

## **Study on Anticipation in Simultaneous Interpretation:**

### **Classification and Features**

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#### **Abstract**

Anticipation, no matter whether as a strategy or a phenomenon, plays a crucial role in field simultaneous interpretation and has drawn considerable attention of scholars. However, the study on anticipation is far from being systematic and thorough, and agreements are hard to achieve on some issues related to anticipation among different scholars. This paper deals with some basic issues of anticipation in simultaneous interpretation such as the definition, classification and features of anticipation, in hope that this paper can cast some light on the understanding of anticipation in simultaneous interpretation and can invite more attention and studies to anticipation in simultaneous interpretation.

**Key words:** anticipation; simultaneous interpretation; classification; features.

## **1. Definition of anticipation**

Anticipation, no matter it is regarded as a strategy or a phenomenon, has drawn more and more attention of interpreting researchers. Different scholars who make anticipation a major topic of their work hold different views on the definition of anticipation in interpretation. Wolfram Wilss and Udo Jörg define anticipation as prediction and interpretation of source text units before their actual utterance (Jörg ,1995:3). Besides, the famous Russian interpreting theorist Ghelly Chernov has formulated his own definition of anticipation, which he calls Probability Prediction and defines it as prediction of the verbal and semantic structure of the oral message in progress. While in Fred Van Besien's remarks, anticipation is referred to as "the simultaneous interpreter's production of a constituent (a word or a group of words) in the target language before the speaker has uttered the corresponding constituent in the source language" (1992:1). There are many more definitions of anticipation according to various known and unknown researchers.

## **2. Significance of study on anticipation in simultaneous interpretation**

Although compared with written translation studies, oral interpreting research is much more immature and is in the initial stage, it does draw more and more scholars' attention. Actually the activity of interpretation can be originated from a very early stage, when a bilingual acted as a bridge in the communication of two parts speaking two different languages, but the theories of interpreting was not involved until the very recent. In the past few decades, with the establishment of AIIC (the International Association of Conference Interpreters) and foundation of many academic institutes, such as ISIT in Paris (l'Institut Supérieur d'Interprétation et de Traduction) and SSLMT in Trieste (la Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori), the theoretical research in interpretation is gradually taking its shape.

It is worth noting that the third International Conference on Interpretation has outlined the prospects of interpreting research. The conference held in Turku, Finland in 1994 was entitled "What Do We Know and How?", and it discussed several main issues related to deep exploration of interpretation, among which, in the author's opinion, one issue was

conspicuously thought-provoking: what contribution do psycho- and neurolinguistics, discourse analysis, cognitive sciences, communication studies, semiotics, and translation studies make to interpretation and vice-versa? This issue fully illustrates interpreting studies are interdisciplinary and involve knowledge besides linguistics.

Anticipation, no matter as an unconscious psychological activity or an effective subsidiary device in the process of interpretation, calls for more exploration. Besides, anticipation is an integrated prediction concerning psychological, linguistic, and even cultural aspects, which is up to the prospect of interpreting studies. Important as anticipation in simultaneous interpretation (SI) is, works specific to it in the past decades were precious and rare and they were mostly the display of technical rules or general theories with no specific focus on certain languages. Actually anticipation is language-specific, which will be illustrated later in this paper.

Besides, language direction is a crucial determinant factor for the performance of interpreters. The general opinion among professional interpreters favors interpretation into one's mother tongue (or the dominant A language). The familiar argument is that, in the non-dominant language, the level of receptive skills and knowledge will always be higher than the level of productive skills. It is more likely that accurate comprehension in the non-dominant B language is achieved than its accurate production, and it is thus advantageous to have the B-language text as the source text to be understood, and have the message formulation stage take place in the dominant language. Thus the resulting target text will be more likely to contain both the necessary information and the stylistic nuances needed to transmit the source-text speaker's communicative intentions. However, one might also want to emphasize the advantages of the speedy and fully accurate comprehension of the mother tongue. Research on bilingual language processing indicates that the level of automatization in mother tongue comprehension is higher than that of the less dominant language, even though communicatively the bilingual might seem to handle the two languages equally successfully. Particularly if the text to be interpreted is technical rather than general in content, it is possible that the A to B direction can produce a more satisfactory

result. A to B interpretation is also a practical necessity, especially when the language to be interpreted is not popular and widely accepted, such as Chinese. In a word, no matter which language direction is preferable, one thing is for sure that the performance of interpreters differs with the different language direction.

