' or a 'black box' through which ideas flow unchanged" (Rudvin 2006: 21). However, the ethical codes promoted by translation service providers advocate an illusion about equivalence, accuracy and neutrality (Lambert 2018).

In interpreting, including sight translation, time constraints in the production phase add to the limitations involved in any form of interlingual translation, oftentimes leading to loss of information (according to Gile's effort model 2009). A study comparing bilingual speakers without interpreting training and educated interpreters' performances show differences in their production. Thus, training helps to reduce loss; however, even the most educated never score 100%. This is expected, understandable and also accepted in interpreting assessments (Hale *et al*. 2018). Several studies on sight translation have documented problems in production that are related to interpreters' competencies and/or to linguistic challenges (Agrifoglio 2004; Jiménez Ivars 2008; Lambert and Clas 2004; Sherve *et al*. 2010, 2011), but few studies have examined the meaning-making implications of the modal shift (Havnen 2019).

My motivation for analysing the modal shift in sight translation springs from my own experience as a schoolteacher for six years, an interpreter on and off for 26 years and an interpreter teacher for 15 years (amongst other experiences in teaching sight translation in the last four years). In this sense, I am what Gile (2018) refers to as a practisearcher. As a schoolteacher, I sometimes read aloud for my pupils and found myself explaining and explicating structural and referential information to keep the pupils' attention. I wondered how interpreters facilitated written texts into speech when they were not as free to adapt the text as teachers are when they are reading. I saw students who focused exclusively on the verbal text when practicing, with little or no attention to, for example, paratextual resources or the listeners' needs. Students oftentimes hid behind the document or buried themselves in the text, never looking up. Through a critical review of studies on sight translation, I reveal that little attention has been given to the modal mediation process and to listeners' perspectives (Havnen 2019).

In this article, I address how interpreters treat typical written meaning-making resources other than language when translating a written text into speech. I discuss how interpreters' renditions affect ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions when moving from one mode to another. Likewise, I briefly describe some listeners' perspectives and argue for the usefulness of incorporating multimodal interactional perspectives into practice and training.

After introducing the multimodal approach I chose for these analyses, I describe the design I made through strict input control to give prominence to the modal aspects. The results section focuses on the communicative implications of the modal shift in sight translation; this is followed by some concluding remarks.

2. Theory

The multimodal approach in this article is based on the semiotic perspectives of Halliday's systemic functional linguistics and the concept of metafunctions. Halliday (1978) describes the ideational, textual and interpersonal metafunctions of language use, a theory that Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) developed for visual modes and which is recently explored in the realm of touch as a communicative mode (Jewitt 2018). The ideational meaning in a mode, which relates to reality, is also considered as presentational or logical. The social relations between the signer and the sign are expressed through interpersonal modal resources; the ideational and interpersonal meanings draw on the textual metafunction – the organisational meaning (Jewitt 2009: 24).

It is accepted that all interactions are multimodal, and that no mode creates meaning alone (Norris 2004). Language should not be considered a separate communicative mode, as it has to be realised through speech or writing that exploits quite different semiotic resources in meaning-making – in other words, language does not make meaning alone. Kress (2010,

2020) argued that writing and speech must be considered as separate modes; otherwise, communicative implications might be ignored. From a multimodal perspective, not only do communicative modes have specific affordances, but they are also chosen because of their affordances (e.g. writing for its recursive possibilities and speech for immediacy).

Sight translation as a semiotic practice can be studied through the four-strata model involving discourse, design, production and distribution, as Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) described. Discourse in this context is understood as the socially constructed knowledge of some aspects of reality. Design is a realisation of discourse and is semiotic in the sense that it, for example, exploits a genre to realise meaning. Production refers to the material through which the communicative event is expressed. Distribution is how the text reaches the receiver – the interpreter of the articulation (Kress and van Leeuwen 2001:4-9). These configurations are to be understood as layers in the communicative practice that are neither hierarchically ordered nor linear. However, they are separate in the sense that they all contribute to meaning-making in different ways. In the case of sight translation in face-to-face encounters, the text is distributed as a written text to the interpreter, who re-produces the writing into speech for a listener in person. In other words, the final text has even more layers that are semiotic. I presume that the shift in the original distribution, and the added (re)production layer, contributes to a shift in the metafunctions of the start text.

Interpreters do not have the same freedom as teachers or public servants do when adapting a text for listeners. Interpreters are guided by their professional code of ethics, including guidelines about not adding, omitting or changing the text along with neutrality and loyalty claims (Lambert 2018). There is a source–target text continuum in translation practice, as shifts in translations are inevitable; the solutions will place themselves somewhere on the continuum of being oriented toward the source text, or the target text. Or, as Pym (2018) (and I) prefer, the start text and the target text. Another continuum is at play in sight translation: the written–spoken language continuum. Both continuums are relevant to the understanding of how sight translation should sound: as if a written text is read aloud or adapted to the spoken mode (Havnen 2019).

I set up a controlled experiment to analyse professional interpreters' mediation of a written text into speech. In Section 3, I describe the design constituting the basis of my analyses.

3. Method

I designed the experimental setting as a role play scenario in a room that was set up like a typical public office. Another study using role play found that there were no differences in the results when the role plays were done in a real police station versus in a simulated interrogation room (Hale *et al.* 2018). In the office in the present scenario, a representative for the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration met with a Serbian-speaking client, and they needed an interpreter to communicate.

Experimental designs are common in interpreting research for several reasons, such as difficulties in accessing real situations and unpredictability in the occurrences of what one wants to study. Experiments have been criticised for having too little external validity and/or little ecological validity (Liu 2016). In sight translation, experiments are also criticised for a lack of controlling variables (Li 2014).

I designed the experiment executed in this study to address some of the above-mentioned challenges. I also wanted to shift focus from the study of sight translation of monologues in language labs, to sight translation of documents as part of face-to-face interaction.

All the participants signed informed consent forms. The public servant who helped with this work is employed in a social welfare office and has extensive experience talking to clients with and without an interpreter; she is also an experienced role player in practical exams for interpreters at Oslo Metropolitan University. It was important that she was confident and secure in the experiment to keep participants' focus on the communicative event and so that she would be able to answer domain-specific questions that could arise in the interaction. Her instructions were to meet a client who had contacted the office to get some general information about sick leaves. At some point, she was to hand the interpreter an information sheet for translation. She was to play along with the situation in whichever way it might turn out, but she was not to interfere during the sight translation unless the interpreter or the client-initiated contact. According to students in courses on sight translation, my own experiences as an interpreter and as reported by Felberg (2015), it is common practice to leave a document with the interpreter and oftentimes exclude oneself from the interaction. The public servant was already in the office when the interpreter and client arrived, accompanied by me acting as the secretary. After each role play, the public servant wrote down her immediate reflections (100–150 words). Three speakers of Serbian with as little knowledge of Norwegian as possible were recruited amongst newly arrived working immigrants through cultural organisations. In other similar experimental settings (Felberg and Nilsen 2017; Hale *et al.* 2018; Vargas-Urpi 2019), and to the best of my knowledge, researchers have not used speakers who do not also know the other language as a variable. The interlocutors in this experiment had a real need for an interpreter in order to understand one another, and they had a realistic communicative goal. There were different listeners for each interpreter because if they had been the same, the listener would have gained knowledge and experience and would not have been able to listen without presumptions. Two of the participants were already employed in jobs in which there was no demand for Norwegian skills; however, they had not yet been in a situation where they needed knowledge of welfare issues. The third participant was on a beginner's course in Norwegian. All of them were educated and had work experience. Their instructions were that they had initiated a meeting with the social welfare office to obtain information about rights and duties in the case of illness in an employment relationship. I told them that even though it was a role play, the public servant was a real professional and the information was true. An interpreter would be present for them to communicate – the participants had not previously used interpreter services. I encouraged them to react and act according to whatever came up in the situation, but I did not give them any examples of what that might be. I did not want them to turn their attention to any issue that could bias their behaviour. I interviewed them after the role play, and I audio recorded their interviews.

I recruited three interpreters in Serbian – labelled A, B and C – from my professional network. They are all interpreters with substantial experience; they all hold a state authorisation in interpreting and have masters' degrees in the humanities. Further details about their background would immediately identify them, as the interpreter community in this language is small. One of my priorities for the experiment was that they had similar qualifications, that they were familiar with the interpreting settings and that they would not have problems with basic interpreting skills or language. This last factor was important so that any language issues would not overshadow the modal aspects. None of the interpreters had attended the course in sight translation offered at Oslo Metropolitan University, as the course was not yet offered for that language. The interpreters wrote some immediate reflections after they completed the role play (100–200 words). The participants' reflections and my interviews with the clients did not play a significant role in the current analyses – I will analyse them more closely in a future study about attention and awareness in the interaction. In this study, the reflections are supplementary to the analyses of the translations. For the purpose of the experiment, I developed a text (Appendix 1) with 413 words containing different areas of interest (AOIs) (inspired by Shreve *et al.* 2010). These authors developed texts with predefined problems and measured problem areas by hesitation; their main concern was complex syntactic constructions. For my study, the AOIs were typical written structural resources (headlines, lists), graphic resources (punctuation, font style) and visual elements (logo, illustrations). In addition to the predefined areas, the material generated an issue related to deictic references; I added these as AOIs for analysis.

