ATILIM UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION MASTER'S PROGRAMME

TRANSLATIONAL ASPECTS OF DIPLOMATIC LANGUAGE

Master's Thesis

Inam AL-AZZAWI

Ankara – 2019

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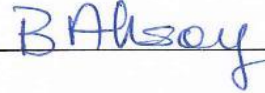
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ACCEPTION AND APPROVAL

This is to certify that this thesis titled "Translational Aspects of Diplomatic Language" and prepared by Inam AL-AZZAWI meets with the committee's approval unanimously as Master's Thesis in the field Translation and Interpretation following the successful defense of the thesis conducted in June 17, 2019.

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ETHICS DECLARATION

I hereby declare that;

- I prepared this thesis in accordance with Atilim University Graduate School of Social Sciences Thesis Writing Directive,

- I prepared this thesis within the framework of academic and ethics rules,

- I presented all information, documents, evaluations and findings in accordance with scientific ethical and moral principles,

- I cited all sources to which I made reference in my thesis,

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17/6/2019

Inam AL-AZZAWI

ÖZET

AL-AZZAWI, Inam. Diplomatik Dilin Çevirisel Bakış Açıları Yüksek Lisans Tezi, ANKARA, 2019.

Küreselleşmenin ortaya çıkışıyla birlikte ülkeler arasında uluslararası ve diplomatik ilişkiler gelişmiştir ve bu durum yeni kelimeler, kavramlar ve diplomatik terminolojinin oluşturulmasına neden olmuştur.

Bu tezin amacı, yazılı ve sözlü ve sözsüz ve diplomatik dil türlerini incelemek ve analiz etmek ve diplomatik çeviri türlerine ışık tutmaktır. Buna ek olarak, tez, diplomatik metinleri ve uluslararası konferanslarda, organizasyonlarda vb. Yerlerde diplomatik konuşmaları çevirirken çevirmenin rolünü araştırmaktadır. Ayrıca, çeviri sırasında karşılaşılan zorluklar ele alır ve bu sorunlara uygun çözümler de bu tezin konusunu oluşturmaktader.

Bu tezin temel amacı, diplomatik dilin çevirisinde karşılaşılan zorlukları, özellikle de anlam belirsizliğini göstermektedir. Diplomatik metinlerdeki anlam belirsizliğini çeşitleri kelime, cümle parçası ve cümle düzeyinde incelenmiştir. Anlam belirsizliğinin, diplomatik metinlerde kullanıldığı, taraflar arasındaki anlaşmaların ve antlaşmaların ülkelerinin çıkarlarına hizmet etmek için kasıtlı olarak yer aldığı tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Diplomasi, Uluslararası İlişkiler, Çeviri, Diplomatik Çevirmen, Diplomatik Dil, Diplomatik Dildeki Anlam Belirsizliği.

ABSTRACT

AL-AZZAWI, Inam. Translational Aspects of Diplomatic Language. M.A. Thesis, Ankara, 2019.

With the emergence of globalization, international and diplomatic relations have developed among countries and led to the creation of new words, concepts and diplomatic terminology.

The purpose of this thesis is to study and analyze the types of written, oral and nonverbal diplomatic language and to shed light on the types of diplomatic translation/interpretation. In addition to that, the thesis investigates the role of translator/interpreter when translating diplomatic texts and interpreting diplomatic speeches in international conferences, organizations, etc. It also tackles the difficulties faced during translation/interpretation and how to overcome these problems and find appropriate solutions for them.

The main purpose of this thesis is to study the challenges faced upon translation/interpretation of diplomatic language, especially ambiguity. The types of ambiguity in diplomatic texts have been analyzed at the levels of word, phrase and sentence. It has been found that the ambiguity used in the diplomatic texts, treaties and agreements between parties is deliberate, serving the interests of their countries.

Key Words: Diplomacy, International Relations, Translation/Interpretation, Diplomatic Translator/Interpreter, Diplomatic Language, Ambiguity in Diplomatic Language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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III: CHALLENGES IN THE TRANSLATION/INTERPRETATION OF DIPLOMATIC LANGUAGE

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

IR: International Relations

UNESCO: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization is a specialized agency of the United Nations based in Paris.