### **3. Current studies on anticipation in simultaneous interpretation**

The issue of anticipation in SI has gained the attention of more and more researchers, which can be well proved by their works concerning anticipation. Generally speaking, the current research in anticipation can be categorized into the following several types.

The first and the commonest one is the general description of the phenomenon of anticipation. Wolfram Wilss and Udo Jörg hold that anticipation can be explained as a response to previously received and processed linguistic and extra-linguistic stimuli (1995: 12). Wilss calls these stimuli "anticipation cues" or "A cues." "A cues" can be co-textual or extra-linguistic. Sylvia Kalina and Kurt Kohn write that because of this anticipation potential, the production and comprehension of Discourse 1 and the subsequent production of Discourse 2 are partly overlapping processes (Kalina, 1996: 231). While still attending to Discourse 1, listeners (here interpreters) are able to plan and even start their production of Discourse 2. Then Roderick Jones compares anticipation to intuition (Jones, 1998: 36), which is not the best comparison in the author's opinion. Anticipation is an on-going process of perception which aims at establishing the interpreter's position in the communicative context. In every act of communication, the participants try to grasp the logic of their interlocutor to be able to follow the flow of conversation. To do this, it is obvious they have to anticipate the eventual reaction of the interlocutor, the flow of thoughts and possible turns in the conversational strategy. Mostly it is an unconscious process, and that is why it is so difficult to do practical research on this topic. In addition to the above two, Sergio Viaggio (UN staff interpreter) describes anticipation as a typical top-down strategy, which means building up the context as the first step and then making assumptions about the linguistic content of the source text.

The second type is the specific research in some aspects of anticipation. Some works are

dedicated to the anticipation of so-called pat phrases. Those researchers think it is possible to anticipate some components of idiomatic speech segments, which are petrified and show almost no variation. When the first element of such a segment occurs, it is probable or even certain that the next one will follow. Accordingly, the interpreter makes this assumption and waits for this element to come. Roderick Jones has given the relevant examples, which are typical formulations that occur frequently in international meetings (e.g. words of thanks, welcome, etc.).

Apart from the previous two kinds, anticipation is even involved by some scholars in different interpreting models. For instance, in Ghelly Chernov's famous "probability prediction machinery" in SI, G. Chernov points out that anticipation or prediction is "the most essential psycholinguistic factor explaining the phenomenon of simultaneity in simultaneous interpreting." (Chernov, 2002: 101) Besides, According to Jean-Francois Le Ny, there are some "pre-existing" schemata, and during the discourse the listener (here the interpreter) anticipates the words to come as a function of these schemata. This might explain why grammatically incorrect sentences can be easily interpreted --the interpreter makes inferences concerning the missing information during discourse. Here anticipation is understood as a reparation strategy, used when it is necessary to make up for some unavailable data. In Daniel Gile's Effort Model for simultaneous interpretation (Gile, 1995:159-178), Gile has formulated the notion of processing capacity, which can be roughly defined as some sort of mental energy that is available only in limited supply. For each operation -- listening, comprehension and speaking -- the interpreter needs some part of his processing capacity. The more he/she anticipates the less of this energy he/she uses for the comprehension part of interpreting. Thus, anticipation turns out to be very practical and useful when the speech requires more processing capacity than the interpreter has at hand.

#### **4. Types of anticipation in simultaneous interpretation**

##### **4.1. Different classification of anticipation**

Many interpreting theorists have explicitly or implicitly classified anticipation into several kinds according to their respective criteria. Relevant classifications in the overall

research in anticipation are as follows:

-Lederer describes two types of anticipation in her famous article “Simultaneous Interpretation: Units of Meaning and Other Features”. She holds that apart from the pure, observable kind of anticipation, namely, the interpreter produces a constituent in the target language before the speaker has uttered the corresponding constituent in the source language (Lederer, 2002: 138-148), there exists another type she considers more common. The type called by Lederer as freewheeling anticipation is that the interpreter produces a constituent in the target language after the corresponding constituent has been uttered in the source language, “but so soon afterwards and at so correct a place in his own language that there is no doubt the interpreter summons it before hearing the original” (ibid, 139).

