Rendering of Collocations in Simultaneous Interpretation from English into Croatian

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Rendering of Collocations in Simultaneous Interpretation from English into Croatian

Diplomski rad

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Summary

This paper investigates the way English collocations are rendered by students of simultaneous interpretation. Collocations are an integral part of every language and that is why they are given special importance in interpretation.

In the first part of the paper, different views on collocations in British linguistics and types of collocations will be presented. There will also be talk about similarities and differences between collocations, free phrases and idioms. When speaking about collocations from the point of view of Croatian linguistics, we will see that there is a plenty of work ahead of Croatian linguists who need to agree on basic principles regarding the concept of collocations. It has also been recognized in foreign language teaching that non-native speakers should acquire words as constructions, i.e. collocations, not as single words.

For a translator, i.e. interpreter it is also important to be aware that collocations may not be translated, i.e. interpreted as easily as one may think and translation equivalence is concerned with this issue.

Next, some general notions regarding simultaneous interpreting will be presented: its historical development, various types and influence of technology reflected on oral translation in general. Furthermore, interpreter's profile and professional environment will also be discussed. Every translator, i.e. interpreter should be aware that his/her own language knowledge and use is influenced by his/her own language perception.

Methodology will describe how the speeches were analyzed and the section Analysis and findings will present the results of the study.

Key words: collocations, simultaneous interpreting, student interpreters, linguistics

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1. Introduction

1.1. *Aim of the paper*

This paper wants to investigate how student-interpreters render collocations in simultaneous interpretation from English into Croatian in order to come to the conclusions that could help interpreters in their work done in future. I listened to 25 speeches taken from *www.multilingualspeeches.tv* that were interpreted by students of MA Programme in Translation and Interpreting Studies at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek.

This paper is structured as follows: first, critical overview of the theoretical literature on the grammatical category of collocation in both English and Croatian linguistics and simultaneous interpretation will be given. Next, methodology used in this research will be presented. Analysis and findings of the study constitute the fourth part of this paper.

In this part of paper, four categories will be presented: correct interpretation, wrong interpretation, a part or whole phrase missing and the last category is a literal translation what often results in non-standard Croatian. Furthermore, the analysis tries to observe discrepancies in interpretation between the source and target language. This paper tries to notice features that characterize student interpreters. At the end follows conclusion.

1.2. *Research questions*

This paper wants to investigate following research questions:

- How do student interpreters cope with interpretation of collocations from English into Croatian? What kind of problems they run into?
- Which type of collocations regarding their structure is more frequent?
- In what relation do collocations (regarding their structure) stand with the solutions provided by students?

2. On Collocations in English and Croatian linguistics

2.1. *On the Grammatical Category of Collocations in English*

"You shall know the word by the company it keeps."

J.R. Firth [1]

Every language has collocations. According to Oxford Collocations Dictionary is a more or less specific combination of words that produces a speech and writing that sounds, i.e. reads naturally (2009: v). The words "collocate, collocation" stem from the Latin words com + locare which would literally mean to put together/place with (Murica and Stojić 2010: 112). In English most single words are polysemous and the precise meaning of a certain word can be determined by the context, by the words that surround it, i.e. by collocation. This is supported by the renowned British linguist John Rupert Firth who introduced the term collocation into linguistics (Murica and Stojić 2010: 112). He believes that, when exploring a language, it is important to explore the way the language is used. There he emphasizes the importance of collocation: collocation is a syntagmatic combination of two words realized as a noun (*broken glass*) or verb phrase (*Birds fly*).

I will briefly provide a couple of other definitions of collocations proposed to us by linguists: Jackson (1988: 96 cited in Šetina 1993: 211) believes that a collocation is not a fixed expression, but that there is a more than occasional probability for some words to go together. Sinclair (Šetina 1993: 212) emphasizes the importance of analyzing collocations within certain registers.

According to Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009: v), in English there are weak collocations, collocations of medium strength and strong collocations. First, weak collocation is a set of words that are not inextricably connected, i.e. these words are more open to combine with other words, e.g. a noun *house* can combine with a lot of attributive adjectives (*nice, beautiful, comfortable*...). Next, a collocation of medium-strength would be the one whose meaning can be understood by analysing its constituents. The following examples illustrate that collocations of medium strength do not have literal meaning: *to enter century, to face the challenge, to overlook the fact*. The strongest and most restricted collocations constitute the last type of collocations. Their meaning is hard to understand from the mere

[1] Quote taken from http: //acl.ldc.upenn.edu/J/J90/J90-1003.pdf

semantic understanding of lexical elements, e.g. *to stand on ceremony* means to be formal, or an expression *in words of one syllable* means to use very simple language, or *a centre of excellence* is a place where a particular kind of work is done well.

Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009: vii) names two possible types of collocations: so called word collocation and category collocation, the former one being exact words that combine with each other, e.g. *large quantity*, not *big quantity*, although large and big are synonyms, and the latter being words that can combine with a specific set of words, e.g. nationality where any adjective that describes belonging to a particular nation collocates with this noun (*Croatian, German, British, Italian nationality*...).

2.1.1. *Grammatical and Lexical Collocations*

As Šetina stated (1993: 212), it was extremely hard to analyze lexicology, determine and examine collocations before computers came into use. However, the progress in informatics made it possible for linguists to develop and deal with enormous corpora of the words. Furthermore, programs were developed specially for analyzing and developing lists of collocations (Šetina 1993: 212).

Šetina (1993: 213) cited division of collocations into two categories brought to us by M. Benson, E. Benson and R. Ilson: grammatical and lexical. Grammatical collocations are defined combinations made up of a dominant word (verb, noun or adjective) and a grammatical word, most frequently prepositions or grammatical structure, such as infinitive or a clause (Šetina 1993: 212). I will name the following examples:

- V + prep = *move* + *away from*
- N + prep = *decision* + *on*
- Adj + prep = *devoted* + *to*
- V + clause = *claim that* + *clause*

Lexical collocations in general do not consist of grammatical words (Šetina 1993: 213). They are comprised of two or more equally valid lexical elements (Šetina 1993: 213). Among the most frequent combinations are the ones with verbs and nouns, adjectives and nouns, nouns and verbs, nouns and nouns and adverbs and verbs (Šetina 1993: 213). Here some examples:

- V + N = *to make an appointment*
- Ajd + N = *drawing board*
- N + V = *engine starts*
- N + N = *election campaign*
- Adv + V = *seriously endanger*.

2.1.2. *Drawing a Line between Collocations and Idioms*

Since there is a bit of confusion where to draw a line between idioms and collocations, with the help of the table I will try to explain what the main differences between the two are. Idioms are fixed expressions and the meaning of constituents of a certain idiom cannot be understood literally. Let the following illustration explains the difference between free phrases, collocations and idioms.

Table 1. Differences between collocations, free phrases and idioms

COLLOCATION VS. FREE PHRASES	Army uniform VS. New uniform
COLLOCATION VS. IDIOM	To build a house, a building VS. to rain cats and dogs, to gain ground

The first example testifies that collocations are more fixed than free phrases, while the second example demonstrates that idioms are more fixed than collocations.

From this we can conclude that the semantic aspect is the key to drawing a line between collocations and free phrases on the one side, and collocations and idioms on the other side. Elements of free phrases can be easily changed since there is a vast potential for this from the semantic point of view (Murica and Stojić 2010: 113). This characteristic distinguishes them from collocations – the chance is not that high for elements of collocations

to be so easily changed. However, so called category collocation proves that this level of changeability is possible with some nouns, e.g. with territories, nationalities, nations and similar (British, French, Italian, German, Croatian...).

Furthermore, in order to establish similarities and differences that exist between collocations and idioms, let me first name the basic characteristics of idioms and see whether it is possible to apply them to collocations. According to Murica and Stojić (2010: 114) The first characteristic is idiomaticity (the meaning of a structure does not correspond to literal meaning of its constituents), then follows stability (when an idiom is formed, there are always same or exactly determined elements that appear together), reproduction (when using an idiom, it is not produced all over again; as a fixed expression it is stored in the brain and reproduced holistically when needed).