SL: Source Language

TL: Target Language

UN: United Nations

EU: European Union

WTO: World Trade Organization

TT: Target Text

ST: Source Text

MT: Machine Translation

HT: Human Translation

CI: Consecutive Interpreting

SI: Simultaneous Interpreting

LI: Liaison Interpreting

WI: Whispered Interpreting

LIST OF FIGURES

I: INTRODUCTION

1.1.   Diplomacy as a Means of International Relations

The world today needs a dialogue language, exchange of views and understanding rather than force and violence. So, the best means to perform this is the diplomatic instrument. What the world is witnessing today, such as disturbances and wars throughout the world, obliges countries to make diplomacy the only method to solve its troubles.

Diplomacy of international relations often occurs through the exercise of negotiations and discussions among countries, in addition to talks, contacts, events, etc., which occur at the level of the world system. The diplomats and representatives meet and speak personally in public or in private meetings, or through electronic communications. These meetings are held in the head's country or international organizations such as the European Union, the United Nations, and other organizations. One of the most important elements of diplomacy and international relations is working together to solve problems. It is also used to solve differences among leaders on foreign and trade policies and others rather than resorting to the use of violence to settle the conflicts among them.

International diplomacy was and still an essential part of international relations. For centuries, it was a crucial element in international relations. Hocking, Melissen, Riordan, and Sharp (2013) point out that "the practice of [..] diplomacy has assumed centre stage" (p. 15), because of its importance at the level of the global system. In addition, there are many studies, writings and discussions on the idea of international diplomacy and diplomatic efforts between actors over the centuries.

Amacker (2011) states that diplomacy as a means of international relations is 1) an instrument for the implementation of the foreign policy of a state. 2) a means for decision-makers to give a justification for their decisions and persuade others in the

framework of the international interaction movement. 3) stimulate attention of the world's media because of its role in the management of international affairs. 4) a means to promote peaceful, friendly and cooperative relations among states. 5) an instrument for diplomats, who practice negotiation and representing their country, they use it to bring together views and reconciliation of their country with other countries. 6) states use it after its independence and achievement of national sovereignty for self-assertion in the international community where diplomacy is practised in all of its appearances, such as diplomatic representation, media, negotiation and treaty making. 7) a means of achieving peace in the interaction movement of international community. For this reason, diplomacy enters the ideal school (moral-legal), which encourages building a world free of conflicts.

Therefore, diplomacy is used in every region of the world to maintain the international system, and without that many states will not be able to carry out successful negotiations.

This thesis will try to find answers to the research questions below:

- What are the types of diplomatic language and how do we use and analyze them in the diplomatic sphere?
- What is the role of translator/interpreter when translating diplomatic texts and interpreting diplomatic speeches in international conferences, organizations, etc.?
- What are the types of translation/interpretation that exist in the diplomatic sphere and why simultaneous interpreting is the most difficult and most widely used in the diplomatic sphere?
- What are the difficulties faced by the translators/interpreters during their translating of the texts and their interpretation of speeches that contain ambiguity and how do they overcome this problem?
- What are the types of ambiguity faced by translator/interpreter when translating/ interpreting of the diplomatic language?

By answering the above questions, the study will draw some conclusions about the nature of the diplomatic language and pave the way for an accurate translation/ interpretation of diplomatic language in a scientific and satisfactory manner in this field which incidentally is under-researched.

1.2. Methodology

This study illustrates the most important challenges facing diplomatic translation\interpretation that is ambiguity. In order to translate/interpret diplomatic ambiguity correctly, ambiguity has been divided into two types: linguistic and non-linguistic. In addition, ambiguity is classified according to the characteristics of intention: Intentional ambiguity and unintentional ambiguity

This study discussed six types of linguistic ambiguity: lexical ambiguity, syntactic ambiguity, cross-textual ambiguity, pragmatic ambiguity, semantic ambiguity, cross-cultural ambiguity. So, the method used in this study is to analyze these types at the levels of word, phrase and sentence because ambiguity gives room for subsequent interpretation i.e. it refers to two or more meanings and thus allows both parties to translate\interpret the convention, treaty, etc., to serve their own interests.

1.3. Background to International Relations (IR) and Their Development

International relations (IR) are the actual relations among states. Such a concept has gained a great significance through the advancement of civilization and its development. It became an essential element for the survival and continuity of states as independent entities.