-According to the objects interpreter predicts in the process of interpreting, Roderick Jones divides anticipation into three kinds. The first one is the anticipation of the broad structure and sometimes the general thrust of a speech. This anticipation can be possible from the context of a meeting. If there is a discussion or a negotiation where delegations’ positions or arguments will become known, they will return to points they have already made, or react to points made by other participants. Such anticipation will be enhanced if the interpreter can also bring to bear other cognitive knowledge available to them. The second kind is the anticipation of speech patterns and rhetorical structures. For instance, those working from English should know that an Englishman or woman who begins his/her speech with, “This is a fantastic idea” and so on is very possible to be followed with, “but...”. The third kind is the anticipation of specific words or phrases in individual sentences. This type of anticipation is actually possible because it is simply so obvious how the sentence is going to end.

-For most authors, according to the information that interpreters use to predict what speakers intend to say, anticipation can fall into two kinds: linguistic and extra-linguistic. Besides, according to Wilss, linguistic anticipation is triggered by certain linguistic units (e.g. words or word combinations) which serve as cues. These cues are of two types--co-textual cues and extra-linguistic cues.

To conclude, the widely-accepted classification of anticipation includes linguistic anticipation and extra-linguistic anticipation.

#### **4.1.1 Linguistic anticipation**

Since simultaneous interpretation is an activity based on two different languages, linguistic rules and regulations should be taken into cautious consideration in the process of interpretation. Besides, owing to these relatively fixed linguistic rules and regulations, speeches become predictable at the level of linguistics. Gile also holds that “in every language, words follow each other not at random, but with highly differentiated probabilities” (Gile, 1995:176). For example, in all languages interpreters will identify verbs that, in context, necessarily require a particular subject or object no matter how late it may come in the speaker’s sentence, and a modal verb that calls for a particular main verb. Another feature of languages--redundancy--also strengthens the validity of linguistic anticipation. Redundancy penetrates deeply into a language and exhibits many linguistic features in grammar, syntax and other aspects of language, which is quite helpful for interpreters to do anticipation.

In Gile’s famous “Effort Model” (Ibid,168) which draws on the concept of processing capacity and its limited availability, the three basic efforts (listening and analysis effort, production effort and memory effort) are generally processing different SL speech segments. However, anticipation often results in a production effort being performed on a segment not yet heard in the SL. In this case, if the interpreter has the knowledge of such linguistic rules, he can even unconsciously increase the certainty in the following segment, which can reduce the processing capacity requirements in identifying incoming segment. Hence linguistic anticipation plays a very significant role in the process of reception, which is just similar to reading. While reading, readers depend on the relevant linguistic rules to identify words, which is called by Gile as “transitional probabilities”. In interpretation, the more numerous and precise such transitional probabilities are, and the better they are known to interpreters, the less processing capacity is required for speech comprehension.

As it has been mentioned in the previous chapter, linguistic anticipation, according to Wilss, is triggered by two types of linguistic cues (Wilss, 1978: 343-352). One is co-textual

(intralingual) cues, as in example (1), excerpted from “Renewal amid Transition--Annual Report on the Work of the Organization” by the Secretary-General of the United Nations, and the simultaneous interpretation is done by an interpreter of the United Nations.

(1)Speaker:

I consider it to be a core mission of

Interpreter:

我认为,

Speaker:

the United Nations to

Interpreter:

联合国的一项核心任务就是

Speaker:

help facilitate their successful transitions.

Interpreter:

帮助这些国家实现成功转折。

In example (1), the word group “I consider it to be” serves as a cue for what follows, and implies the syntax pattern as well as the semantic meaning of the coming segments.

The other kind of cues is extra-linguistic, including parts of idiomatic expressions, verb-complement collocations, and standard phrases. Example (2) can act as good evidence to this point.

(2)Speaker:

On behalf of Mrs. Nixon

Interpreter:

我谨代表我夫人

Speaker:

and all of the members of our Official Party,

Interpreter:

和我们代表团的全体成员,

Speaker:

I want to express my deep appreciation for the boundless and gracious hospitality

Interpreter:

对你们给予的盛情款待，

Speaker:

which you have extended to us.

Interpreter:

表示深切的感谢。

The segment in the previous example is actually a standard utterance, frequently used as a toast-opening gambit. Many experienced interpreters have already stored many fixed expressions in their minds. When hearing “on behalf of”, the interpreter can anticipate the following segments.

#### **4.1.2. Extra-linguistic anticipation**

Compared with linguistic anticipation, extra-linguistic anticipation seems to play a much more important role in SI. With exhaustive analysis of abundant on-the-spot SI record materials, F. Van Besien concludes that extra-linguistic information seems to play the most important part in the interpreter’s hypotheses of the speakers’ utterances, while purely linguistic knowledge plays only a minor part (Besien, 1992: 2).