These characteristics (idiomaticity, stability and reproduction) can only partly be applied to collocations: some collocations do keep their literal meaning (*build a house*), whereas some do not (*in the flesh* meaning in reality, not just in picture). Next, collocations that have literal meaning can change their elements easier than the ones that do not have literal meaning (*build a building*). Since collocations can be changed more easily than idioms, but still can be stored in the brain, reproduction is another characteristic that can partly be applied to collocations. Speaking from semantic and syntactic point of view, collocations behave according to grammatical rules, e.g. to wipe a table, or to wipe tables, a table was wiped, tables were wiped (Murica and Stojić 2010: 114), whereas idioms in most cases sound strange if either tense or grammatical number is changed (**He is kicking the bucket.)*.

Moreover, the units of collocation do not have to come immediately one after another; they can be premodified by adverbs or adjectives or postmodified by adverbs or clauses (Murica and Stojić 2010: 114). Let me illustrate this with the following examples: we will take a collocation *to build a house* (*Mary and John built a nice big house on the suburbs of London*.) and an idiom *to rain cats and dogs* (**It rains lovely cats and wild dogs*.). As we can see from the examples, units of this idiom are fixed and they cannot be pre- or postmodified, as it is the case with collocations.

According to Murica and Stojić (2010: 114-115), the difference between idioms and collocations is also that they cannot appear in the same context, e.g. *close/shut one's eyes to something* can at the same time be a collocation and an idiom, but it has different meanings in different contexts. It is important to determine in which context a certain phrase is a collocation and in which context an idiom. Only its use in language can tell us whether it has a collocational or an idiomatic function.

The following sentences will explain this claim:

1) *As she was passing by the kitchen, she couldn't believe her mom was still skinning the fish so she closed her eyes not to watch it again*. (phrase functioning as a collocation – literal use)

2) *Adam couldn't believe Sarah was already out with her new boyfriend so he decided to close his eyes to the fact she got over him and tried not to get in contact with her the whole night.* (phrase functioning as an idiom – metaphorical use)

A German linguist Klare (1998: 246 qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 115) claims that one of the most important rules when separating idioms from collocations is the idiomaticity, but that it is still hard to understand the meaning of some collocations only by understanding the meaning of their constituents. Some linguists name this phenomenon half-idiom, i.e. a combination of words with partly figurative or metaphorical meaning. In that case, the meaning of the node is literal and the meaning of collocates can be figurative, but still transparent enough. In constructions of that kind we can recognize idiosyncratic character of collocations (Murica and Stojić 2010: 115). Here are some examples: *to hold something true*, meaning to value something greatly.

As a conclusion of this brief section, both collocations and idioms are constructions of at least two words that often appear together. Idiomaticity is one of the characteristics of idioms and it can be considered as their distinctive feature in relation to collocations. However, since the meaning of some collocations can be partly figurative, this feature still does not possess an absolute value (Murica and Stojić 2010: 115).

2.1.3. *Identifying Collocation and Its Constituents*

One of the ways to discover whether a construction we are dealing with is a collocation or not is to try to change one of its units with synonyms, e.g. *a corner table* (Murica and Stojić 2010: 114-115). There is no synonym for *corner* that would correspond to the meaning contained in this particular collocation so this construction is a collocation. We could use a formula with constructions containing an adjective and a noun in order to check whether certain construction is collocation or not: let us say we have an x word being an adjective and y word being a noun. If x word cannot be substituted with one of its synonyms without changing the meaning of a construction, we are dealing with a collocation.

As it has already been said, collocations consist of at least two words. The names for constituents of collocations are not agreed upon (Murica and Stojić 2010: 115). In 1984 the terms *node* and *collocate* were introduced by a German linguist Hausmann (Murica and Stojić 2010: 115) and are also used in British contextualism (Murica and Stojić 2010: 112). A node or a base is an unchangeable constituent bearing primary meaning, while collocate determines its meaning more closely, *high premium, extremely striking, accidentally hit* (*high, extremely and accidentally* functioning as collocates and *premium, striking and hit* as nodes). However, this kind of division has proven to have disadvantages because research has shown that constituents within a collocation can change places, i.e. node can take a place of collocate and vice versa (Murica and Stojić 2010: 116).

2.2. *On Grammatical Category of Collocations in Croatian Linguistics*

2.2.1. *General Understanding of Collocations*

In Croatian linguistics there have been few studies on collocations, although collocations have great importance in language teaching (Šetina 1993: 211). The reason for this remains unknown. Furthermore, general agreements are yet to be reached since there is no agreed definition nor one term that would describe this concept (Murica and Stojić 2010: 115). I will list all the terms in Croatian linguistics that are equivalents for an English term *collocation*: *kolokacija, leksička sveza, sveza riječi, samostalna višerječna sveza, leksička jedinica, kolokacijski sklop, leksička sveza, sintagmatska sveza, leksičko slaganje, sintagmatska sveza, sintagma, sintagmatski izraz, kolokacijska kombinacija, višerječni niz, sintagmem, višečlana leksička jedinica, višečlani izraz* (Murica and Stojić 2010: 112). There are 17 terms listed for one concept in grammar so we could conclude that there are still many teminological issues Croatian linguists have to resolve.

Therefore, it is necessary to name the questions needed to be answered before defining general concepts connected with collocations, i.e. how to define the concept, how to name it, how to distinguish between free phrases, other fixed expressions and collocations, and how to determine standardized criteria for classification of collocations (Murica and Stojić 2010: 122).

Croatian linguists (Ivir, Murica, Stojić, Šetina) rely on Firth's definition (1957: 195ff qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 112) of collocation. In their article, Murica and Stojić (2010:

112) refer to Firth's distinction between general, usual collocations and technical, personal collocations. General collocations are believed to be the ones whose elements can appear together without any restrictions, while technical or personal collocations are the combinations of words that can appear together only in certain contexts. However, Firth does not offer any explanation for such classification.

Collocations consist of words that, when found in a combination with other words, form a unit with a particular meaning. The substitution of elements within collocation is almost not possible because of a limited choice of potential elements that could stand with the other part of collocation in phrasal relation (Mujica and Stojić 2010: 113). Turk (2010: 537 qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 113) believes that collocation must be understood as a whole, i.e. that the meaning of a collocation cannot be understood by dissecting its elements. Borić (2000: 202 qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 113) claims collocations are special type of complex and more fixed word combinations whose elements can be combined with other words because of their capability to do so.

From that we can conclude that Croatian linguists value the strands of research that appreciate the semantic aspect of collocations, i.e. phrasal relation between the words that appear in a certain phrase because of their conventionality. However, it is also important to be aware of the idiosyncratic character of a language, e.g. in English we *say to paint the nails*, and in Croatian *nalakirati nokte*. It is highly unlikely that there is a semantic explanation for this phenomenon. Murica and Stojić (2010: 113) propose the reason is the conventionality of such word combinations.

2.2.2. *Constituents of Collocations*

According to Murica and Stojić (2010: 116), there are following terms describing constituents of collocations in Croatian linguistics: *osnova* (base), *ključna riječ* (key word), *nosiva riječ* (word bearing the meaning), *osnovna natuknica* (basic cue), *ključni element* (key element). Ivir (1992-1993 qtd in. Murica and Stojić 2010: 116) has taken over Firth's belief that single words realize their meaning only in collocation. He uses a completely new term *kolokat* (collocate), a constituent of a collocation. This is not based on a binary division of constituents; they are given equal status. Blagus Bartolec (2008 qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 116) applies the term *collocational constituent* (Cro: *kolokacijska sastavnica*), which seems to be neutral.

In order to classify collocations from a structural point of view, it is important to detect their structure. In Croatian literature there is no established division of this kind. According to research provided by international linguists, the structure of collocations can be determined corresponding to their grammatical structure or the word class the node belongs to (Murica and Stojić 2010: 116).