The term IR emerged and was used for the first time in the later 18th century by Jeremy Bentham (1748—1832), who was a jurist, social reformer, political radical, and English philosopher (Duignan and Plamenatz, 2019; Rao, 2018, p. 10552). In addition,

the term IR is used interchangeably with the term international politics. This term is no longer limited to relations among states, but also depends on other fields such as history, law, economics, geography, philosophy, and cultural studies. IR involves other fields such as human rights and nationalism, financial terrorism, globalization and its impact on societies (Ghosh, 2016, p. 2). It was also used in UNESCO terminology in 1998 for ranking research papers and doctoral theses (Rao, 2018, p. 10552). Therefore, it is hard to find a precise definition of IR because of its dynamic nature. It can be defined in several ways. Firstly, as a field of activity and secondly, as an academic discipline.

When we look at IR as an activity field, we see that Goldstein and Pevehouse (2014, p. 3) define IR as an activity which involves the relations among or between the governments in the world, but these relations cannot be explained or comprehended in isolation. They are intimately linked to other actors (such as international organizations, individuals, and multinational corporations); with other processes and social structures (including culture, domestic politics and economics). Whilst Mathisen (1959) defines it as "all kinds of relations traversing state boundaries, no matter whether they are of an economic, legal, political, or any other character, whether they be private or official" (p. 1). But Palmer and Perkins (1957) define it as "[...] the total relations between peoples and groups in the world community" (p. xiv).

When we look at IR as an academic discipline, we see that Ghosh (2016, p. 1) explains IR as a branch of political science, it is a study of global issues and foreign affairs among nations, including multinational corporations (MNCs), inter-governmental organizations (IGOs), and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). It is an academic discipline, its task is to analyze and formulate the foreign policies of other countries.

Frederick S. Dunn (1948) presented a comprehensive definition of IR that it "be looked upon as the actual relations that take place across national boundaries, or as the body of knowledge which we have of those relations at any given time." (as cited in Ghosh, 2016, p. 4).

But Lawson defines IR in two ways, one from a narrow point of view, which refers to "the study of relations between states" and defines it from a broad point of view, which refers to "interactions between state-based actors across state boundaries" (as cited in Rao, 2018, p. 10552).

Since IR is not limited to a specific definition, it is possible to conclude that IR has a long history in the life of humanity. It can be defined as a kind of activity, i.e. a kind of relationship among countries in the world. This relationship has emerged because human beings by their nature cannot live in isolation. So, these states strengthened their relations with other states. Sometimes such relations were beset by problems, wars and, at other times, are characterized by peace and trade, economic and diplomatic treaties. It was not just for that, but today IR can be defined as a branch of the discipline taught in all countries of the world and has an important place among the branches of knowledge. For it is characterized by its specific subject matters, theories, methods, analytical methods and concepts to prove that it has already become a distinct discipline. In addition, IR cannot be restricted to presidents, diplomats and ministers, but it can involve all the people who live in this world.

As explained earlier, IR at the beginning of human history was limited to a field of activity, but it developed over time and became an academic discipline that gained global recognition.

The source of IR dates back to political philosophers such as Thucydides, a Greek historian and thinker who wrote the History of the Peloponnesian War, which will be explained later in this study.

IR did not become an academic discipline until the end of World War I that left 20 million people dead. Hence, to balance the world order, there was an urgent need to make IR, in itself, an academic discipline, after being a branch of Law, History, Political Sciences, Philosophy and other relevant subjects (Ghosh, 2016, p. 4).

Olson (1972) says IR is a branch of diplomatic history and cannot be distinguished from diplomatic history. In the aftermath of World War I, IR began to form as a separate discipline. The first who established the chair of International Politics at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, UK, in 1919 was Woodrow Wilson, who was an academic, American statesman and served as the 28th President of the U.S.A, in order to ensure its independence after the end of World War II (as cited in Koliopoulos, 2010, p. 1).

IR passed many periods of change and development as an activity field as explained below:

In ancient Greece, city-states are the best example of relations among each other. Relations among city-states were often turbulent and in a constant war. But ancient Greece has formed alliances to eliminate external threats for keeping its security. At the time of the Olympics, Greece called for all the city-states to hold a truce until the games are over. But IR has not been strong enough to end the fighting among or between them to keep Greece's security and hold peace for a long time because rulers did not try to avoid conflicts in future (Wisidagama, 2014, p. 2).

Despite many wars and differences, Athens and Sparta joined alliances to fight the Persians between 449-499 BC, so that they could survive because they could not live independently and fight the other city-states without alliances and good relations. As soon as the Persian threat to Greece ended, the alliance collapsed (Wisidagama, 2014, p. 3). This is evidence of bad IR between or among states and their lack of agreement.