The text I developed for my experiments was a manifestation of the social welfare discourse in Norway. I designed it as information about regulations about sick leave and the need to disseminate such information. I produced written text to be distributed to people who were in need of it. It contained general information about the duties and rights of employees in the case of illness in a working relationship. I chose this theme for its relevance to people who were working immigrants; they would have some personal interest in the information and therefore be more likely to stay engaged, which they did. The content was realistic, as I took it from the social welfare office's website. I printed and distributed the information on an information sheet for reading, and I included AOIs, such as illustrations and a footnote. To illustrate how the modal shift influences the text, the analysis is a comparison of two texts: the written start text and the spoken target text. I focus on how and if the ideational, interpersonal or representative metafunction is affected by the modal shift through the mediation of non-verbal elements in the texts. The written text consists of visual resources, such as illustrations, graphic resources, structure and language; the spoken text is aural and visual, including speech, gestures and gaze.

The interpreters were handed the document several minutes before the meeting so that they could familiarises themselves with the content and layout. They sat in a separate room from the person acting as the client. They had no prior knowledge of the public servant or the client. The participants were randomly paired. There were two cameras – one focusing on the interpreter and the listener (client), and one focusing on the interpreter and the public servant. I was not in the room.

No unexpected factors affected the experiment. The tight experiment design generated material that was both comparable and suitable for analysing the AOIs.

I watched the video recordings several times and transcribed renditions connected to the AOIs in a table. There is no existing typology for annotating renditions of, for example, graphic resources into speech. I have developed some categories inspired by Wadensjö (1998) and her descriptions of various rendition types. I have adapted these to describe the renditions of non-verbal resources. The categories are: not rendered, explicated as in the text, explicated through gesture, tone, binder or gaze and verbalising the semiotic meaning of the sign/reference.

4. Results

I conducted my analyses on the AOIs and not on the translation of the verbal text, even though the latter was the focus in the interpreter's reflections they wrote after the experiment. The text did not constitute comprehension problems for the interpreters, and some of the challenges called for the use of translation strategies that affect meaning-making. Such strategies are thoroughly discussed in existing research (Agrifoglio 2004; Akbari 2017; Jiménez Ivars 2008; Lee *et al.* 2012; Şulha 2014). My interest is in how and if typical written resources are transferred and how the modal change influences meaning-making and the interaction.

Tables 1–4 show the renditions categorised as 0: not rendered; 1: explicated as in the text (i.e. parentheses as parentheses); 2: explicated through a) gesture, b) tone, c) binder or d) gaze; or 3: verbalising the semiotic meaning of the sign/reference.

Interpreter	A	B	C
Headline	3	1	0
Headline	2c (3)	2c	2c
List	0	0	0
Bullet point 1	0	2c	0
Bullet point 2	0	2c	0
Bullet point 3	2 b	0	2 c
Page turning	3	2c	2c
New headline	3	3	2c
Numbered list	3	0	2c
End of list	2c	0	2c

Table 1. Structural elements

Interpreter	A	B	C
«.» 1 highlighting	3	1	0
«.» 2 highlighting	0	0	2
Bold highlighting	2b	2b	2d
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Parentheses	3	1	3
Italics	2b	0	0
Parenthesis (synonym)	3	3	0
Underlined 1	0	0	0
Underlined 2	2b	2b	0

Table 2. Graphic semiotic resources

Interpreter	A	B	C
Logo	0	0	0
Illustrations	0	0	0

Table 3. Images

Some of the deictic references did not fit into the above mentioned categories, so they were written as they were rendered (Table 4).

Interpreters	A	B	C
Reference «you»	Passive	I	I
Reference «here»	3 (in this brochure)	1	1
Reference (single provider)	Single mother	Single father	Single provider

Footnote	0	0	0
Web page	2a + 1	1	3
See point	N	you	we
Page turning	we	we	we

Table 4. Deictic elements

There were 30 instances of zero renditions of semiotic resources belonging to the written mode – most of these were by Interpreter C. There were 20 instances indicated through gesture, gaze, verbal discourse markers or prosody, with verbal discourse markers being the most frequent. There were 17 instances of verbal explication, most frequent in Interpreter A, and there were 9 instances of explicating by describing the written resource (in parentheses). Interpreter B exhibited all these instances.

The most obvious finding in the material was that the three interpreters addressed the text differently. This was evident from the beginning in terms of how they presented the document to the listener; later, it was manifested in how much they adapted the text to the spoken mode and in their use of discourse markers. Interpreter A consistently used gaze and voice as a means of engaging the listener, whereas Interpreter B focused on the text but lifted his or her eyes up after finishing a sequence and used a discursive verbal sign to wrap up the paragraph. Interpreter C only looked at the listener three times and focused very intensely on the text, simultaneously gesturing a lot with one hand, which can be understood as a thinking gesture for the interpreter but can also function as a cohesive gesture for the listener because it is rhythmic.

4.1 Structural elements

Interpreter A was clearly oriented toward the listener, presenting the document by describing it as an information brochure about what to do in the case of illness. Interpreter C just read the headline out loud, whereas Interpreter B was in a middle position, saying, 'the headline says'. Something similar occurred when the page had to be turned: Interpreter A said that they must now go to the next page and mentioned that it was about sick leave, whereas the two other interpreters just said that they would now turn to 'sick leave'.

There were two different lists in the material, one with bullet points and one with numbers. None of the interpreters indicated that the first was a list or how long it was, but Interpreters A and C both signalled that the list had ended. Interpreter B explicated the first two bullet points as numbers and stated that the list ended by not articulating the last number. For the numbered list, Interpreter A presented the list as consisting of four measures, Interpreter B read without explicating and Interpreter C connected the first number or item to its referent (measure). Interpreters A and C indicated that the list ended, whereas B did not.

4.2 Graphic signs

Interpreter B rendered parentheses and inverted commas by saying 'parentheses' and 'inverted commas', whereas the two other interpreters explained functions, such as 'so-called' (i.e. 'that means'). However, even when inverted commas were used twice in a row, the interpreters only rendered one. Their function was to emphasise two concepts. 'So-called' is frequently used by interpreters for culturally specific concepts, which one of these concepts were. In other instances, parentheses were mostly rendered through their function in the text, but Interpreter B articulated them mostly as parentheses. This is a practice that is common in police interviews when translating transcripts, as text within parentheses refers to the author's comments, this is explained in the introduction to the report/transcript. Interpreter B did not explicate the parentheses when they indicated a synonym, mentioning both concepts. Interpreter C chose the synonym only.
There were two cases of <u>underlining</u>. The first one was underlining an aspect of duty, and the second one was underlining the goal for an employee to get back to work as soon as possible. These represent political guidelines in the social welfare system. None of the interpreters emphasised the first idea; Interpreters A and B indicated the second idea through their tone. They all emphasised numbers in bold letters.

A part of the text was written in *italics*; their function here was that there was an exception to the rule. Only Interpreter A signalled this by highlighting the word 'if' at the beginning of the sentence. The two other interpreters read this part in the same manner as they did the other parts of the text.

4.3 Ignored resources

Some resources were left out totally, such as the logo and illustrations. None of the interpreters showed the listener the paper. However, Interpreter A showed the client the hyperlink at the end of the text.

The final resource that they all ignored was the footnote. They did not focus on it when the reference number appeared in the text, nor when they reached the bottom of the page. The footnote said that the rules did not apply if one was freelancing or was self-employed.

4.4 Deictic elements

The deictic references proved to be particularly interesting, as I purposely did not put them in the material as an area of interest. They did not only appear naturally in the text, but they also entered the discourse in the explication of structural elements. One instance was a 'here' in the text, which Interpreter A described as 'in this brochure', and which Interpreters B and C described as 'here'. Interpreter A connected the neutral single provider to a mother (the listener was female), Interpreter B to a father (the listener was male) and Interpreter C kept it neutral. The neutral 'see the point about sick leave on the next page' was rendered as neutral by Interpreter A, as 'you' by B and as 'we' by C. When turning the page, they all used 'we go to'. The name of the document was 'What shall you do in case of illness?'. Interpreter A rendered this as neutral and changed the question to 'What to do . . .', whereas the other two interpreters changed 'you' to 'I' for some reason.

Another difference was the reference to the hyperlink. Interpreter A said, 'for additional information, you have a web page mentioned here (shows the document, points at it) nav dot no, with three double w's before'. Interpreter B said that 'you can find more information on the site www dot nav dot no', explicating that it was a website. Interpreter C said, 'you can find more information on NAV's webpage'.

4.5 The participants' perspectives

In the interview material, the listener to Interpreter A (7 min and 38 sec), the interpreter who explicated the most (in a pedagogic manner), mentioned that the information provided was sometimes difficult to follow, and that it was easy to mentally drift away. The listener felt like she had been 'sent back to school'. The listener to Interpreter B's rendition (7 min and 15 sec) commented that posing questions along the way was difficult, as after finishing, the listener had already forgotten the questions. Interpreter B was attentive but distant. Interestingly, Interpreter A commented that interrupting the interpreter with questions seemed to be difficult, and the public servant also commented on the reading feeling lengthy, challenging any listener's attention. In the case of Interpreter C, who took 5 min and 26 seconds and hardly looked at the listener, the listener could recall more information than the others and had no questions about the text. The public servant, however, felt excluded. The two participants that engaged in further conversation with the public servant after the sight translation preferred this interaction to the reading part of the experiment. All of the listeners remembered that the first part of the information related to individual rights best, whereas the more technical part on the next page was remembered as 'the list with four points'.