Murica and Stojić take over Hausmann's (1985: 119 qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 116) classification that is based on the grammatical structure and apply it to collocations in Croatian language:

- V + N (node), e.g. *set the table* (*postaviti stol*)
- Adj + N (node), e.g. *fresh vegetables* (*svježe povrće*)
- N (node) + V, e.g. *Sun shines* (*Sunce sja*)
- N + N (node), e.g. *a glass of wine* (*čaša vina*)
- Adv + Adj (node), e.g. *perfectly calm* (*savršeno smiren*)
- Adv + V (node), e.g. *closely inspect* (*pomno istražiti*)

It is possible to add other elements to this basic construction, i.e. a node and its collocate, in order to modify it more profoundly. One of the explanations for this is also the fact that collocations are lexical units whose constituents belong to open classes of words, i.e. words that can be pre- or postmodified by both open and closed classes of words.

However, closed classes of words, e.g. prepositions, pronouns, determiners, can also be part of collocations, although node and collocate always remain basic constituents. The following examples demonstrate this: *Getting that job was quite an achievement. Although he was experiencing his best days, Mary decided not to get in touch with him*. In the first sentence basic constituents are *be + achievement* and this collocations is modified by an adverb *quite*. The second sentence has a collocation *to experience one's best days* and *to get in touch with someone* which was premodified by negation *not* and full verb (*decide*) and to-infinitive.

The fact that collocations do not consist of only two constituents, i.e. a node and a collocate, but can also be multi-word, shows us that the theory of collocations being only binary combinations of words does not always prove to be the case, as we could see in the above two paragraphs.

The following classification is Benson's (1985: 61ff qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 117) and it is based on the word class that dominates the collocation. According to Murica and Stojić (2010: 117), if we apply his classification to Croatian, we will get four basic structures:

1. noun collocation, e.g. *heavy rain* (*obilna kiša*)

2. verbal collocation, e.g. *to write homework* (*pisati zadaću*)

3. adjectival collocation, e.g. *completely happy* (*potpuno sretan*)

4. adverbial collocation, e.g. *purely psychologically* (*speaking*...) (*čisto psihološki* (*govoreći*...)).

As Murica and Stojić (2010: 117) stated, in Croatian noun collocations, the second constituent is either an adjective, *glagolski prilog sadašnji* (it partly corresponds to participial –ing in English grammar), *glagolski pridjev trpni* (participial adjective), or another noun. With verbal collocation the second constituent is mostly a noun, and the valency of the verb determines the constituents. Adverbs can also collocate with verbs (*heavily rain – obilno kišiti*). Adjectival collocations consist of an adjective and an adverb as a possible constituent, as it is exemplified in the example above. In adverbial collocation we have an adverb next to an adverb.

In order to be able to draw a conclusion about collocations from the applied point of view, it is necessary to propose a concise definition, to establish a clear limit between collocations and free phrases on the one side, and collocations and idioms on the other side. It is also important to determine their structure. There is a question of how collocations are acquired, how to list them in dictionaries, what should a non-native speaker focus on when translating or interpreting collocations, and what the differences among collocations of various languages are (Murica and Stojić 2010: 118).

2.2.3. *The Importance of Acquiring Collocations*

As we have already said, one of the indicators of how well students master a language is the fact how clearly they can express themselves. Nowadays, more and more linguists become aware of the importance of collocations (Šetina 1993: 122).

When we speak about lexical competence of a speaker of a foreign language, we often refer not just to the knowledge of lexical units but also to the knowledge of collocations – a group of words that most frequently go together. In addition, there is a tendency in foreign language teaching to teach students the words that often appear together. By recognizing collocations, we are able to express ourselves in a clearer and more detailed way.

Dictionaries are an integral part when learning a foreign language and a collocations dictionary covers, as its name says, collocations of a certain language. While monolingual dictionaries give the general information about the entry, i.e. word (meaning and its basic grammatical notions), in a collocations dictionary we can find almost all the collocations of a certain language, although more and more modern dictionaries try to provide students with the most typical collocations (Oxford Collocations Dictionary 2009: v).

2.2.4. *On Collocations from a Non-Native Speaker Point of View and How to Acquire Them*

A native speaker of any language will not care much about collocations since he/she uses them intuitively, i.e. may not at all be aware of them because he/she feels them as common and natural expressions. However, for a non-native speaker it is immensely important to be aware of collocations not just for the sake of his/her richness of vocabulary, but also not to translate or interpret them literally or with a false friend from his/her mother tongue (Murica and Stojić 2010: 118). We thereby specially have to take into account collocations that are partly idiomatic in meaning because the language is a reflection of culture and different cultures have different concepts. Let me illustrate this on the example: in English people say for someone who is tired to be *tired as hell*, but in Croatian we say *umoran kao pas* (literally – tired as a dog).

A non-native speaker of English language cannot know that this is said so, unless he/she has learnt it before. If not, he/she cannot freely combine words because there are many lexical and morphosyntactical restrictions in all languages. It does not suffice to learn single words, but to learn words as constructions. It is also important to warn students that some words appear in a very limited number of collocations and that these words should not be placed next to their translation in the student's mother tongue. It is recommended to memorize them in the context they appear in.

Hausmann (1984: 403ff qtd. in Murica and Stojić 2010: 118) proposes three methods when learning collocations. His theory is based on distinguishing a node and a collocate:

1) onomasiological learning – a student, learning a node, learns also possible collocates

2) semasiological learning – a student learns how to combine collocates

3) bilingual learning – a student learns a collocational structure together with the equivalent structure in his/her mother tongue.

In their article, Murica and Stojić (2010: 118) propose to elaborate the methods of learning collocations and then to apply them systematically in foreign language teaching.

From the non-native speaker point of view, it is important to know what kind of combination of words is commonly used and then to apply them properly. This can be accomplished only by contrasting collocations of different languages and consulting a dictionary of collocations (Murica and Stojić 2010: 122). In English there is a Collocation Dictionary, but in Croatian there is no dictionary of that kind.

2.2.5. *Contrasting Collocations*

Let me explain in a more detailed way why it is important to contrast collocations. This is connected with the problem of translation equivalence. The aim of contrasting is to see what the characteristics of collocations of contrasted languages are and also to see what the level of their concordance is. We have the following types of concordance (Murica and Stojić 2010: 121):

- Complete concordance – the constituents of collocations of contrasted languages do not differ in semantics or in the way they are combined, e.g. *offer a solution – ponuditi rješenje*

- Incomplete concordance – one of the constituents is not concordant in contrasted constructions, e.g. *put up resistance – pružiti otpor*

- No concordance – not one constituent of contrasted collocations concords, e.g. *to take place – odvijati se, događati se*

3. On Simultaneous Interpreting

3.1. *On Historical Development of Simultaneous Interpreting*

Generally speaking, a need existed since time immemorial for interpreters and translators (Seleskovitch 2004: 779). Business people in ancient Rome always needed at least one interpreter in order to do the business. The role of interpreters was mostly taken over by people who had no education, but could speak at least two languages, since first schools were introduced in the middle ages. The following citation gives us information on an interpreter:

> There may be very little evidence of the interpreter's work. (...) an interpreter was present but all too often the interpreter is not specifically named or mentioned in historical documents. The interpreter may have been a linguist or a diplomat who was asked or offered to interpret. (Phelan 2000: 1)

The main reason for interpreting, i.e. translating was the exchange of information. One of the other reasons is also foreign language acquisition and embracing its culture and this was highly encouraged:

> Man möchte selbst über „Sprachexperten" verfügen. (...) führt das Verpflanzen eines Kindes in eine völlig fremde Umgebung im günstigen Fall nicht nur zum Erwerb von Sprach-, sondern auch von Kulturkenntnissen. War ein solches Kind erst in die Heimat zurückgekehrt und hatte sich wieder in die heimische Kultur eingegliedert, so beherrschte es nicht nur die fremde Sprache, sondern es kannte auch Sitten, Gebräuche, Wertvorstellungen des fremden Volkes und wußte – das wird auch heute von einem Dolmetscher erwartet -, „*wie* man mit diesen Leuten zu reden hatte." (Albrecht 1998: 30)

As we could see from the citation, the children would be sent to another country in order to acquire its language and culture. A lot of importance was given to mere understanding of culture and here we can recognize the fundamental role of the interpreters, i.e. translators – their task is to act as mediators between different cultures.