Extra-linguistic anticipation depends on extra-linguistic information, which includes general and situational knowledge, information obtained in the course of interpretation and so on. Gile also agrees that in addition to linguistic anticipation which is made possible by good knowledge of the source language, good knowledge of the conference situation, of the subject, and of the speaker makes it possible to anticipate ideas that are expressed in speeches (Gile, 1995:178). Actually, anticipation in SI is not the exact and certain prediction of the speaker’s words, because to know the speaker’s reacting or speaking in a particular way in a particular context or situation is plausible.

That is why the preparation for conference interpreting is so important and essential. In the stage of advance preparation, interpreters unanimously require conference organizers to

provide them with a full set of documents including the conference program, list of participants, background information about the conference, and most importantly, documents on the content of the conference. Then, in briefings organized for the interpreters, with the participation of the organizers of the conference and experts in the field, general information is given to the interpreters, who can ask specific questions, generally on concepts and terminology. And even by the last minutes before the conference, interpreters can acquire much knowledge because some information is available only at that time. With all these preparatory work, interpreters increase their power of anticipation and decrease their Listening and Analysis Effort capacity requirements (Ibid. 220).

As SI involves a complex series of cognitive activities, anticipation, especially sense expectation (Lederer, 140) provides a favorable approach to the comprehension in interpreting. In interpreting, if the syntactic structures of two languages are wide apart and literal translation less frequent, sense expectation is much more easily adopted. Lederer's sense expectation is in some degree similar to the information obtained in the course of interpreting. Interpreters comprehend the speaker's utterance, and this comprehension forms sense in interpreter's black box, which can help interpreters to anticipate accurately in the following interpreting.

G. Chernov describes the process of anticipation as two directions: a top down direction and a bottom up direction. In his "Probability Prediction Machinery" (Chernov, 100), Chernov classified the probability prediction into four tiers: (a) Sound patterns (syllables encoding phonemes, intonation, stress, and other prosodic features); (b) Grammatical (syntactical) and categorical semantic features; (c) Semantic tier per se; (d) Sense tier per se. A close co-operation between the various levels starts at the moment, or even before, the speaker is given the floor. If the speaker is known to the interpreter, the interpreter starts immediately to work out a probability prognosis for the semantic structure and sense of the incoming message. This is possible due to the interpreter's previous knowledge about other factors in the interpreting situation. This process is mainly extra-linguistic anticipation which can be described as a top-down prognosis made at the highest tier--sense tier. The next step in

the prognosis is performed at the acoustic/prosodic (a)-tier, from the bottom and upwards, immediately involving the syntactic and semantic tiers (b) and (c). On the contrary, if the speaker is unknown to the interpreter, and the situation in general is unfamiliar, probability prediction begins in the bottom-to-top direction. As the message develops, which normally happens during the first few sentences, a probability prognosis for the whole message is starting to take shape in the mind of the interpreter, with the interaction of all the levels described. If this interaction does not take place, interpretation errors and omissions appear. As the meaning and semantic structure of the message develop, the forecast of semantic and even purely linguistic features of the text narrows down at times to certainty. Therefore, it is obvious that in this process linguistic anticipation plays the dominant role.

Actually, anticipation should be explained as the result of the combination of a top down strategy and a bottom up strategy. The former can help the interpreter to hypothesize on the content of the speaker's utterance before it has been finished, while the latter can serve as a control. Anticipation can be a correct translation of the source constituent, but it can also be an approximation. If it is an approximation, the bottom up strategy can function as a feedback and lead to a repair of the approximation (Kohn, 214). Similarly, the co-operation of linguistic anticipation and extra-linguistic anticipation guarantees the smooth ongoing of interpretation.

## **5. Features of anticipation in simultaneous interpretation**

### **5.1. Time limitation**

Since simultaneous interpretation requires interpreters to reformulate the ideas of the speaker in another language with almost the same speed as the speaker's, time is one of the crucial factors which should be taken into consideration. Lederer carried out particular analysis on the on-the-spot SI records which sum up to 63 minutes, and pointed out that the time lag between interpreters and speakers' utterances varied from 2 seconds to 11 seconds (Lederer, 1984:136-162). Anticipation, no matter which form it takes--either the interpreter actually says a word before the speaker has uttered the corresponding word, or more

commonly, he puts in a word at the correct place in his sentence which, if compared in time, is uttered after the original, but so soon afterwards and at so correct a place in his own language that there is no doubt the interpreter summoned it before hearing the original--it always relates closely to time.