5. Discussion

The text used in this experiment is developed as information for ordinary people. The interpreters did not have problems with the translation process, but they still did not render many semiotic elements that affect meaning-making.

5.1 Metafunctions of the text

Some of the ideational metafunctions were expressed in the text via highlighting, such as an individual's responsibility to get back to work as soon as possible; this was articulated verbally and through the use of underscoring and bold characters. When the interpreters ignored the semiotic function of these resources and did not render them, it contributed to a shift that weakened the authority of the text and placed a stronger focus on the informative aspect. Not referring to the footnote excluded important information; if a person qualified for this exception from the rule, the information given would have been misleading. Furthermore, not showing the illustrations and the logo might have minor consequences, as the illustration had a supplementary function and did not give additional information; however, not showing it deprived the listener of the visual support as part of meaning-making, supporting the informative and structural properties of the text. There might be cultural aspects to the perception of semiotic resources, such as the use of cartoons in governmental information leaflets. If one expects serious information to be primarily written, cartoons might have a different function. Cultural aspects of literacy need to be explored further.

Relevant for the textual metafunctions are cohesive resources. The layout in the document and the visual elements were reader-friendly because of their combination. The interpreters' renditions indicated a shared mental representation of the structure, but the listeners did not have visual access to, for example, the length of the lists; as a result, they cannot know what to expect. This way of rendering is in line with Felberg and Nilsen's (2017) findings – two of the interpreters in their study did signal the existence of bullet points by use of their fingers, but they did not indicate the structure by, for example, telling/showing listeners how long the list was. The third interpreter in their study ensured the listener could see the document the entire time and used a pen to show where she was in the text. The interpreters in Vargas-Urpi's (2019) study did the same – the text in that study was a short table and might have seemed more logical to show. In training situations, listeners express that they prefer visual access.

One of the interpreters, A, explicated the headline through its function as a structural element. Another, B, articulated the headline as it was. The third, C, pointed out that it was a headline. The two latter solutions do not combine as well as the first one does with the spoken mode; they also make the written structure salient with no visual support. They presuppose that the listener is literate and understands the written references in the same way as the interpreter does. Modal literacy, however, is socially and culturally shaped (van Leeuwen 2005).

The interpersonal metafunction of the texts shifted in more ways because of the shift in attention from the public servant to the interpreter, through the interpreters' use of the deictic 'we' and through discourse markers (gaze and prosody). This shift was less evident in Interpreter C's rendition, which mainly focused on the texts informative content. Interpreter B was in a middle position, both staying very close to the start text and some of the written resources, but also engaging the listener through gaze and discourse markers. Deictic elements, such as 'you' and 'here', were probably confusing, as the distributed written text was read by someone who was not the intended perceiver. Not changing it might lead to confusion about the reference, as Felberg and Nilsen (2017) reported. Here, an interpreter pointed at the listener when reading 'convicted' to ensure understanding. In training contexts, it is necessary to discuss deictic references and their function in the written compared to the spoken mode.

All of the interpreters' renditions led to a change in the metafunctions of the text in different directions. The interpreters seemed unaware of this choice; they were not consequent through the text, and their renditions gave the impression that they were a result of personal style and intuition. This is in line with Jiménez Ivars' (2008) and Felberg and Nilsen's (2017) findings when exploring interpreters' strategies in sight translation. I argue, however, that it is vital that interpreters consider all meaning-making resources, and that they are aware of how they influence meaning-making when translating a written text into speech. The change of mode affects perception and interaction. Attention must also be given to the accessibility issue – the intended reader who becomes a listener.

5.2 Listening and understanding

The listeners remembered the first part of the document best. This might be related to the content – it focuses on individual rights, as opposed to obligations and different possible sick leave arrangements on the next page. However, it can also be related to attention span. Sherve *et al.*'s (2010) study showed a clear decline in the interpreter's concentration after only one paragraph during sight translation. The listeners in my experiment might have been exposed to saturation. Two of them mentioned that concentrating and remembering were difficult. The subsequent problems can also be related to the text, as the second part of the brochure about obligations was more technical. The interpreters did not have problems with this part of the text, but they had specialised knowledge in public sector discourse, whereas the listeners did not. Consequently, the listeners' attention might have waned because of a lack of pre-knowledge, which affected their sense of coherence and memory. In the case of the migrants from Serbia, they do have experience with social welfare, especially if they were raised in the former Yugoslavia. This might have had an effect on why it was easier for the listener of Interpreter C to remember; he had a longer history of work experience and was older than the two other listeners.

Texts subjected to sight translation are oftentimes not as easy to interpret or understand, nor are they as short as the present text was. Documents can be dense, contain specialist terminology and be very detailed and lengthy. The listeners in my experiment, who were only listening for 5–7 minutes, did find it difficult to concentrate. Even if an interpreter understands and has no problems interpreting the content, one has to ask oneself whether it is the most beneficial way to convey information, or if it is just a pragmatic way to overcome a language barrier. Arranging for a more dialogical approach that involves the interlocutors more actively by, for example, telling the listeners that they are allowed to ask questions along the reading, is possible.

Based on the experimental data in this study, making a connection between the interpreter's behaviour and the listener's response was not possible, as listeners' preferences might be individual. What is interesting is that they do have reactions and preferences, and that the act of sight translation does have an impact on the interaction at several levels – as the very act of reading also seems to.

> The act of reading – as opposed to the cognitive process of reading – is a kind of social interaction, a way of being socially present in the here and now, which places participants in quite specific webs of mutual obligations to others who are socially present. (Scollon 1998: 281)

In the case of sight translation, the intended reader is deprived of the control (and power) one has as a reader. The reader becomes a listener who must rely on the interpreter's reading: an immediate spoken rendition and his or her own memory. Future research should explore, for example, whether creating a mental construct for the listener before sight translating is beneficial, as well as investigate ways of involving the interlocutors. When role playing in the course on sight translation offered at Oslo Metropolitan University, listeners appreciate receiving some structural information before the translation starts. During the reading, they also value involvement. The public servant in Interpreter C's situation said that she would not prefer to use that interpreter, as she felt excluded from the interaction, although the listener was satisfied with the information he or she received. The communicative goal, if it was a dialogue, was not reached; if it was strictly informative, it was achieved, although stripped of the social morality. Additional cognitive studies involving diverse listeners and various text types and lengths need to be conducted.

5.3 Sight translation: A specialised translation method

Sight translation is often treated as a hybrid – a practice that is between translation and interpretation, although several scholars have argued that it needs to be taught separately as a method and not only as a pedagogical exercise (Sampaio 2007; Lee *et al.* 2012; Felberg and Nilsen 2017). A categorisation as a 'between practice' does not clarify many of the unique challenges of sight translation. Sight translation has many similar challenges to other intersemiotic translation practices, such as audiovisual translation, subtitling and transcriptions that demand some choices related to the mode (medium). Chaume (2018) discusses the concept of translation and various interlingual, intralingual and intersemiotic translation practices that are often categorised as adaptations across medias. He concludes that although there are different norms, expectations and levels of adaptations from a source to a target when moving meaning across languages and/or media, all the practices could be embraced by the concept of translation. That would mean revisiting translation and its relation to linguistic transfer, which is especially evident not only in expectations about legal texts in general (Hale 2015), but also in sight translation (Lee *et al.* 2012; Mikkelson and Willis 1993; Weber 1990). There is an underlying expectation that the communicative barrier is solely related to language. This leads to the idea about the translator as a mediator who does not act as a participant. Even in literature on multimodality, translators are described as 'mediational means' as opposed to social actors (Norris 2019: 38). I trust that Norris does actually acknowledge the translator as contributing to meaning-making, especially between modes; however, such descriptions support the notion of the machinelike translator. Ethical codes promoting equivalence and accuracy underpin these expectations. Lambert (2018) argues that this illusion is misleading and unethical.

It is an everyday reality for interpreters to encounter these expectations, which they might also have about themselves. I argue that interpreters are in the most obvious position to argue and explain the limitations and advantages connected to translation methods. Language and mode shifts bring about a shift in meaning-making, and consumers of services should be actively included in making knowledge-based choices about methods. In the public sector, both legal safety and participation are at stake (Havnen 2019).

Interpreters become specialists through training, and they should be encouraged to use their knowledge and take a more active part in choices of method, especially when it comes to sight translation because of its many pitfalls and interactional challenges. Nilsen and Havnen (2020) found that interpreters reported that they sometimes compromised quality because of time pressure, for fear of not being collaborative or for fear of being regarded as unqualified when arguing against sight-translating certain texts. Määttä (2015) reports the dilemmas surrounding legal safeguarding and language practices in the intersection between written and spoken language. Interpreters might not consider themselves to be the responsible parties in these practices; however, I argue that their specialist competence matters. Measures to educate service users should also be implemented at other levels.

In our program at Oslo Metropolitan University, discussions on how to decline a task, ask for preparation time and explain limitations and possible angles to sight translation form part of the training. This is in addition to multimodal analyses of various texts, practicing through role plays with a listener's perspective and experimenting with different strategies with peers and in language labs (Nilsen and Havnen 2020). As codes of ethics are created on the basis of interpreting between speech, the problem of how to transfer them to sight translation requires a multimodal focus. The meaning-making resources are different, and modal adaptation is necessary to maintain the focus of the (temporarily illiterate) listener.