According to Phelan (2000: 1), another important period in history where interpreters played an important part was the period of colonization. Although smaller in number, colonizers wanted to exercise power and control over indigenous population so they had to find a way of communication. They would take a number of native people and take them to a country where they would learn the language of colonizers. After having learnt a new language, the natives would return to their country and serve as interpreters between the colonizers and the rest of population. This practice was used by Christopher Columbus and

the French colonizers in Canada. Glossaries and dictionaries of catholic missionaries also witness of two cultures getting in touch and exchange of linguistic information between them.

Oral translation finds its roots in peace talks in 1919 that took place after World War 1 (Phelan 2000: 2). Although French was the international language of diplomacy, it was decided that English should be also used as a working language and this is where the story of conference interpreting begins.

Simultaneous interpreting did not come into play until mid 1940-ies at the Nuremburg trials (Seleskovitch 2004: 781). Consecutive interpreting was until then the only way of interpreting. The need for interpreters existed at meetings and conferences organized by governmental and private organizations. Together with the development of modern world and new technologies, interpreters grew in number and consequently became established as a profession. They were employed in large multinational organizations that possessed conference halls (Seleskovitch 2004: 780).

All this meant the change of the interpreter's role: as a consecutive interpreter, he/she was clearly visible and an active participator in the exchange of information. As a simultaneous interpreter, he/she is not necessarily visible and gets in touch with the audience only through earphones.

3.2. *Types of Oral Translation*

The main forms of oral translation are:

- Conference interpreting – term used to describe consecutive or simultaneous interpreting (Phelan 2000: 6). Since simultaneous interpreting is one the integral subjects in this paper, I will just briefly explain the concept of consecutive interpreting. Consecutive interpreting takes place when an interpret listens to a speech and simultaneously takes notes. According to Phelan (2000: 9), it is expected from the interpreter to render the original speech completely, not to give a summary. Notetaking is the essential part of consecutive interpreting. Since an interpreter stands in front of the audience when interpreting, his/her public appearance and performance are equally important. No technical equipment is needed for this kind of interpreting.

- Whispered interpreting or *chuchotage* is used when a small number of people in a meeting or conference do not understand the source language (Phelan 2000: 12). Interpreter whispers interpretation to them. However, acoustics pose a serious problem since interpreter is not in a soundproof booth and may not hear the speaker well.

- Relay interpreting – happens when interpreters wait for interpretation from another booth and then interpret it (Seleskovitch 2004: 783), e.g. speech is given in Turkish and English booth waits for German interpretation and interprets according to German interpretation.

- Community interpreting – occurs in public-sector institutions. Many immigrants need services of community interpreters (Phelan 2000: 20). There are poor education possibilities for community interpreters and within the interpreter's profession, their status is very low. Children often interpret for their parents when they need medical examination, and this seems to be inappropriate. It has been widespread in Austria.

- Sight translation – happens when interpreters are asked to read through a document and then interpret it (Phelan 2000: 13).

- Telephone interpreting – happens over the phone where interpreter acts as a mediator between two sides. It is used in mostly business context or for medical examinations. This service has been strongly developed in the USA. Its advantage is the fact that it is always available and many language combinations are offered (Phelan 2000: 13).

- Sign language interpreting – is a service for deaf and hearing-impaired people who do not understand the source speech (Phelan 2000: 14). Sign language has developed and it is nowadays recognized as being a language for itself. It mostly uses facial expressions and gestures of hands. It is interesting to point out that there is American, British and Irish sign language and that they have even dialects. While conference interpreters sit in the booth and in most cases are not visible to the audience, sign language interpreters have to be visible to the audience. They are asked not to wear colours that could cause problems to deaf or hearing-impaired listeners (Phelan 2000: 15).

3.3. *Technological Influence on Simultaneous Interpreting*

This type of interpreting, as opposed to consecutive interpreting, enabled meetings and conferences to be held with no time loss and it eventually came to be preferred type of oral translation, i.e. consecutive interpreting (Seleskovitch 2004: 781). Since technology plays an important role in simultaneous interpreting, I will devote the following lines to electronic devices in order to describe how simultaneous interpreting functions.

To interpret simultaneously, an interpreter needs a soundproof booth and electronic transmission equipment (Seleskovitch 2004: 781). In the booth, there is a control board with usually three buttons: volume control, a mute button and a relay button. Furthermore, speakers and interpreters need microphones so that they can be heard, while interpreters need earphones (in order to hear a speech) and audience (who will listen to the interpretation of the speech). In large interpreting companies there are also skilled technicians who are trained to help immediately when something goes wrong, e.g. when microphones do not work properly or earphones do not function satisfactorily. Nowadays, more and more booths have a laptop computer that allows the access to various glossaries, terminology bases, etc. (Seleskovitch 2004: 781).

3.4. *Interpreter's Profile and Professional Environment*

3.4.1. *First Interpreters, Universities and Scientists*

In the beginning, consecutive interpreters showed an amazing capability of interpreting speeches that lasted at least 10 minutes without interruption. According to Seleskovitch (2004: 780), André Kaminker is considered to be the father of conference interpreters. He was a French interpreter. There is a story of him when he listened to an hour-long speech in French and jotted down only one word. When he had to interpret the speech, he did it perfectly, although he wrote only one word down, which was "however" (Seleskovitch 2004: 780).

First interpreters were not educated to be interpreters; they simply dealt with foreign languages and succeeded in completing the task asked to do. Some of them wrote manuals on interpreting and soon universities began to offer courses in interpreting (Phelan 2000: 2). The University of Geneva School of Interpreting, the Vienna School of Interpreting, Georgetown University Division of Interpreting and Translation, two schools in France (*Institut Supérieur*

d'Interprétaion et de Traducteurs and *École Supérieure d'Interprètes et de Traducteurs*) are among the first universities founded exclusively to educate future interpreters and translators (Phelan 2000: 2-3). In 1953 AIIC, the International Association of Conference Interpreters – one of the most prominent associations for conference interpreters - was founded in order to lay down professional code of conference interpreters.

Scientists within translation studies (they encompass both translation and interpretation) began exploring different topics, e.g. Danica Seleskovitch (2004: 785) wrote about the so called *theorie du sens*, i.e. belief that, when interpreting, the meaning, the sense or the message has to be rendered, not words. In addition to that, scientists also have tried to determine what happens in the brain of translators and interpreters. Various methods of investigation were developed in order to come to new findings, e.g. Think Aloud Protocols, Talk Aloud, eye-tracking, etc. The studies in the US were concerned with the court interpreting (Phelan 2000: 3), whereas community interpreting found interest in European countries that embraced a great number of immigrants such as Germany and Austria.

3.4.2. *Interpreter's Skills and Desirable Qualities*

In the following paragraphs I will try to explain and name all the features an interpreter has to possess in order to fulfill his/her task and that influence his/her job. The first exercise some students of interpreting classes are confronted with is shadowing. Let us see what Danica Seleskovitch thinks about this type of task:

> Interpretation, it is believed, means repeating a speech in another language with corresponding words. In many instances "shadowing", i.e. repeating a text in the same language, is considered a useful introduction to simultaneous interpretation. In fact, shadowing is an absurd exercise – since it forces to concentrate on repeating words, which is the very opposite of what is needed for training interpreters. (Seleskovitch 2004: 780)

This statement is to be taken with a grain of salt for the following reasons: reading through it, one can get a feeling she is not being neutral and that she is not writing purely scientific (e.g. she uses an adjective "absurd" that shows a strong emotion). Furthermore, shadowing is not used in order to teach the students that interpretation is a mere repeating of the text – students are taught to separate listening to the speaker and speaking at the same time, i.e. interpreting.