Peloponnesian War is another example of the development of IR.

Following the Greek-Persian War, the power of Athens' fleet has increased in the Mediterranean, sparking Sparta's fear, therefore, it used the pre-emptive strike strategy.

Peloponnesian War happened between 404-431 BC. It took place between Athens and Sparta, two cities in ancient Greece, each one led an alliance of states to

support them. The Greek historian Thucydides wrote about it as the most important war at that time. The alliances between Athens and its allies, Sparta and its allies, formed great importance in IR at the time. The war ended with a loss of Athens and making it an ally of Sparta rather than ending its existence (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2018). This explains that IR between states and their alliances was for survival and growth.

The Treaty of Westphalia is another example for the history of IR.

The Peace of Westphalia was signed in 1648 and it was a starting point for many scholars who traced the history of IR. This treaty helped to develop the modern state system and the IR. It also ended the thirty-years war in Europe's history (Wisidagama, 2014, p. 4).

The war began in 1618 when Emperor Ferdinand II imposed Roman Catholicism on the Protestants in Bohemia. Many European countries have participated in the war and have led to the destruction and collapse of the states. The situation of the conflicting governments worsened and called for an end of the war. So, 179 diplomats representing 194 countries gathered to discuss peace. This Treaty helped to create a world order and allowed each State to keep its religion without any outside intervention (Wisidagama, 2014, pp. 4-5). Westphalia Treaty can be regarded as a triumph of IR.

With the emergence of nation state-system, a new phase of IR which was laid by the Treaty of Westphalia for the development of the nation-state system began. The nation-states are independent states with specific borders whose most of citizens are united in a common language, customs and religion. National states worked to strengthen their relations with each other for their own interests, but these interests may conflict and lead to wars. The nation-states did not continue and the world order which was founded by the Treaty of Westphalia collapsed in 1914 with the beginning of World War I (Wisidagama, 2014, p. 65).

1.4.   The Development of International Relations as an Academic Field

IR passed many stages of change and development. Kenneth Thompson (1952), has outlined the development of IR in the fifties as an academic discipline in the four stages below:

-        The first stage (the diplomatic history) which extends to the end of World War I

During this period, there has not been essential development of IR because it was dominated by diplomatic historians who were interested in history more than in politics and described past events rather than the present events. The first two presidents of the international politics chair were prominent historians - Sir Alfred Zimmern and C.K Webster.

-        The second stage (current events approach) which began after the end of World War I

The approach of the study was about current events, in order to understand the conflicts between states. This approach was also incomplete and inadequate because it lacked an integral vision of IR because it gave importance to the present without reference to the past.

-        The third stage (legal institutional) which was during the interwar[1] years and even after

The prevailing study adopted a moralistic, legalistic and reformism approach and establishment of intact world order to abandon the wars. The presidents like Wilson and scholars like Potter, Shot Well, Fenwick, etc. had great confidence in the founding of the League of Nations. Much hope has been given to the League of Nation as well as to international law and international organizations.

-        The fourth stage (theoretical approach) after World War II

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[1] The period between 1918-1939 (i.e. between the end of World War I and the beginning of World War II

People's faith in the usefulness of international organizations and law as a tool of peace has been shaken as a result of their coexistence of wars and its devastation. The focus shifted to carry out scientific analysis of the development of IR; and studies on the causes of war and how to avoid it. The most important forces and influences that shaped the behaviour of countries were the determinants of foreign policy, techniques of foreign relations management, methods of resolving international conflicts and crisis management.

The theoretical approach to international behaviour continued to develop. So, its study became more systematic and continued until the 21st century by adding concepts, theories and new methods. For this reason, international policies have become a complex system that requires systematic and continuous study. All these helped IR to gain recognition as an independent discipline (Thompson, 1952).

1.5.   Background to Diplomacy

The word diplomacy was used in the late 18th century (Constantinou, 1996, p. 77). The term "*Diplomacy*" is derived from the ancient Greek "*diploma*" the first part '*diplo*' meaning to '*fold in two*' and the suffix - '*ma*' meaning "an object". The folded document was a major significance and considered a travel permit for its holder (Sharp, 1999, p. 37). So, "In the days of the Roman Empire all passports, [passed] along imperial roads and way-bills were stamped on double metal plates, folded and sewn together in a particular manner." (Callus and Borg, 2017, p. 254).