An interesting negotiation of translation norms occurs in the area of audio description (for the blind and visually impaired), in which neutrally describing visual information has been a norm, for example, by focusing on narratives in theatre plays. However, in post dramas, the narrative is not necessarily the salient resource, so other signs might be the salient semiotic resource that need to be described. The audio-visual description is suggested to be a part of production processes and not of post-production to make an adequate description of the salient signs (Roofthoot *et al.* 2018).

6. Concluding remarks

Interpreters need knowledge about meaning-making resources beyond just the language in written texts. They also need insight into the functions of the semiotic resources exploited in writing and speech. The interpreter's reluctance to say out loud what is not verbal in the start text might have its source in the interpreter code of ethics and the idea of accuracy, which prohibits adding, omitting or changing information. Not attending to all semiotic resources, however, is also omitting. The metafictional shift when going from one mode to another is inevitable and must be approached consciously and knowledgeably.

Knowledge about communicative potentials and the constraints of translation across languages and modes is necessary to maximise the use of the most adequate methods and measures in particular situations. Interpreters need these insights to make good choices, sometimes making the challenges transparent for the users, such as by recommending other measures to convey information.

A controlled experiment with strict input control makes it possible to focus on predefined areas of interest. In this experiment, it was of great importance that language was not a hindrance for the interpreters, and that they were confident practitioners. The authenticity in the setting made the participants behave quite naturally. It would be interesting to use a longer text as well as a text containing more challenges. For example, the hyperlink inserted was short and common, and the illustrations were supplementary and would be more challenging if they displayed additional meaning. In future analyses based on the same experiment, I will consider the whole interaction. A weakness in the design for such analyses is the input control of the client actors. Two of them had similar backgrounds, but the third had a different socio-cultural background and was older than the others, which may have had an impact on pre-knowledge and expectations in the interactions. In a future experiment, I would also try to gain more information from the other participants as their reflections give valuable information when seen in relation to each other and to their common communicative experience.

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Biography

Randi Havnen is a PhD student and a lecturer in Interpreting Studies at the Department of International Studies and Interpreting, Oslo Metropolitan University. Her research interest is sight translation from a multimodal and interactional perspective, as well as the communicative and pedagogical aspects of interpreting. She is also a trained interpreter and an educated schoolteacher. She holds a master's degree in Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian language, culture and literature.

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Appendix: Source text – Information Leaflet

Hva skal du gjøre ved sykdom?

Selv om du er frisk og rask i dag, kan det skje uforutsette hendelser som gjør at du ikke kan utføre jobben din. I den forbindelse har du både plikter og rettigheter.

Vi har to ordninger ved sykdom – det ene er «egenmelding» og det andre er «sykemelding». Her kan du lese det viktigste om de ulike ordningene[1]

Egenmelding

For å kunne benytte deg av egenmelding, må du ha arbeidet **minst to måneder** for den arbeidsgiveren du melder deg syk for. Du kan bruke egenmelding inntil tre dager fire ganger i løpet av tolv måneder

- For fravær utover tre kalenderdager, kan arbeidsgiver kreve sykemelding
- Egenmeldt fravær forut for sykemelding, regnes som egenmeldingsdager
- Egenmelding kan ikke kombineres med gradert sykemelding (se punktet om sykemelding på neste side)

Ved barn eller barnepassers sykdom kan du ha inntil ti dagers fravær. Egne regler gjelder for omsorg for flere enn to barn og barn med funksjonshemninger, samt om du er aleneforsørger. Se Folketrygdloven §§ 9-5 til 9-8. Du har rett til fravær ved barn eller barnepassers sykdom etter fire ukers ansettelse hos arbeidsgiver.

Dersom bedriften du jobber i er en IA-virksomhet, kan du bruke egenmelding i opptil åtte kalenderdager. Egenmelding kan brukes i 24 kalenderdager i løpet av en 12-måneders periode. Det er ikke begrensning på antall ganger retten kan benyttes.

[1] Det gjelder egne regler for frilansere og selvstendig næringsdrivende https://www.nav.no/no/Person/Arbeid/Sykmeldt%2C+arbeidsavklaringspenger+og+yrkesskade/Sykepenger/Sykepenger+til+selvstendig+naringsdrivende+og+frilansere

Hva skal du gjøre ved sykdom?

Sykemelding

Hvis du ikke har rett til å benytte deg av egenmelding, må du ha sykemelding av lege hvis det er medisinske grunner til at du ikke kan jobbe.

Den som sykmelder deg skal vurdere gradert (delvis) sykmelding og diskutere muligheter og løsninger med deg. Det finnes ulike typer sykmeldinger, og ofte er det mulig å være delvis i arbeid.

For å ha rett til sykepenger i mer enn 8 uker, har du som hovedregel plikt til å væew i arbeidsrelatert aktivitet

Det finnes ulike ordninger for at du skal kunne komme fortest mulig tilbake i arbeid.

1) Gradert sykemelding (du opprettholder kontakt med arbeidsgiver og gjør tilpassede oppgaver)
2) Avventende sykemelding (arbeidsgiver får beskjed om at sykemelding kan unngås ved tilrettelegging av arbeidsoppgaver)
3) Sykemelding for enkeltstående behandlingsdager (Du kan få sykmelding hvis du får behandling som gjør at du ikke kan jobbe samme dag)
4) Friskmelding til arbeidsformidling (du går fra å være stønadsmottaker til å være aktiv arbeidssøkende).

Finn mer informasjon på www.nav.no eller snakk med din fastlege

Article 3

‘Fight for focus: Attention and agency in sight-translated interaction’

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Fight for focus: attention and agency in sight-translated interaction

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Fight for focus: attention and agency in sight-translated interaction

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents an analysis of three roleplayed interpreted institutional meetings in which sight translation is part of the interaction. The analysis is based on multimodal (inter)action analysis and utilises the analytical tool of modal density as indication of attention/awareness. This analytical framework is novel in interpreting studies. The data include filmed material from an experimental setting and participants' reflections about the situation. The findings show variations in sight translation practices and that the shift from interpreting to sight translation affects interactional patterns, particularly social actors' attention and agency. In my discussion of agency in sight-translated interaction, I argue that interpreters, in addition to translating, need to pay attention to interactional issues related to attention and agency caused by the interpreting method.

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Introduction

Sight translation, or interpreting a written text into speech, is a common part of an interpreter's job. In research, however, this practice is not scrutinised from an interactional perspective, as the primary research focus thus far has been linguistic and, to a certain degree, monologist (Havnen, 2019; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). In this study, I draw on a dataset of three interpreter-mediated roleplayed meetings between Serbian-speaking public service users (PSUs) and a public service representative (PSR). During the meeting, the interpreter is asked to do a sight translation; as we shall see, this is an action that significantly influences the interaction. The data also include the participants' reflections about the interaction and serve to supplement the findings.

The analytical framework utilised in this study is that of multimodal (inter)action analysis (MIA) (Norris, 2004, 2019). MIA is based on the concept of mediated action rooted in the works of Scollon (1998a) and Wertsch (1998). An important aspect is that social interaction is co-produced through mediational means/cultural tools in which language is not necessarily the centre of attention. Norris (2004, 2019) has developed analytical tools that are especially suitable for investigating social actors' engagement in simultaneous activities.

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The activities are analysed as higher-level mediated actions (actions with an opening and a closing, such as a meeting) and lower-level mediated actions (pragmatic meaning units of modes, such as an utterance or gaze shift, which has a start and an end). Pirini (2016, 2017) has demonstrated that the analytical tool of modal density as an indication of attention/ awareness (Norris, 2004, 2019) can be further developed to determine intersubjectivity and agency. I will return to this in the analytical framework section.

The motivation to analyse the interaction through the multimodal (inter)actional framework stems from the feedback of the participants, in addition to my own observations. The PSR and the PSU described the struggle to maintain focus during the sight translation; the interpreters, on the other hand, were fully occupied with their own activity. When going through the data, I identified a clear shift in the interactional rhythm when the sight translation started. The PSR and the PSU refrained from talking. Talk and linguistic mediation have traditionally been the centre of attention in interpreting studies. I wanted to take a closer look at interactional aspects beyond language and was curious whether the MIA framework could help me describe and understand what was happening.

Research has identified that interpreters have a significant effect on the coordination of turns and content (Wadensjö, 1998). Contrary to the widespread belief in interpreting research that interpreters play an active role in interactions, both lay people and scholars often treat interpreters as mediational means: 'Translators are solely there to make the interaction between the two politicians possible, i.e., they are viewed, act and react as mediational means' (Norris, 2019, p. 39). The interpreter's position in situated practice is seldom as straightforward as making the interaction possible without interfering; however, static concepts of translation are not uncommon in multimodal studies (and vice versa) (Kaindl, 2020). In this paper, I treat the interpreter as a social actor in the sense that the interpreters´ actions beyond the act of translation affect the interactional pattern.

Before further presenting my study, I examine the practice of sight translation and offer a background on previous interactional research including sight translation. Then, I present the analytical framework, followed by the data, the analysis and the discussion. I end the article with the concluding remarks.