Moreover, interpreters need to have excellent memory, short-term for simultaneous and long-term for consecutive. What is often said of interpreters is that they should be naturally curious. They can interpret, e.g. one day on computer technology, and the next day on planets and astrophysics. It is also often said that interpreters know a little about everything and this is true because they can be asked to interpret on any subject. In addition to that, here we can emphasize the importance of preparation (Phelan 2000: 5), and some say this is a key to successful interpreting. This can be done in different ways; either by reading about the subject we will interpret or by compiling a glossary of terms connected to it. What is equally important is the ability to concentrate because one has to link together all things discussed.

Another desirable physical quality an interpreter should possess is a pleasant voice (Phelan 2000: 7). He/she should speak at a normal speed. It is important not to hesitate or leave sentences unfinished. Interpreters usually work in segments no longer than a half an hour due to the high level of concentration required for interpreting. Furthermore, he/she should try as hard as possible to deliver the speech smoothly. It is also appreciated when an interpreter is a team-player, i.e. when he/she stays in the booth and helps his/her colleague if something starts to go wrong (Phelan 2000: 7). When he/she is not delivering interpretation, he/she can prepare for the next speech. Moreover, when in a booth, interpreters have to be aware that when the microphone is on, the audience should hear only the interpretation: no comments, swear words, rustling of papers or pouring water. It is important to have a clear view of the speaker in order to see when he/she is referring to a particular slide, video or similar shown at a conference (Phelan 2000: 7-8).

3.4.3. *Interpreter's Working Languages*

There is a widespread term in translation studies that describes with which languages an interpreter works – interpreter's working languages (Seleskovitch 2004: 782):

- A language(s), i.e. interpreter's native language (or languages – if an interpreter grew up bilingual)
- B language(s), i.e. language(s) an interpreter masters thoroughly
- C language(s), i.e. language(s) an interpreter perfectly understands.

The usual way of working is from B into A language and from C into A – it is not possible to work from A into C. Some interpreters work from A into B and this works quite well for some. It is interesting to hear interpreters that work better in their B than their A language. On the other hand, there are also interpreters who work exclusively from B into A language.

All interpreters at the beginning of their professional education are tempted to interpret literally. This is natural, but one has to fight it. Only by practicing different speeches one can improve his/her performance. At the beginning of a speech, when we still cannot detect the topic, we literally interpret the units of speech. However, as the speech proceeds, we should interpret more naturally. Time-lag can amount from three to longer than ten seconds, depending on how the speaker is formulating, i.e. expressing an idea (Seleskovitch 2004: 781).

3.4.4. *Quality Assessment*

When talking about quality assessment we think of how well oral translators deal with their tasks. Generally speaking, people believe simultaneous interpreting is more difficult than consecutive. However, many experienced interpreters prefer simultaneous to consecutive. Simultaneous is better paid and with consecutive interpreting, one is subjected to immediate control, while nowadays, as claimed by Danica Seleskovitch (2004: 783), there are many not properly educated simultaneous interpreters who are not directly exposed to control and a consequence of this is a rather poor quality of interpretation. Proper education is therefore a prerequisite if one wants to be a successful interpreter.

3.4.5. *Student Interpreters, Their Educational Environment and Perspectives after Graduating*

Students who want to enter interpreting universities first have to pass difficult entrance exam that basically consists of testing foreign language knowledge and current affairs in world of politics and economics. Most universities offer two foreign languages and students usually work into their mother tongue. It is also possible to add an interpreting qualification on an existing degree. EU encouraged experts in economics and law to expand their knowledge and

become interpreters on these specialized matters since it is desirable to have experience in these two broad areas of everyday life (Phelan 2000: 3).

One needs a lot of patience and will to apply to various organizations and seek employment. Young interpreters often lower prices in order to get a job and gain valuable experience (Phelan 2000: 3). Another factor that has to be taken into consideration is that there is a lot of competition so that one has to excel at as many things as possible employer looks for.

The earlier mentioned development of modern world and technology also left its negative effects on interpreting: this brought a large number of interpreters who interpret literally, substituting word by word (Seleskovitch 2004: 780). Although they admit it is important to understand the idea, i.e. the concept of what speaker is trying to transmit, they do not devote enough attention to it. This is the consequence of the belief that the only precondition for interpreting is the knowledge of a foreign language (Seleskovitch 2004: 780). Danica Seleskovitch argues that "simultaneous interpretation demands more than grammatical correctness: it requires style and intuition. Achieving proficiency in speaking like a native is fairly unlikely, whereas achieving a full understanding of a second language and of a foreign culture is feasible (...)" (Seleskovitch 2004: 783).

From this citation we can see she believes everything is doable. However, one has to put a lot of effort if he/she wants to perform successfully. Interpreting is a very difficult and demanding job and it is not a surprise that there are not many competent and skilled interpreters. This profession may involve a lot of sacrifice, but one can earn pretty well and this can be seen as a compensation for such hard work.

3.5. *Process of Interpretation*

In this part it will be pointed out which linguistic processes are of great importance for successful interpretation. First, as it already has been emphasized, it is important not to interpret literally. Interpretation should sound natural. This is achieved by expressing the sense of the speaker's message, not by literal words substitution. Sense is expressed with words, but it is found in our heads, i.e. in human minds and logic (Seleskovitch 2004: 785).

To understand a speech means to understand the message speaker is trying to convey to the audience. Interpreter's knowledge of a certain subject is somewhere in the middle – the

important thing is that he/she understand general concepts concerned with a particular subject and this is supported by the citation from the article written by Danica Seleskovitch:

> To comprehend a speech, the interpreter constructs meaningful units out of the sounds he receives; the extent of their significance for him depends on the nature and scope of his available knowledge and intellect. His level of relevant topical knowledge lies between expert knowledge and an absence of background and world knowledge. (Seleskovitch 2004: 785)

Another aspect of this knowledge of the interpreter is that he/she judges speaker's statements rather objectively. He/she is not affected by some emotions connected to the particular subject and is found in a neutral position from which he/she interprets (Seleskovitch 2004: 785).

Deverbalization is a natural process and it is the one of the most important for interpreting. It means that the same idea or thought will be differently expressed by different persons and that it is important to realize the meaning of the idea, not the actual words. It is difficult to understand speeches interpreted literally: "Observing the production of speeches by interpreters shows that language meanings rendered literally are stylistically awkward and difficult to understand by native listeners" (Seleskovitch 2004: 786).

3.6. *Ethical Code*

Most professions have a code of ethics that regulates the behaviour within a specific profession. Although one may think some rules are too simple, it is important to unite them in a form of code. In that way all people working in a particular profession will behave in the same way since they have the same rights and obligations.

First, interpreters should not accept the job they cannot complete. Furthermore, they should check all the conditions required for the job (language combination, time, place, etc.). It is always very useful when interpreters get as much information as possible in order to prepare themselves adequately. Breaks are another important factor when interpreting. Interpreters are asked to ensure confidentiality which means if they break the code they will be punished. Next, they are asked not to accept jobs that are morally questionable (Phelan 2000: 39).

4. General Notions about Factors Influencing Translation, i.e. Interpretation

Since I believe general notions that will be explained in the following part of the text and that Ivir (1994: 6) applied to translation in general are also valid for interpreting, I will present them as being equally valid for interpreting as well. Although one may think this is not the case with interpreters, there are situations when interpreters get a text (a speech, presentation) beforehand so they also may prepare and decide how to interpret certain elements.

Every translator or interpreter should be aware of following areas: language knowledge, knowledge about a language in general and the process of translating, i.e. interpreting. I will discuss each element separately.

First, the obligatory presupposition for translating and interpreting in general is that a translator, i.e. interpreter has to know at least two languages, one of them being the source language and the other one the target language. Although it could be said that this is something that should not be emphasized, Ivir (1994: 6) claims that it is implicitly tolerated when a translator or interpreter does not master the source language as good as the target language. It is important that a translator or an interpreter masters at least the target language as if he/she were a native speaker.