As it is mentioned in the previous part of this chapter, anticipation can be classified into linguistic and extra-linguistic types, which actually determines that anticipation is time-restrained. When it is linguistic type, interpreters produce the rendering depending on the comparatively fixed linguistic rules and their previous knowledge of idiomatic expressions, collocations and standard phrases. And in the linguistic anticipation, the part to be predicted should not be too far away because the linguistic rules and fixed expression decide that it is just near to the uttered words. For example, in the speech by British Prime Minister Mrs. Margaret Thatcher in China, Mrs. Thatcher talked about the Sino-British links in various aspects, which she made comparisons to illustrate. In the simultaneous interpretation for her sentence "Chinese exports to Britain have increased 14% more than that of the last year and we should like to ..." the interpreter made it as follow: "中国对英国的出口较之上一年增长了 14%，我们希望...". Since Mrs. Thatcher had made comparison previously in other fields, on hearing the word "more", the interpreter immediately realized that Mrs. Thatcher would compare it with that of last year, and also, "more" acted as the reminder of comparative degree for the interpreter, for English has the fixed expression "...more than...". The latter part of the expression usually appears very soon after the former one. Therefore, such structural anticipation is constrained by time.

Moreover, owing to the psychological instinct of human beings, in the receptive type of speech activity (including listening and reading), people tend to make predictions according to what they have obtained through listening or reading, and they are so eager to find evidence to prove what they have predicted is basically right that they will feel anxious or frustrated if such evidence appears too late. That is to say, anticipation is possible when it can be confirmed by the very nearby following linguistic constituents. From this perspective, we can also conclude that anticipation is influenced by time.

Finally, G. Daniel's Effort Model also provides an explanation for this feature of anticipation. Daniel holds that simultaneous interpretation can be modeled as a process consisting of the three efforts, namely the listening and analysis effort L, the short term memory effort M and the speech production effort P, plus a coordination effort C. Thus he summarizes the model as the famous formula:

$$SL = L + P + M + C \text{ (Gile, 1995:169-174)}$$

As D. Gerver has pointed out, the interpreter's task is a complex human information process involving the perception, storage, retrieval, transformation and transmission of verbal information (Gerver, 1975: 75-76). In SI, interpreters make anticipation on the base of their preexisting knowledge, what they have heard in the process of SI, short term memory and so on. They will deploy all that they have obtained and known to make accurate prediction, hence anticipation is obviously effort-consuming. As interpreters' whole effort capacity is fixed, they will save the three efforts for anticipation. However, if anticipation lasts too long, i.e. the prediction cannot be confirmed until very late in the ongoing discourse, the balance of the distribution of efforts will be broken and SI cannot be carried on smoothly. In order to guarantee the smooth ongoing of SI, interpreters may give up anticipation which demands for plenty of time. Therefore, anticipation is deeply influenced by time.

## **5.2. Frequency**

Many handbooks for SI provide many tips and precautions concerning the moment to begin speaking, the distance to maintain from the speaker and the need to avoid launching into sentences one cannot finish; however, it is clear that the interpreter must often begin a sentence without knowing exactly where that sentence is going. To alleviate this difficulty the simultaneous interpreter must learn to adopt anticipation frequently.

As one of the major strategies adopted in SI, anticipation relies on linguistic knowledge and extra-linguistic information which either exists before-handed in interpreters' mind or appears in the process of interpretation. Thus interpreters can predict from time to time with the reminding of the frequently appearing information.

That anticipation occurs frequently in SI is not only proved to be theoretically correct, but also given eloquent proof with convincing data. Fred Van Besien carried out a detailed analysis related to anticipation. He made use of the existing material consisting of German-French simultaneous interpretation published by Lederer, and divided the material in measures of three seconds. After careful investigation and examination, he found in Lederer's material the total number of anticipations was 78, on a corpus of two interpreters, and the time was approximately 55 minutes for each. That is to say, each of the two interpreters anticipated on average once every 85 seconds, and the frequency was much higher than Lederer had expected (Besien, 1-7).

Besides, an exploration in the frequency of anticipation is also to be carried out in the following parts of this paper to show that anticipation is an important and frequent strategy in SI.