Sight translation

Practices

The term 'sight translation' is used to describe the method by which a written text is mediated into speech in another language. Sight translation might be a method for language learning or an exercise for developing interpreting skills (Čeňková, 2015; Chen, 2015). It is also used as a tool for translators who speak their written translations, which are then machine transcribed into written text (Dragsted et al., 2009). Written texts are sometimes used to support simultaneous interpreting (sight interpreting or simultaneous interpreting with text). Even if sight translation is traditionally associated with interpreting training or conference interpreting, it is also frequently used in meetings, both in bilateral negotiations and in public service encounters (Čeňková, 2015; Chen, 2015; Li, 2014; Nilsen & Havnen, 2019; Vargas-Urpi, 2019). The interpreter might not be prepared for the task, rather being asked to translate a document on site. In some assignments, sight translation is always expected, such as written reports at the end of police hearings or documents presented in court (Maatta, 2015). Sight translation sometimes makes up the main part of the assignment, such as proclaiming a decision or verdict on site or over the phone. Sight-translated texts may also be recorded and handed to the receiver in the form of a spoken document (Biela-Wolonciej, 2015). Sight translation practices are thus multifaceted and far from being standardised, oftentimes not thought or regarded as a specialist translation method but is also treated as one somewhere. Belgian codes of ethics, for example, advise against sight translation (Maatta, 2015). In Norway, sight translation is not mentioned in professional codes of ethics, but it forms part of the degree of BA in Interpreting in the Public Sector (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019). In some countries, interpreters are tested in sight translation for certification, but the criteria for competence assessment are ambiguous (Paez, 2014).

Interpreting research

Documents have been studied from a multimodal perspective as artefacts when they have formed part of an interpreted interaction at a social centre (Ticca & Traverso, 2017) and as part of interpreted parent–teacher meetings (Davitti & Pasquandrea, 2017). These studies found that handling the document reconfigured the participation framework in terms of turn-taking and inclusion/involvement. A case study from a Belgian police hearing described how an on-screen document was used in turn-taking coordination (Defrancq & Verliefde, 2018). Vargas-Urpi's (2019) exploration of sight translation as dyadic or triadic revealed that the untrained interpreters whom the author studied adapted the translation quite freely to the listeners' needs but excluded the PSR. The trained interpreter in the study included the PSR by translating questions from the listener instead of explaining them (Vargas-Urpi, 2019). A recent exploration of changes in meaning-making in sight translation found that meaning-making is affected not only as a result of the interpreter's strategies when translating but also because of the modal shift from print (writing) to speech (Havnen, 2020). The change was especially evident at the interactional level, which is the focus of the present article.

Interpreting studies applying MIA are scarce even if it is considered particularly useful for such purposes (Kaindl, 2020, p. 56). A pedagogical study of dialogue interpreting using Norris' analytical framework highlights the importance of the interpreter paying attention to including and excluding interlocutors; the framework also proves useful for students' understanding of interaction beyond language (Krystallidou, 2014). This study contributes to the growing body of multimodal interpreting and translation studies (Boria & Tomalin, 2020; Davitti, 2019; Perez-Gonzalez, 2014; Tuominen et al., 2018).

Analytical framework

Norris (2004, 2019) has developed analytical tools to differentiate actions on different levels, with mode being a central theoretical unit. A mode is a system of representations with regularities of use, such as gestures, language or layout in a room. Modes have various materiality, such as visibility, audibility or endurance. The smallest pragmatic meaning unit of a mode can be analysed as a lower-level mediated action; examples are utterances, gesture units or use of gaze. A lower-level mediated action has a start and an end, and it represents an action mediated through psychological and physical mediational means/cultural tools. These can be objects, space, knowledge, body parts and so on. Lower-level actions are linked together in chains that constitute and are constituted by higher-level mediated actions. The higher-level action of reading, for example, constitutes the use of gaze (if seeing; touch if blind) and print (on screen, paper); this mediation also produces higher-level action. A higher-level action has an opening and a closing and can be studied at different scales. It can be a meeting in an office, translating or giving feedback. Higher-level actions are also found at the level of discourse and practice (Norris & Pirini, 2017). The concept of frozen mediated actions covers previously performed actions that are embedded within an object, such as a document which has been written and printed through someone's mediated actions.

To analyse attention/awareness in a foreground–background continuum, Norris (2004, 2019) utilises the concept of modal density, which embraces modal intensity and complexity. Modal intensity refers to the weight or importance a mode has in lower-level actions and its relevance for the constituted higher-level actions scrutinised. For example, in the process of reading, gaze has a high intensity because if you close your eyes, this higher-level action could not be produced, whereas holding a document 2 cm above a table has a lower density because when you let the document go, it lands on the table and the higher-level action can still be produced. Modal complexity is seen through how intricate or intertwined modes are, such as in sight translation in which gaze, print and spoken language are all needed to execute this higher-level action. Modal configuration can refer to the layout in a room, proximity and body orientation.

In addition to utilising the analytical tool of modal density to analyse attention/awareness towards simultaneous higher-level actions, Pirini has further developed this tool to analyse intersubjectivity (Pirini, 2016) and agency (Pirini, 2017). In his study of high school tutoring settings, Pirini (2014) shows how transitions mark changes in attention and how the social actors produce convergent and divergent actions. In the author's intersubjectivity study based on the same material, the modal density tool is extended to isolate three tiers of material intersubjectivity: stable, adjustable and fleeting. Intersubjectivity is understood as co-construction of joint activity (Pirini, 2016), In my case, the layout, setting and proxemics are stable, the body posture and handling the document are adjustable, and the gaze and spoken language are fleeting. Pirini (2017) relates modal density to agency and demonstrates that an actors agency, understood as the ability to produce and initiate actions, is related to control over the most relevant means in the co-production of a higher-level action – this actor has primary agency. Building on Jones and Norris (2005), he points out the tension between individual agency and the social and material world, where agency is influenced by professional and institutional practices.

Higher-level actions unfold at different scales of action, from a greeting in a meeting to discourses and practices. Norris (2019), building on Scollon's work (1998a), defines practice as an action with history. To be able to align with one another, social actors must share practices (Norris, 2011). Sight translation can be understood as a practice of reading aloud, which is a social practice with some embedded history not necessarily shared. There is scant literature on adults' practices of reading aloud; however, a British study found that reading aloud is mostly connected to the private sphere (Duncan, 2018). This is probably the case for a literate society, where written documents in institutional settings are read in silence. Historically, however, reading aloud is a more widespread practice in which literates would have to read to illiterates for the sake of sharing or for accessibility (Goody, 1987). Reading as a social practice also affects interaction (Scollon, 1998b), especially because a reader has primacy over a speaker, i.e., the threshold of interrupting a reader is higher than taking the turn from a speaker.

In the discussion, I will also draw on the concept of rhythm, both at the level of the concrete interaction and the level of practice. Van Leeuwen (2005) points out that balance in visual modes and rhythm in audial modes are basic units in human interaction, categorising them as biological. The author considers rhythm to be a cohesive device, structuring actions and supporting coherence in communication. Rhythm also plays a part in 'getting the message across' (Van Leeuwen, 2005, p. 181). Certain actions have a patterning effect on interaction, such as background music, in which interlocutors align with the beat. Alignment as a phenomenon in communication has been studied in linguistics with a focus on verbal alignment and in sociological studies with a focus on proximity (distance) (Norris, 2011). Norris (2011) argues that rhythm can also be seen at the level of practices; when people engage in practices with a mutual understanding of these, they know what they are expected to contribute with and when (Norris, 2011).

Data

The filmed material

The starting point of my analysis was a simulated face-to-face meeting in which a PSR for the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration and a Serbian-speaking PSU met in a public office environment. They communicated through an interpreter, and after a brief dialogue framing the meeting, the interpreter was handed a leaflet for sight translation before the PSR and the PSU returned to the dialogue. The experiment was repeated two more times with different actors (the same PSR), and they each lasted for approximately 17 (A), 13 (B) and 8 (C) minutes. The meetings were filmed from two different angles (Figure 1).

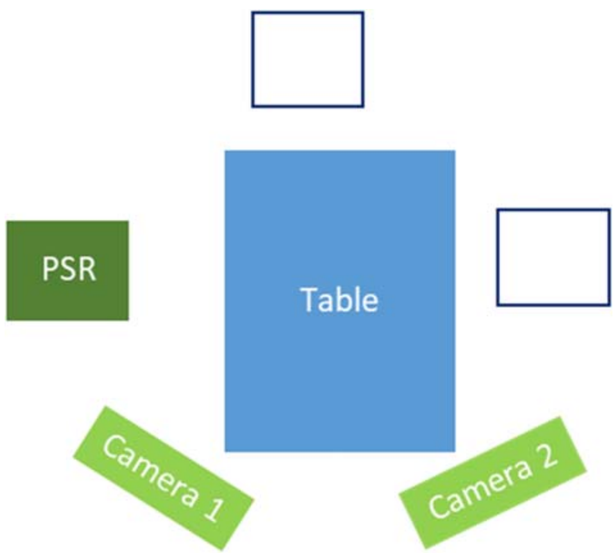

Figure 1. Layout for the roleplay.