However, we all know that things cannot be generalized. Each of us possesses individual and unique knowledge of a language that is influenced by many outside factors. The language changes through time and we also improve our knowledge by acquiring further language experience. Another factor that influences our "personal" language is also the condition we are in (Ivir 1994: 6).

A translator and an interpreter have two roles: the first role is that of a recipient. He/she receives a message in the source language and then transmits this content to a translated, i.e. interpreted message. As a recipient of a message, he/she relies on the knowledge of the source language he/she possesses and which is, as explained in the above paragraph, individual and susceptible to changes (Ivir 1994: 7).

The second role of a translator or an interpreter is that of a sender and here we can apply everything explained for his/her first role: the translation or interpretation will depend on how well he/she masters the target language when translating, i.e. interpreting (Ivir 1994: 7).

The second important area mentioned above is the knowledge about language in general, i.e. linguistics - scientific study of language and its structure. This seems not to be that important for translators and interpreters. However, it is a key element for translation

theory. Translation theory is important because it explains the role of both source and target language in forming a source and its equivalent target message. Translators and interpreters intuitively rely on their own knowledge of a language. They are advised to use linguistic literature and all the tools that could help them when translating, i.e. interpreting (various types of dictionaries, the Internet, different CAT programmes, etc.)

Here is also important to emphasize that languages differ in the ways they express certain concepts, and this also has to do with different cultures: language is influenced by its surroundings and it is difficult to explain why certain ideas are expressed in a certain way, e.g. Croatian expression *kiša pada k'o iz kabla* functions as an equivalent to the English expression *to rain cats and dogs*.

Translator or interpreter uses contrastive correspondence for accomplishing translation, i.e. interpretation equivalence. After having established the contrastive correspondence, translator's and interpreter's task is to decide on the level of semantic correspondence of the linguistic units in question. Since correspondence is never 1: 1, but 1: > (meaning that one linguistic unit of a source language has more equivalents in a target language), translator or interpreter has do decide which equivalent has the highest level of semantic correspondence (Ivir 1994: 8).

From all of this we can conclude that translation and interpretation equivalence is accomplished in a given communicational situation and it is also conditioned by that situation. One of the important elements of this communicational situation is translator's or interpreter's knowledge of the source and target language and the recipient's knowledge of the target language. All translators and interpreters will understand the source message somewhat differently and also in a different way in different communicational situations. Factors like restfulness, language experience, a lack of time, motivation, etc. play here a role (Ivir 1994: 7).

5. Methodology

The following section will outline the methodology used in this research paper. First, I listened to 25 speeches in English interpreted into Croatian by students of the MA programme in translation and interpreting studies at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek. The original English speeches were downloaded from www.multilingualspeeches.tv. This is the online repository providing video-recorded speeches on wide range of topics. Speeches are classified according to language and accent, level of difficulty, subject, and intended use. The interpreted speeches were recorded during regular training sessions with students during the interpreting classes. They were assigned to listen to them beforehand and prepare for interpretation. Speeches were of beginner and intermediate level of difficulty.

I first wrote down all the constructions I believed were collocations in the source language speeches. Having listened to all speeches, I went through the Oxford Collocation Dictionary in order to eliminate the constructions that were not collocations. Then all the entries were written in an Excel table and divided into four categories I recognized to be the most logical way of their division: correct translation, wrong translation, a part or whole construction missing, and non-standard Croatian, which in most of the cases was the consequence of providing literally interpreted equivalents.

Various conclusions will be drawn from analysing the entries, as will be seen in the following sections.

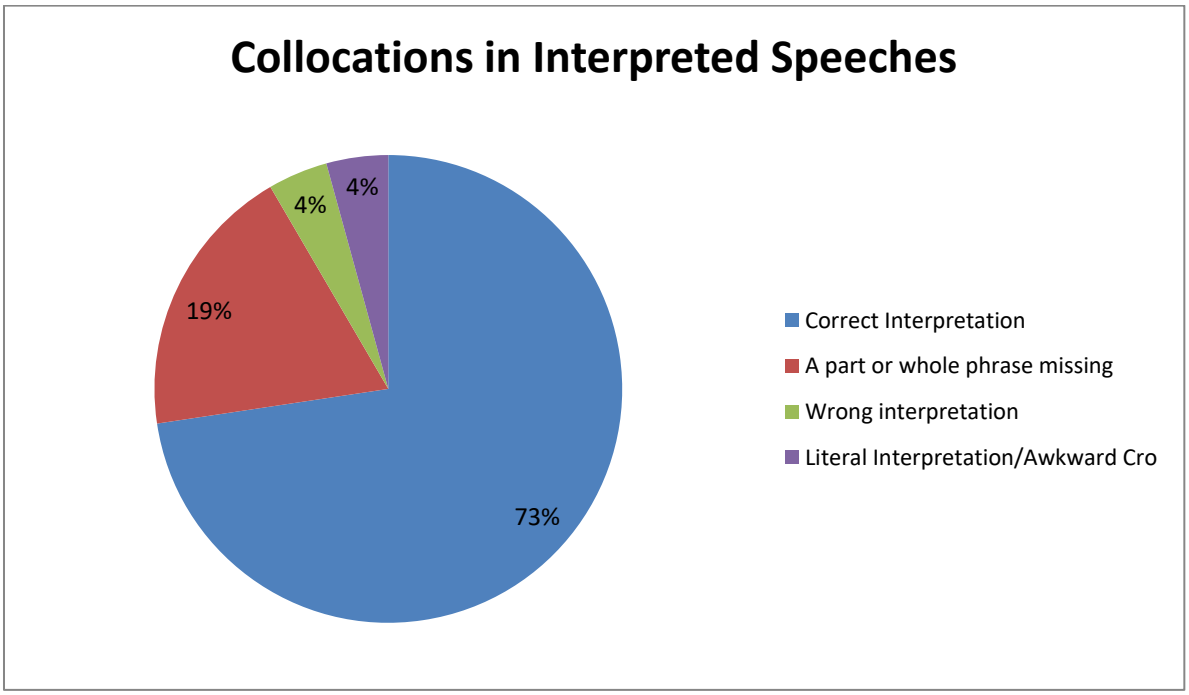
6. Analysis and Findings

Various analyses were carried out in order to draw conclusions on students' interpretation of English collocations into Croatian. There were 749 entries in total. They were divided into four categories: correct interpretation (544 entries), a part or whole phrase missing (142 entries), literal interpretation (32 entries) and wrong interpretation (31 entries).

In the first chart we can see how well students did in interpreting. As we have already said, only English SL speeches were interpreted. Students coped well with most of the collocations, as it can be seen in the chart. They produced really nice solutions for some complex collocations (e.g. *suffer from drink-related illness – patiti od bolesti uzorkovanih alkoholom*). The second most numerous category of interpreting collocations is the category where a part of a phrase or a whole phrase is missing. In most of the cases, the whole phrase is missing. However, this is not to be taken seriously: students left out these parts either because they paraphrased the speaker's thought or the speaker has already explained his/her idea, and is repeating him/herself.

The next category is literal interpretation, which resulted in non-standard solutions in Croatian as a consequence. Wrong interpretation is the last category. Errors were probably a consequence of a fast speech or disconcertion.

Figure 1. Rendering of collocations in TL speeches



Here are some sentence examples for each category. Underlined will be only collocations that are representative of specific category.