Diplomacy is a word often used with various meanings. Therefore, the authors differ in the definition of diplomacy. Berridge and James (2003) define it as "The conduct of relations between sovereign states through the medium of officials based at home or abroad, the latter being either members of their state's diplomatic service or temporary diplomats" (pp. 69-70), whilst Nicolson (1939) points out in his book *Diplomacy* that the Oxford English Dictionary's definition of Diplomacy is precise and

broad at the same time which writes as: "the management of international relations by means of negotiations; the method by which these relations are adjusted and managed by ambassadors and envoys" (p. 15).

Some authors view diplomacy as a science and others view it as an art. While other authors viewed it as being both. But it is certainly an art rather than a science because science must be accompanied by talents as insightfulness, tactfulness, intelligence, etc., which should be part of the character of the diplomat in order to perform the task successfully.

K.M. Panikar views it is "the art of forwarding one's interests in relation to other countries" (as cited in Okoth, 2015, p. 8); Jaber (2001, p. 53) views it as the art of making others convince and understand ideas in your own way or at least to have ideas about theirs. It is a blending of science and logic to persuade others, whilst Pehar (2001a, p. 126) views it as an art that requires a creative person who can exceed established and unified formulas of thought including historical thoughts and offering a compromise to make ambiguous decisions about conflicts.

For Harr (2015, p. 13), diplomacy is the science and art of representation and negotiation. It is a science because it presupposes that the practitioner must have full cognizance of the existing international political affairs between states, in addition to the legal framework of these relations, the customs of the states and rules of treaties of which the state is part. It is an art because it involves the management of international affairs which includes precise observation and the ability to direct, persuade and follow the events and circumstances.

Finally, diplomacy is a profession because the diplomats who practice it spend their full activity in the same way as the politicians practise their activity. So, Alfred Denning, a famous English lawyer and judge, describes diplomats who are working in the diplomatic corps "when a diplomat says yes, he means perhaps. When he says perhaps, he means no. When he says no, he is not a diplomat".

Diplomacy has passed through many developments of historical stages which are briefly as follows:

1)   In the cuneiform civilizations of Mesopotamia, the first diplomatic document is a copy of a letter engraved on a cuneiform tablet sent about 2500 BC from Ebla's Kingdom to Amazi's Kingdom about 600 miles away (Roberts, 2016, p. 6).

2)   In ancient Greek, the Greek city-states were continually at war. Therefore, the practice of diplomacy was necessary among them, but the diplomacy at that time was different from our present time. There were individuals occupying the post of an envoy, and the function of the envoy was of a very limited nature. In the first place, they are used to help the kings to communicate in order to allow them to collect the bodies of the soldiers who died and perform traditional funeral rites in honour of the loss of important persons in battle (Blitz, 2014, p. 4).

The function of the diplomat in our present time is similar to a Greek proxenos at that time. A proxenos was an influential person who enjoyed friendly relations with all sides. Although he did not receive any diplomatic training, his credibility largely relied on his own oratory skill, which included language and tact to convey the message from his king to the kings of other countries (Blitz, 2014, p. 4).

3)   Rome, which was a republic but turned into an empire when Julius Caesar was appointed and became the first monarch for it. At that time, the Romans favoured organization to negotiation and tried to force universal respect for their legal system. They also had enormous military capabilities and expertise invested heavily, but this does not indicate that they did not use diplomacy at all. They used diplomacy for legal and commercial purposes (Roberts, 2016, p. 8).

When Rome was a republic, the Senate was merely a decision-making body, but when it became an empire, the Senate was changed to an advisory body. Legatus, who was considered a diplomatic representative, was appointed by the Senate and they had

some discretionary powers such as reporting to the Senate on the actions that took place (Ghosh, n.d., p. 3).

4)   On the other hand, the Byzantine Empire inherited a weak military power after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire and was surrounded by many neighbours. In addition, it had no dominant influence in the region, but maintained their relations with their neighbours through other ways except imposing force and threat. After that, the Byzantine Empire institutionalized diplomacy. The Byzantine Empire had several means to establish successful diplomatic relations including: Firstly, the awe and the sublime, its goal is to impress the envoys who are coming from neighbouring countries with a display of prosperity, absolute superiority, wealth. Secondly, offer precious gifts because it has enough wealth. Thirdly, the use of matrimonial alliances. Fourthly, the policy of dividing neighbours and inciting them against each other. These diplomatic means contributed to the longevity of the Byzantine Empire until the collapse of Constantinople in 1453 by the Ottoman Turks (Kurizaki, 2011, pp. 12-13).