### **5.3. Language specific**

Since anticipation in SI is closely related to specific linguistics and interpreters' extra-linguistic knowledge, it is considered as a language-specific phenomenon.

According to the *théorie du sens* which prevailed in the 1970s, interpretation is language-independent, and meaning or "sense" is the essence of any discourses with languages as merely different forms of manifestation (Seleskovitch, 1984: 273-283). Its proponents believe that competent interpreters understand any language in exactly the same way as other listeners in their respective mother tongues, and interpreters produce the interpretation in TL spontaneously and effortlessly (Gile, 1985). Since they think interpretation is language-free, let alone such strategies as anticipation adopted in the process of interpretation. The author personally thinks that the *théorie du sens* is more applicable to consecutive interpretation (CI), because in CI the interpreter waits some time for the speaker to finish a part of his speech which usually contains comparatively complete meanings. In this case, the interpreter can ignore the linguistic form of the utterance and grasp its meaning.

However, in SI, syntactic differences between SL and TL do make a difference. In this case, interpreters cannot lag too far behind the speaker, thus they have no access to a rather

complete meaning of the speaker's utterance. Hence anticipation becomes very necessary and effective. And linguistic differences should be necessarily taken into account when an interpreter adopts anticipation. For example, German is characterized by the embedding of the complement phrase between two elements of the verb phrase. When interpreting German into English or French there is the problem of the verb which is needed early in the target language but produced late in the source language. In this occasion, verb anticipation is much more frequent and essential than in the parallel problems when interpreting Chinese into English.

The issue of language-specificity can also be explained by the Effort Model. The Effort Model suggests that syntactic differences which force interpreters to wait longer before starting to formulate their TL speech tend to increase the load on the memory effort. Gile elaborates on this point in his article "Conference Interpreting as a Cognitive Management Problem", in which he sets an example to show that names composed of several words may require a reordering of their components in the TL (Gile, 2002:167). For instance, "Association Internationale des Interprètes de Conference" becomes "International Association of Conference Interpreters". If there is no automated response to the name as an entity, this will increase the memory effort requirements in two ways. First, because of the high information density of such names, depending on the specific language pair, the interpreter may have to wait until they have unfolded completely before starting to translate, with no possibility of unloading memory gradually. Second, the reordering process requires repeated scanning and comparison of the SL name and its gradually developing TL translation, as opposed to direct word-to-word or meaning-to-word reformulation. This slows down the process even further and therefore increases the load on memory.

Moreover, the intrinsic requirements of specific languages in terms of the listening effort and /or in terms of the production effort also display differences. Languages with many short words and homophones and few grammatical indicators, such as Chinese, could be more vulnerable in the listening effort because of the lack of redundancy. Redundancy is one of the crucial factors for anticipation, especially linguistic anticipation. As Professor Gui Cankun

points out that Chinese is tone language while English is intonation language (Li, 1996: 84-85). Tones in Chinese are significant as they can differentiate and even change the meaning of characters. Hence Chinese is associated with the high proportion of homophones in its vocabulary. The high proportion of homophones reduces the redundancy of speech signals, thus potentially increases the vulnerability to processing capacity mismanagement and the processing capacity requirements for comprehension. Chinese words read aloud to Chinese listeners often remind them of several different semantic meanings. For example, the sound “li” in Chinese may remind the audience of at least the following meanings: (1) courtesy, manner as in “li mao” (politeness); (2) reason, as in “li you” (reason); (3) strength, as in “li liang”... such homophones are numerous in Chinese, which increases the listening and comprehension processing capacity requirements.

Conversely, languages with a limited vocabulary and a rather rigid grammar that imposes strict conditions on the order of elements in the sentence as well as grammatical agreement conditions could be associated with higher production effort requirements. In this case, anticipation is much easier, because the rigid grammar usually requires linguistic redundancy which can make anticipation more accessible.

To sum up, from either theoretical or empirical perspective, it is concluded that anticipation in SI is closely related to specific languages.

## **6. Conclusion**

Anticipation is a crucial element in a successful simultaneous interpretation, as it is an activity in interpreters’ “black box”, attention to anticipation has been inadequate. This paper, based on previous scholars’ research, puts forward a clear picture of the definition, classification and features of anticipation in simultaneous interpretation. It is hoped that this paper can pave the way for further and elaborative discussion of interpretation in simultaneous interpretation.

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