First, correctly interpreted collocations:

1) *I mentioned in the first part of my speech an anti-obesity campaign, which was started recently... – U prvom dijelu govora sam spomenula kampanju protiv pretilosti koja je nedavno počela...*

2) *That is 1,4 grams more than our daily-recommended allowance. - To je 1,4 grama više nego dnevna preporučena doza.*

3) *Some of these dishes had up to 2,5 times the official daily limit for saturated fat intake. – Neka od tih jela su imala dvaput više ... unosa zasićenih masti.*

4) *The study also found - interestingly - that most of the dishes that were sold in these take-away outlets contained much more salt and much more fat than comparable dishes served at high-street junk food chains. – Studija je također pokazala da većina jela koja se prodaje u pečenjarnicama sadrže više jela i soli nego jela koja se prodaju u lancima brze hrane.*

5) *Parents should be making sure that their children aren't simply given money to buy whatever they want at lunch time... – Roditelji ne trebaju davati svojoj djeci novac da kupuju... junk hranu, ...*

Next, wrong interpretation of collocations:

6) *The study also found interestingly that most of the dishes that were sold in these take-away outlets contained much more salt and much more fat... - Studija je također pokazala da većina jela koja se prodaje u pečenjarnicama sadrže više jela i soli...*

7) *Despite the fact that lib-dems had made the pre-election promise to vote against any rise in tuition fees... – Unatoč tome da su liberalni demokrati u predizborima obećali da neće povećati školarine...*

Some examples of non-standard Croatian in the interpretation:

8) *Recent headlines on the future of universities and in particular on university fees over the last few months can't have made for comfortable reading for parents of young teenagers or indeed for the young teenagers themselves who hope to go to university within the next few years... – Nedavni naslovi o budućnosti sveučilišta i školarina tijekom posljednjih mjeseci, u... pogotovo za mlade ljude koji žele ići na univerzitet sljedećih par godina...*

9) *Despite the fact that lib-dems had made the pre-election promise to vote against any rise in tuition fees... – Unatoč tome da su liberalni demokrati u predizborima obećali da neće povećati školarine...*

10) *9,000 £ has to be charged to students because it's the only way the universities will be able to survive and the only way in which UK will continue to be a serious global player in higher-education. – 9. 000 £ se treba naplatiti studentima jer to je jedini način na koji će univerziteti preživjeti, jedini način na koji će Velika Britanija biti ozbiljan igrač u visokom obrazovanju.*

Examples for a phrase or whole constructions missing:

11) *The minister claims that by allowing these higher fees that the government will be giving universities greater freedom and bringing students greater choice. – Ministar tvrdi da omogućajući da... te školarine, ljudi će..., studenti će imati veće šanse birati.*

12) *I'm going to tell you a rather grisly tale and it is not one for people who love cats. – Ovo je priča o mački i pitonu.*

13) *It wasn't a great deal of news. – X – no interpretation provided*

14) *Very few people actually go to the pub and drink a pints of fruit juice on a regular basis. – Jako malo ljudi ide u pubove i pije...*

15) *So perhaps it's not the calories in beer but it's consuming large quantities of beer, large quantities of calories which is the health problem associated with beer. – X – no interpretation provided*

Collocations were also viewed from a structural point of view, i.e. their lexical and grammatical structures were examined. In the following two tables, there are more entries, i.e. collocations than in the above chart. The reason for this lies in the fact that some entries consist of more than one collocation. It appeared to me that it would not make sense to separate the entries in this phase of the analysis because then I would break the flow of the speech and in that way interpretation would be dissected.

However, for the further analysis (analysis of lexical and grammatical structure of collocations) it did make sense to separate the entries because the combinations would be too long and one may think these combinations are strict, but they would be expressing only various ideas in different structures.

Table 2. Analysis of Lexical Collocations in the SL Speeches

Adj	**V**	**N**	**Adv**
+ N = 294 Economic crises	+ N = 151 Get a loan	+ N = 34 Success stories	+ Adj = 26 very well
+ N + Adv = 2 Long way away	+ Adj + N = 30 Make pre-election promise	+ V = 14 Number rises	+ Adv = 11 Quite simply
+ Adj = 2 Exact opposite	+ Adj = 26 Make (more) palatable	+ Adj = 1 Health conscious	+ Adj + N = 11 Extremely rich man
+ Adv = 2 Awful a lot	+ Adv = 15 Understand perfectly		+ V = 5 Severely fail
	(PhV) + N = 11 Set up a company		
	+ Adv + Adj = 9 Be fairly successful		
	(PhV) + Adj + N = 5 Come up with a new design		
	+ N + Adv = 3 Live life deeply		
	+ Adv + Adj + N = 3 Win a very big parliamentary majority		
	+ Adv + N = 3 Be quite an achievement		

Entries in this table were divided according to their lexical capability to stand in phrasal relation with other words: adjectives, nouns, verbs and adverbs belong to open word

classes. This table shows analysis of lexical collocations in the interpreted speeches. Here we can see that the most frequent combination from this point of view is the one with adjectives and nouns. The second most frequent is the one with verbs and nouns (noun functions here as an object). The next most frequent combination is with two or in some (although rare) cases three nouns. The last category of open word classes combining with other lexical items is the one with adverbs and adjectives.

The analysis in the table below shows the representation of collocations from the grammatical point of view, i.e. examined were collocational combinations of open word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) with closed word classes (prepositions, conjunctions, determiners), and in some rare cases with to-infinitives, numerals and conjuctions.

The most frequent combination is the one with verbs as a node of the collocation and preposition and nouns as collocates. The next one is a combination of a noun as a node with preposition and another noun as collocates. Adjectives combine most frequently with prepositions, while adverbs combine with prepositions as a node of the collocation.

In general, there were far more lexical collocations than grammatical collocations (659 > 177, which is in total 836).

Table 3. Analysis of Grammatical Collocations in SL Speeches

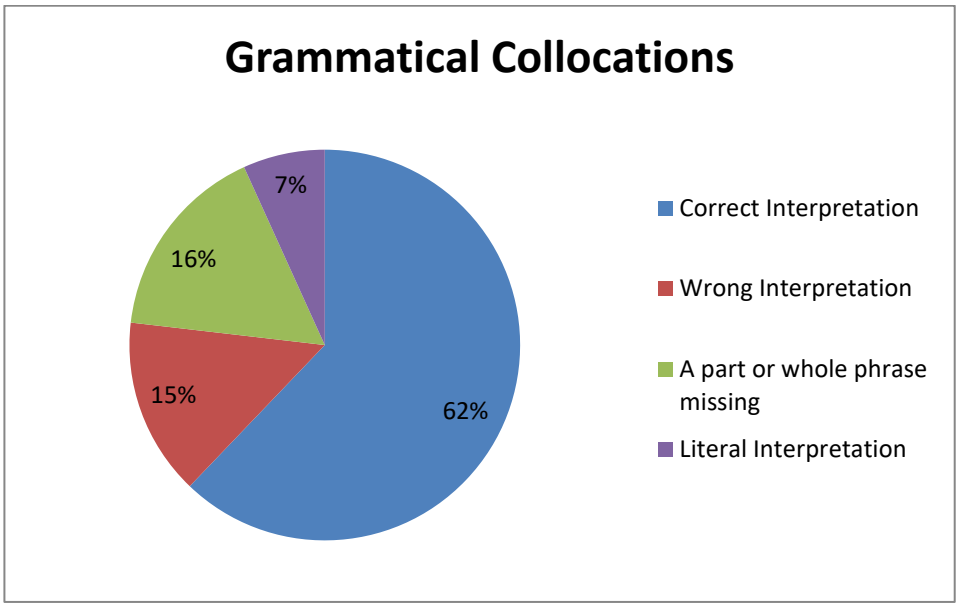
Combinations with N	**Combinations with V**	**Combinations with Adj**	**Combinations with Adv**
N + prep + N = 32 A loan from the bank	V + prep + N = 43 Go to university	Adj + prep = 5 Suitable for	Prep + Adv = 1 For very long
Prep + N =22 In fact	V + prep + Adj + N = 5 Sell at eye-watering price	Adj + N + prep = 2 Wide range of	Adv + prep + N = 1 A lot of money
N + prep = 10 Shortage of	V + prep = 5 Think about	Adj + prep + N = 2 Free of charge	Conj + Adv = 1 Until very recently