The interpreter and the PSU did not sit at the same places in all three situations, hence the two empty boxes in Figure 1. The PSU and interpreter were positioned as follows, as seen from camera 1 (Figure 2):

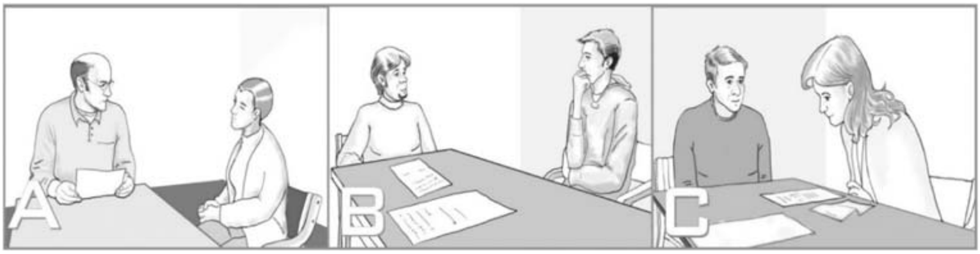

Figure 2. Proximity between the interpreter and the PSU and the interpreter's dominant position in relation to the document. Interpreter A and B are positioned to the left, whereas interpreter C is positioned to the right (drawing by Robert Julher based on screenshots in which faces were anonymised).

The PSR, who holds a position in the Norwegian Labour and Welfare administration, had previous experience with roleplaying interpreting exams. She led the meeting. The cameras were turned on before the other participants were guided into the room by me. I was not in the room during the interaction in order not to disturb the interpreters, as I teach and evaluate interpreting. The three interpreters were certified interpreters, who were also familiar with roleplay settings and had no previous knowledge of the other participants. I informed them that sight translation would be part of the experiment and that they should do their jobs as they normally would. The three PSUs were newly arrived working immigrants from Serbia with scant knowledge of Norwegian and with no previous experience in communicating through an interpreter. I told the PSUs that they were about to participate in a meeting to obtain information about what to do in events of illness when in a working relationship. The setup was realistic, with true information concerning a theme that is generally of interest to employees, and there was a real need for interpreting. The main manipulation was that I instructed the PSR to give the responsibility of reading the document to the interpreters and to not interfere unless one of the participants addressed her. This was done because the primary focus was initially how the interpreters would deal with sight translation; the result of this analysis was presented in a previous study (Havnen, 2020). According to students in courses on sight translation, my own experiences as an interpreter and as reported by Felberg (2015), it is common practice for the PSR to leave a document with the interpreter. Sometimes, the PSR excludes themselves from the interaction, occasionally physically leaving the room (Nilsen & Havnen, 2019).

Participants' feedback

The interpreters and the PSR wrote their reflections immediately after each roleplay on a blank document. They were instructed to note whatever came to their mind, and they wrote 150–200 words each. Meanwhile, I interviewed the PSUs. At first, they talked freely, and then I asked them further about the content of the document, whether the interpreter was understandable, their experience of being a listener to sight translation and their general perspectives on the communication process, if they had not already mentioned it themselves. I will now sum up the issues relevant for this study. As the data are limited in scope, the interviews were around 9, 6 and 4 mins long; they only serve as supplements to the interactional analysis.

The interpreters had a dominant textual focus that was related to their own translation process; however, one interpreter was concerned that there seemed to be a higher threshold for interrupting the sight translation than a speaker in a typical dialogue. This interpreter proposed that maybe the PSR should have asked whether the PSU understood the information before moving to the next topic.

The PSR focused on the difficulty concentrating and expressed uncertainty about the interpreter's solutions and the PSUs' understanding. These doubts were either disproved through the dialogue towards the end of the meeting or were left unaddressed. In setting C (Figure 2), the interpreter sat on the chair typically meant for the PSU. Here, the PSR also felt that the interpreter was taking over the interaction by focusing solely on the text and paying hardly any attention to the PSU. In terms of posture, the interpreter was positioned towards the PSU, who focused solely on the interpreter. After experiment A, the PSR commented that it would be better to give the information herself orally.

Two of the PSUs mentioned the unusual nature of the situation – not really knowing how to adjust to the interpreting and finding it difficult to remember. One of them argued that he would have preferred to pose questions during reading but was concerned that it was inappropriate, hypothesising that the interpreter purposely did not entertain questions. Another PSU described the experience as follows: '(…) if I am allowed [to say so] – [it was] a little boring'. She described a feeling of being back at school. Engagement was easier when she could relate personally to the content than to abstract information. She said it would be different to read herself. In the experiment in which the PSR felt excluded, the PSU did not comment on any factors other than the interpreted text – the PSU said the interpreter was clear, easy to follow and understandable.

Analysis

I relied on the filmed material to do the analysis, evaluating the interaction *live*, rather than doing detailed transcriptions. This way, the data did not become graphic and linear but instead retained the dynamics that I find are getting lost in transcriptions, especially when focusing on larger scales of actions. As a start, a technician merged the two films into one frame and synchronised them, as shown in Figure 3:

I first identified the relevant modes that were used in the interaction – layout, proximity, posture, gaze, gestures, head, body and hand movements, spoken language and print, and touch (handshakes) – as openings and closings. In my study, I wanted to focus on attention/awareness towards a shared higher-level action over time. Time is not a traditional delineation in MIA, in which the typical starting point is the analysis of the simultaneous production of several higher-level actions at the micro level (Pirini, 2015). In my material, there was an obvious shift from converging to diverging higher-level actions when the sight translation started. These actions were still part of the shared larger-scale higher-level action – the giving and receiving of information. As the production of these higher-level actions appeared stable over time, I decided to

Figure 3. Film from camera 2 with an inserted film from camera 1. On the big screen are the interpreter and the PSU; on the small screen are the PSR and the interpreter. These are synchronised in time, including sound.

focus on the meso level and the different social actors' attention and agency throughout the meeting by utilising the analytical tool of modal density.

To evaluate modal density, I analysed each social actor in time stretches of around 10 s but varying from 5 to 40 s. I used three criteria for delineating the stretches:

- A turn
- If a turn was very short (a question), I included the interpretation and the answer as a turn stretch.
- If a turn was long, I stopped it on a potential turn shifting point (pause or inbreath) or after a meaning unit (guided by the source text document during the sight translation).

I watched one actor in a time stretch and evaluated modal density based on the chains of the lower-level actions producing the higher-level action of interest. Then, I went back to watch the next social actor, rewinding again to evaluate the modal density produced by the third actor. Then, I would rewind again to look at them in relation to each other and double-check when I was in doubt. I plotted the values of low, medium and high modal density into a spreadsheet (Figure 4). Somewhere, there is a low/medium modal density; this is where at the end of the turn, gazes meet, or there is another chain of lower-level action that intensifies in a stretch that had so far been of low density, and there is a mutual exchange of gaze or content feedback (through a nod, for example). The blue marks in the time columns illustrate stretches longer or shorter than average to check whether they affected the pattern (at the meso level, it did not).

Both complexity and intensity were considered when evaluating density. Modes have no a priori density, density relates to the mediation of the mode and the importance in producing higher-level actions. Gaze, which is dominant in face-to-face interaction, takes on various meanings and intensities. I evaluated the gazes as either semiotic means, such

Situation A	PSR	INT	PSU	Action
01.00 - 01.15	High	High	High	Greetings
01.15 - 01.25	High	High	Medium	Introduction
01.26 - 01.36	High	Medium	Medium	
01.37 - 01.46	Medium	High	Medium	
01.47 - 01.57	High	Low	Low	
01.58 - 02.07	Low	High	Medium	
02.08 - 02.11	High	High	High	Q - A (question - answer)
02.12 - 02.17	High	High	High	Q - A
02.18 - 02.24	High	High	High	Q - A
02.25 - 02-36	High	High	High	Q - A
02.39 - 02.50	High	Low	Low	Q
02.51 - 03.01	Low	High	Medium	
03.02 - 03.07	High	High	High	A -R (Answer - response)
03.08 - 03.18	High	Low	Low	
03.19 - 03.32	Low	High	Medium	
03.33 - 03.37	High	High	High	A - R
03.38 - 03.48	High	High	High	Handing over paper
03-49 - 04.00	Low	High	Medium	
04.01 - 04.12	Low	High	Medium	
04.13 - 04.22	Low/Med	High	Low	
04.23 - 04.32	Low	high	Low	
04.33 - 04.48	Low	High	Medium	
04.49 - 05.02	Low	High	Low	
05.03 - 05.21	Low	High	Medium	
05.22 - 05.34	Low/Med	High	Low/med	
05.35 - 05.44	Low	Med	Low	Int reading in silence
05.45 - 06.00	Low	High	Low	

Figure 4. Annotation of modal density in time stretches in the situation including interpreter A for all participants.

as beat actions (structuring), or whether gaze is used pragmatically, such as content ratification or interactional feedback, which takes a different density. Gaze was also used for reading and monitoring, taking on a high intensity because of its importance in the production of higher-level actions. Conversation analysis (CA) has revealed that consecutive interpreter-mediated interaction follows dialogical patterns of typical face-to-face interaction. Even when a listener does not understand a speaker, which is the case for the PSR during the sight translation in my study, gaze is used as a listener response. In this manner, gaze might take on density as feedback when it is not a reaction to another gaze or to content. This phenomenon is described as dual feedback, as gaze is a response to the original speaker and to the interpreter, creating common ground in a triad (Vranješ et al., 2018).