N + prep + Adj + N = 8 A glass of Scottish whiskey	V + N + prep = 4 Increase percentage of	Adj + Inf to = 1 Hard to prove
Adj + N + prep + N = 6 Busiest time of year	V + Adj + prep + N = 2 Be fined by the court	Conj + Adj = 1 If necessary
Prep +(Det) + Adj + N = 6 In such a bad way	V + Adj + N + to Inf = 1 Take a long time to...	Adv + Adj + prep = 1 Very envious of
Prep + Adj + N = 5 For the simple reason	V + Adj + prep = 1 Be involved in	Adv + Adj + Inf to = 1 Very hard to express
Prep + Adv + Adj + N = 3 At very high speed	V + Adv + Num + prep + N = 1 Use only 20% of energy	
Prep + Det + N = 2 With every meal	V + Adv + prep = 1 Be still out	
Prep + Adj + N + prep + N = 1 Over the last couple of years	Adv + V + prep + N = 1 Promptly go on holiday	
Prep + (Det) + N + prep + N = 1 From the point of view	V + prep + Adj + N = 1 Drink in a different way	

In the following chart pies we will see which type of collocations was more frequent in which assessment category, i.e. regarding the solutions students provided. First pie shows us that grammatical collocations are most frequent with correct interpretation (62%), while

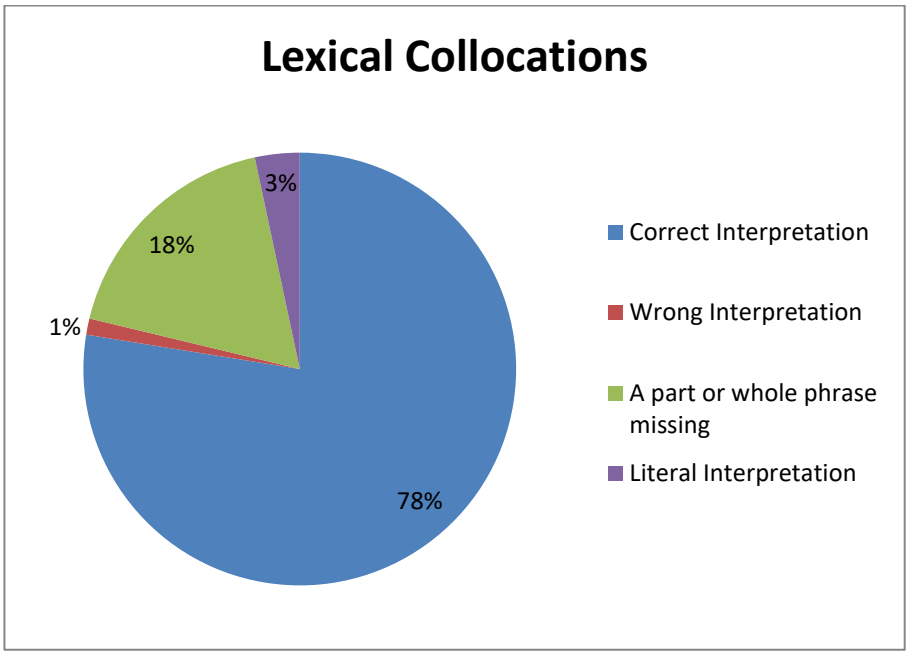
the category where a part or whole phrase is missing (16%) takes the second place. Grammatical collocations constitute 15% of wrong interpreted solutions and have the lowest frequency with literal interpretations. Observing only this type of collocations, we can conclude that it does not pose a major problem for student interpreters.

Figure 2. Grammatical Collocations



The chart below shows us frequency of lexical collocations in assessment categories. Lexical collocations are mostly found with correct interpretation, i.e. they make up 78% of this category. Next, 18% of this type of collocations were found in third category, i.e. where a part or whole phrase was missing. Literal interpretation consists of 3% of lexical collocations and lastly, 1% of lexical collocations is found with wrong interpretations. Conclusion could be drawn that for students interpreting lexical collocations also does not cause any serious problems.

Figure 3. Lexical Collocations



One of the things I presupposed and indeed noticed while listening to the students' interpretation is that they tend to resort to literal solutions, e.g. general public was interpreted into Croatian as *generalna populacija*, or another example would be economic and financial crisis as *ekonomska i financijska kriza*. Some solutions were fairly good (like the second one), while some were fairly awkward, although it is understandable what is meant (like the first example here).

I took all collocations of this structure, i.e. collocations that had a possible literal equivalent in Croatian, and checked how often students were led astray by them and chose them as solutions. The calculation is the following: out of 131 entries they opted for literal equivalents in 92 cases and in 39 they did not, which confirmed my hypothesis that students will in most cases offer a literal interpretation as a solution than the one that would sound more TL natural.

Another thing I noticed is that students will offer more concrete solutions although more general concept was expressed in the SL speech, e.g. in one speech the speaker was telling about the most remote hotel in the world. At one point he referred to it using more general noun, i.e. *property* and the student interpreted it as *hotel* (*hotel* in Croatian). This happens when students know what the speech is about and when they are more relaxed when interpreting.

7. Conclusion

In this paper we could first see a few different views supported by both English and Croatian linguists. Collocations constitute an integral part of every language and are especially important for learners of foreign languages. While in the English-speaking world there have been studies and there already are collocations dictionaries, Croatian linguists have a lot to do regarding collocations: to define general concepts connected to collocations and then to write a dictionary of Croatian collocations in order to help both native and non-native speakers.

Another area that has been discussed here is one particular branch of oral translation and that is simultaneous interpreting. We could see how it developed through history and how it became established as a profession. Next, it is important to realize that for interpreting knowing at least two languages simply does not suffice since one has to be aware of linguistic matters of the languages in question and also of his/her role as an interpreter: the role of a mediator between the cultures.

In the sixth part of the paper results from various analyses of collocations taken from interpreted speeches were presented. We could see that students coped well with most of the collocations from the original English speeches. When examining collocations from the lexical point of view, we could see that the most frequent collocational combination is the one with adjectives and nouns. Furthermore, in the analysis of collocations from the grammatical point of view, we could see that the most frequent combination was the one where verb functions as a node and preposition and noun as its collocates. Moreover, the proposed hypothesis, i.e. that students will offer solutions that are direct translation/literal equivalents of the target language constructions, proved to be right.

7.1. Answers to research questions

This part of paper will answer the questions addressed at the beginning of the paper. First question was: How do student interpreters cope with interpretation of collocations in the speeches? What kind of problems they run into?

As we could see in the Analysis and Findings section, students coped pretty well with interpretation of collocations from English into Croatian. There were in total 749 entries in 25 speeches. 73% of them were interpreted correctly, with 19% of collocations a part or (in most

cases) whole construction was missing in the interpretation, while for 4% of them students provided literal interpretation, which had as a consequence non-standard Croatian. 4 % of them were misunderstood and therefore interpreted in a wrong way. The major problem for students was a fast speaker or their own disconcertion.

The second research question was: Which type of collocations regarding their structure is more frequent?

In the theoretical part we could see there is a structural division of collocations into lexical and grammatical collocations. There were 856 collocations in total. The former constitute 659, i.e. 79% of all collocations, while grammatical collocations make up a lot less, i.e. 21% of collocations in SL speeches.

Third research question was: In what relation do collocations (regarding their structure) stand with the solutions provided by students?

Lexical collocations are mostly found with correctly interpreted collocations (78%). They constitute 18% of the category where a part or a whole phrase is missing, and 3% of literal interpretation of collocations. Lastly, they are found with wrong interpretation, where they make up 3% of this assessment category.

Grammatical collocations are in most cases found with correct interpretation (62%). Next, they make up 16% of the category where a part or a whole phrase is missing, and 15% of wrong interpretations. Literal interpretations take the last place (7%).

All in all, student interpreters cope fairly well with interpretation of English collocations into Croatian. There is one major difference when comparing structure of collocations and that is that lexical collocations are far more frequent than grammatical collocations.

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