I also identified several instances of deviating gaze shifts, fiddling, jiggling a leg and changing the body posture. These can be beat actions, and/or they can be interpreted as chains of lower-level actions constituting a higher-level action of being bored or trying to stay focused. More fine-grained analysis is needed to establish meaning and function. MIA does not explain internal thoughts and experiences, so what goes on in the mind could only be an assumption, a plausible assumption, though when combining the findings with the participants' reflections. I will return to this in the discussion. Here, I focus on the lower-level action producing the shared higher-level action.

In addition to evaluating the intensity of the modes at play, I evaluated modal complexity, such as the interpreter utilising print, gaze, handling the document, gestures and spoken language when sight translating. In Figure 5, we can see the rough-grained patterns that evolve when highlighting the high modal density for all social actors in the three settings. The figure is based on data from the spreadsheet, as shown in Figure 4. We understand that the higher-level action of sight translation starts when the yellow narrows into one continuous stretch. There is a shift to new higher-level actions which are opened and closed with the exchange of the frozen action, the document that now guides further actions. At the top and the bottom of the three mid-stretches in the figure, there is a more evenly distributed modal density, representing the higher-level action that I will categorise as *dialogue* in the following.

Figure 5. Density pattern in the higher-level action of giving and receiving information. A (17 min), B (13 min) and C (8 min).

The patterns in the dialogue parts show that density is distributed quite rhythmically/evenly. In the mid-stretch, the PSU and the PSR produce shared higher-level actions with a lower modal density than that produced by the interpreter, and there is little dialogue, although in B and C, we can see that another actor is interacting with the interpreter with a high modal density; this is when the interpreter encounters a challenge (see more detailed transcript in Appendix). The blank breaks in the interpreter column in the sight-translated stretch in situation A represent the interpreter reading in silence.

In the current analysis, the same pattern emerges in all situations (A, B and C); the actors produce similar lower-level actions that constitute a shared higher-level action through the same mediational means, and this is why they can be represented together. There is a pattern in which the modal density is evenly distributed in the dialogue, this is disrupted by sight translation (monologue). During the sight translation, the interpreter controls the mediational means. Analysis at the micro level would reveal the differences between the three situations; interpreter A, for example, has a more complex modal configuration compared with C, but this is not the focus of this meso-study.

The stable modes that do not change in the three situations are layout and proximity, which foreground the higher-level action of meeting for all the social actors (Figure 1 and 2). In the following, I will present modal density in the dialogue (Figure 6) and the sight-translated part of the meeting (Figure 7) for all three situations together, and I will relate these findings to agency. As explained earlier, Pirini (2017) has developed a tool through MIA to identify primary agency in producing a higher-level action, which is measured through control over the mediational means at play. The actor controlling the mediational means that are most relevant for a higher-level action takes on primary agency, as control influences the possibilities to act and be involved.

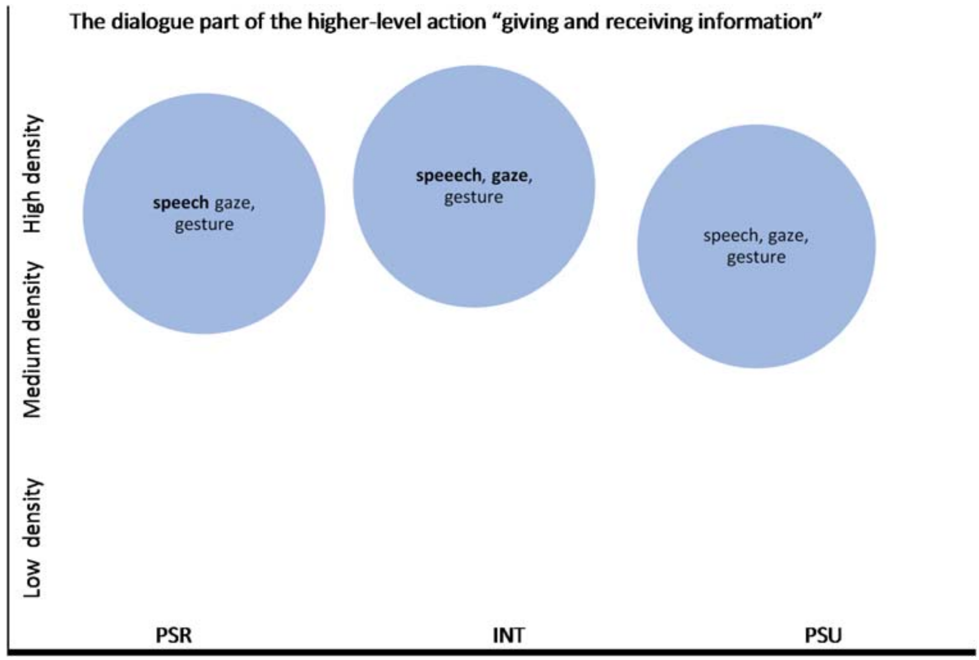

Figure 6. Distribution of modal density in the sight-translated phase.

The modal density is quite evenly distributed, but the intensity of speech, for example, is different (**bold** where the density is higher). The interpreter speaks more (speaking for both), which makes the intensity higher. All social actors foreground the same higher-level action. The PSR leads the meeting through gestures and content of speech. The social actors are related to one another through posture and frequent gaze shifts between the three of them, they mediate their actions through similar mediational means. All in all, in the dialogue, we can say that intersubjectivity is found in all tiers of materiality; stable, adjustable and fleeting, meaning all social actors co-produce this higher-level action through the same means. We shall now see what happens when the PSR gives a written document to the interpreter in Figure 7.

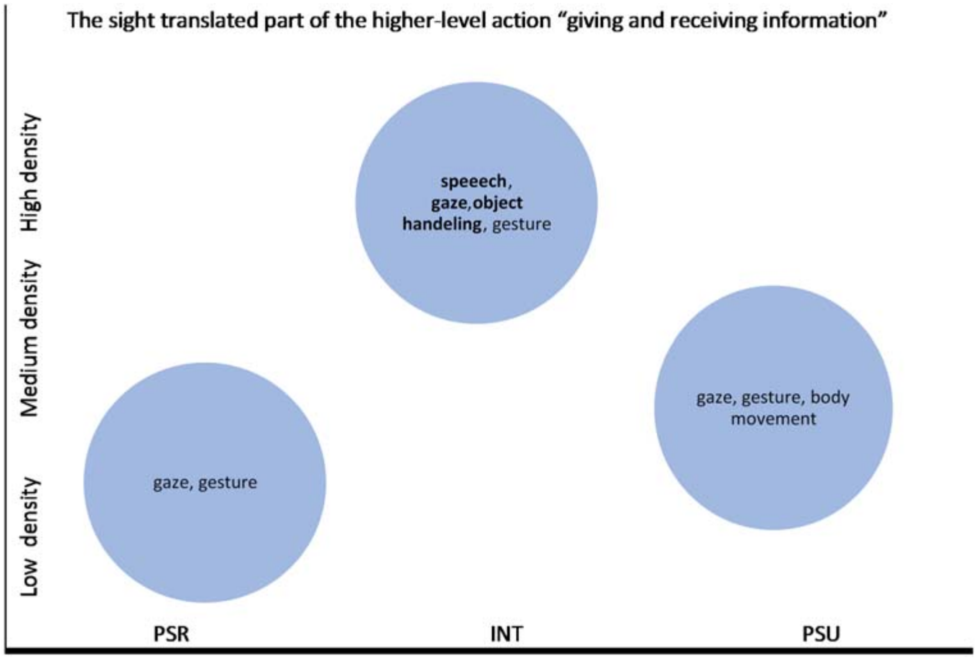

Figure 7. Modal density distribution in dialogue.

Here, we can see that the modal complexity and the modal intensity give a very different picture from that in Figure 6. Both the modal density and the control over the means are focused on the interpreter, which means that the interpreter has primary agency in producing the shared higher-level action. The action is guided by the frozen action, which has now become a mediational mean (object) and a mode (print). Although the PSR and the PSU use similar mediational means, gaze and gestures in the PSU are more often used pragmatically. The PSR is gazing but does not understand the language; however, she is still following the interaction and thereby co-producing the higher-level action of giving and receiving information. Gaze patterns are also affected by the act of reading, as interpreters give primacy to the written text and thereby cannot always react to the other social actors' semiotic means where there are openings for involvement.

The new higher-level actions can be demarcated as sight translation, monitoring and listening. Listening is visible through gaze, nods and expressions of 'mms' as feedback to the interpreter. The PSR's monitoring action is evident through the increased modal density when it looks like the interpreter encountered trouble (hesitations, change in rhythm) and through the turning of the page by the PSR at the same time as the interpreter. Supplementing the analysis with reflections and interviews supports the conclusion that the PSR is monitoring. She commented on one interpreter's explication of the technical abbreviation 'inkluderende arbeidsliv' (IA) in Norwegian, reasoning that the interpreter was trying to figure out how to say it. However, when another interpreter said 'IA' and added a definition, the PSR was not confident that the solution was acceptable (it was adequate). When monitoring the interpreted action without access to the verbal content, the PSR only had fragments of words and the visual to work with, with the latter being proposed to serve as a window into interpreted interaction (Gerwing

& Li, 2019). This is, however, a window without clear sight, so it is a difficult base to act upon and to exercise agency. The intersection of various practices, such as giving information, reading and translating, challenges attention and agency.

Discussion

Attention

As rhythm is an important cohesive device, experiencing a lack of rhythm must affect cognition. When one social actor produces a higher-level action with a higher modal density than the others do, here the interpreter, it seems to create a void or a gap that increases the need for the other participants to do *something*. Involuntary or unidirectional movements, such as jiggling legs, fiddling, rocking and shifting gaze, are typical for people with attention deficits or when they experience cognitive diversion in the same manner as postural changes often indicate some sort of distress (Pirini, 2017). These actions do not necessarily represent a lack of attention, possibly rather a struggle to focus. In this setting, at the meso level, there were no other visible higher-level actions that received midground attention to fill the mentioned gap or void. In the dialogue part of the meeting, when the modal density was more evenly distributed, unidirectional movements were still present; however, they are less salient as the interlocutors were producing similar lower-level actions through the same modes and mediational means in rhythmical alignment with one another, i.e., they share all tiers of material intersubjectivity, stable, adjustable and fleeting (Pirini, 2016), which I propose strengthen each actor's agency.

Attention, in addition to foregrounding a higher-level action, is also related to the unengaged mind – in other words, boredom (Eastwood et al., 2012). Earlier research has mentioned, but not scrutinised, disengagement when listening to sight-translated text (Felberg, 2015; Felberg & Nilsen, 2017). The guidelines for sight translation in asylum hearings cite maintaining attention as being the interpreter's responsibility in order to support listeners' engagement (Spitz & Hlavac, 2017). Eastwood et al. (2012) propose three criteria to define the mental process of boredom: (1) not being able to successfully engage with the internal or external information required to participate, (2) being conscious of the former and (3) attributing the cause of aversiveness to the environment. In short, it is the 'aversive experience of wanting, but being unable, to engage in satisfying activity' (p. 482). Boredom is not at all trivial, the authors argue, as it influences understanding and memory, amongst other things; it thereby creates the potential for agency. In two experiments, the PSUs met the criteria for boredom, with one explicitly using the word 'boring'. In the third experiment, the PSU was not bored with the interpreter, who was faster than the others; interestingly, the interpreter was rocking back and forth. The listener picked up this pace and also started to rock. They were positioned with closer proxemics than the others. This interpreter's modal density was less complex than the others, as the interpreter did not use gaze and gestured less. Rhythm is also related to tempo. It seems that the faster (more rhythmic) interpreter left less space for wandering thoughts compared with the other interpreters; the PSU in this setting did not mention concentration problems and also had less diverted gazes, although his gaze was hardly responded to by the interpreter (or maybe because of that). Despite the rhythm between interpreter C and the PSU, the PSR felt excluded and was unable to catch any of the other participants' gazes. The interpreter gazed at the document, and the PSU fixed his gaze on the interpreter. As a result, the PSR had little control over the mediational means, which led to a reduction in the PSR's agency. Deciding how and when to contribute in interpreter-mediated interaction is not obvious for the primary interlocutors, especially when practices are not shared.

Agency

The participants did not enter the interaction with the same set of expectations, and this is typical for both institutional and interpreted mediated interaction. In this experiment, the PSR was a trained professional who focused on the PSU. She was engaged, and she controlled her struggle to focus, although she showed signs of restlessness by fidgeting with papers. After the first experiment, which lasted longer, she mentioned that she would prefer to give the PSU the information herself; this would preserve the PSR's agency in the situation by controlling the mediational means. When handing the interpreter, the leaflet, she transfers agency and also foregrounds language in the interaction. Language is further foregrounded by the higher-level action of sight translation, a professional practice that is not an established practice for PSRs, PSUs or interpreters.

The interpreters have different histories embedded in their practice. The less experienced interpreter in sight translation (A) did recognise the lack of routine and felt that some areas could be improved, but overall, 'it went ok'. The other interpreter (B) had extensive experience working with the police and in court and transferred some strategies to this setting, which was unfamiliar to the interpreter. The PSU in situation B commented on the interpreter's formal way of saying 'in parentheses, it says … ' (Havnen, 2020). In police transcripts, parentheses frame comments from the transcriber and are expected to be highlighted; hence, sight translation is not only an interpreting method, but there are also local practices influenced by discourse and text genre.

The PSUs did not have any experience with sight translation, or interpreting, hence they could not experience the practice as an action with history. Moreover, the PSUs had little control over the mediational means and thus could not exercise agency during the sight translation, this lack of control is strengthened by the social practice of reading as readers have primacy over speakers (Scollon, 1998b). Most PSUs will not gain practice in being translated for on a regular basis, and spoken language interpreter users do not constitute a stable user group that can influence and take part in developing practice (sign language interpreter users will probably have more experience than a PSR). There is a need for somebody to act in order to even out this imbalance and to safeguard participants' agency. An obvious actor could be the interpreter, who should be the expert on how the interpreting method influences interaction.

Safeguarding attention and agency

In an institutional setting, agency is, by default, given to the PSR, who has the responsibility to safeguard the participation of the PSU. This responsibility is partly taken over by the interpreter when accepting the translation task. The act of sight translation changes the rhythm of the typical spoken dialogue and this shift challenges the interlocutor's attention and disrupts the turn-taking pattern. The interpreter becomes the social actor who must take responsibility for balancing the situation in such a way that the interlocutors obtain the opportunity to exercise their agency in the interaction. There are many possible ways to safeguard agency, and since human interaction is always situated, the decisions must be made on the spot by analysing all actions. The interpreter cannot monitor only talk or text, which is the traditional focus; the interpreter needs to pay attention to the whole multimodal communicative environment and the effect of interpreting on interaction.

Professional interpreters work together with other professionals and individuals who base their actions on knowledge different from that of the interpreter. Therefore, interpreters are advised to frame their role in the interaction for the interlocutors at the beginning of a meeting. Sight translation usually occurs in an already ongoing interaction; consequently, it is necessary to frame sight translation in a similar manner before conducting it. How to act when being sight translated for is far from being self-evident or natural; the shift to a new method requires negotiation about communicative preferences, provided that the interpreter understands the other participants' challenges. To know this, interpreters need evidence-based knowledge about the methods they use, the effect it has on interactions and what is at stake. This knowledge is not only required to frame the interaction but to assess situations so that interpreters can choose the best course of action. Knowledge enhances professionals' phronesis – the ability to make decisions in particular situations (Kessels & Korthagen, 2001). My study of sight-translated interaction, with its limitations, contributes novel knowledge about attention and agency that is highly relevant in interpreting education and in professional practice.

CA on reading aloud practices in schools has shown that interaction and attention are affected by several elements, such as whether the pupils have the text in front of them and the degree to which the teacher coordinates via embodied resources and explications (Tainio & Slotte, 2017). Interpreters can coordinate attention strategically by using gaze and/or explicitly asking the listener if the speed is adequate or if the reading is understandable. Such metacommunication enhances agency for the participants who do not control the mediational means. The interpreter can encourage notetaking, maybe asking for an additional copy of the text for the listener or being open for questions during the translation. The interpreter can also encourage/influence (possible) turn-taking through pauses, gaze or prosody, which are common strategies in dialogue interpreting. These strategies might foster involvement and agency.

Interpreters should also be aware that the *excluded* party will make assumptions about the interpreter's actions, for example, when exhibiting trouble. It could be reassuring for the participants to know what the challenge was and to be given the opportunity to provide additional explanations.

As the interlocutors lack a shared practice, they do not have a shared interactional pattern in which they can easily align with one another. Therefore, the interpreter must strive to balance this lack of rhythm by redistributing interactional space and agency.

Conclusion

Through this analysis, I have shown that the act of translating a written text in face-to-face interaction affects the rhythmical patterns of typical interpreter-mediated dialogues. The most salient finding is how the interpreter ends up having primary agency during the sight translation. The interpreter needs to be aware of this and ensure that the participants get the opportunity to participate, i.e., exercise agency. I argue that this is a responsibility for the interpreter because the shift in pattern is related to the change in the interpreting method.

By exploring the multimodal (inter)actional analytical framework, this study opens avenues for additional and interesting studies of interpreter-mediated interaction, especially those related to the distribution of attention and agency. Interpreters and other social actors' actions beyond the linguistic contribution become very clear when applying MIA. To challenge the results of this study, I am inspired to conduct further investigations of smaller scales of higher-level actions in the material.

This study is not without limitations. If the PSR was not instructed to remain passive when not addressed, she might have intervened. This would show a different practice but would still not undermine the practices scrutinised here. It would be possible to utilise the same framework in order to provide complementary insights; this can be done by repetition of the experiment with different variables. If I were to repeat the experiment, I would also interview all the other participants to gain more exhaustive reflections about their experiences. In the present experiment, I prioritised immediacy. Despite the written reflections being short, they highlight important aspects of the sight-translated interaction, especially in relation to the lack of shared practice.

The variations in sight translation practices that emerged in this study are not exhaustive. Previous studies have shown that PSRs can withdraw totally (Felberg, 2015; Nilsen & Havnen, 2019), the interpreters can align themselves more closely with the PSU than with the other actors (Felberg & Nilsen, 2017; Vargas-Urpi, 2019) and the document can be used more actively by all interlocutors (Davitti & Pasquandrea, 2017; Ticca & Traverso, 2017). This study, however, corroborates previous findings that sight translation affects interactional patterns. The analysis provides new insights into how social actors' attention and agency are affected by the translation method, and it shows that MIA is useful for investigating interpreter-mediated interaction.

Disclosure statement

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Notes on contributor

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