5)   Diplomacy within the Italian city-states: with the collapse of the Byzantine Empire, the Italian city-states were exposed to the threats of the Ottoman Turks on one side and the Valois dynasty (which united France) on the other. These threats forced Italian city-states to strengthen relations through diplomatic means (Kurizaki, 2011, p. 16).

Following the signing of the Treaty of Lodi, the practice of resident diplomats begun. The representatives of the city-states were concentrated in the King's Court at the capital. This practice arose out of two reasons: First, lack of trust and need to build confidence to strengthen cooperation and coordination. Second, the balance of power was very weak and relied on the intelligence collected to prepare in case any city-state abandon from the treaty (Kurizaki, 2011, p. 17).

According to Shuhei Kurizaki in chapter (3) '*A Natural History of Diplomacy'* of his book *'When Diplomacy Works'.* Ambassadors are called "fire alarms" because, in the

case of any strategic change or threat to the powers, the ambassadors act as an alarm to alert the king (Kurizaki, 2011, p. 18). This is part of the Ambassador's work at the time.

6)   Diplomacy in the (16th and 17th) centuries: during this period the political system was deeply intertwined with religion. As a result of the conflict between the authority of the Church, Martin Luther accused the Church, which enjoyed an unquestionable position within the Jurisdiction of every state, of blatant corruption. These tensions are reflected in one of the major wars of that period - the Thirty Years War, which began in 1618 and ended in 1648. All these led to the intensification and improvement of diplomatic practice. After the emergence of more sovereign countries, the European system had established permanent embassies and resident ambassadors and tried to establish a kind of diplomatic immunity in order to shun ambassadors from arbitrary treatment (Ahonen Ström and Andgren, 2006, p. 9).

In 1616 Cardinal Richelieu assumed the first Ministry of External Affairs at all to gather all foreign affairs under one separate administration in 1626 during the reign of Louis XIII (Islam, 2005, p. 60). In addition, he innovated some diplomatic practices. Firstly, concessions and counter concessions. He stressed that trading of concessions is necessary to be practiced in a secret and to keep its details because he considered that this practice is very important in diplomatic negotiations. Secondly, the continuity of diplomacy because diplomatic efforts will be more useful both in war and peace (Kurizaki, 2011, p. 23). Indeed, it is the most important practice because it has lasted for centuries to this day.

7)   The Congress of Vienna: following successive wars, European states decided to achieve peace through diplomatic means. So, the Congress of Vienna and its subsequent conferences at Aix-la-Chapelle, Troppau, Laiback and Verona were an attempt to establish the balance of power in the region. The success of all congresses lasted until 1914. Thus, it was one of the first multilateral diplomatic displays (Ghosh, n.d., p. 9).

8)   The League of Nations was established because of the need for a multilateral diplomatic organization, when leaders of nation-states realized that issues of global concern could not be solved by bilateral efforts but by multilateral means. So, it was difficult for a weak nation to negotiate with a stronger nation, but in the League of Nations, weak nations can unite together to show a stronger front (Ghosh, n.d., pp. 10-11). In the end, despite the efforts of the League of Nations, it was unable to stop World War II.

9)   Cold War diplomacy: the appearance of nuclear weapons after World War II was the reason for the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the United States. The factors driving of the Cold War were mistrust and mutual suspicion between the parties. So, diplomacy was used extensively to ease tension and prevent it from escalating.

Because of the successive crises in the Cold War, several kinds of diplomacy have emerged. Firstly, the concept of nuclear diplomacy predominated throughout the world from 1945 until the demise of the Soviet Union in 1991. Secondly, crisis diplomacy was used as an emergent form of wartime diplomacy such as the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962. Thirdly, the use of summit diplomacy, i.e. the leader of a nation visiting the leader of another nation. This would be followed by a series of meetings to discuss issues (Islam, 2005, p. 67).

10)   Modern diplomacy emerged after the end of the Cold War with the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. There was a shift in focus from the politics to economics, so the ambassadors had to include trade and economic relations within their work.

Recently, foreign policy is not only restricted to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, but also the heads of government participated in diplomatic activities to support what is called public diplomacy. In addition, the news media has helped remarkably to achieve transparency between the states and its people.

Interestingly, with the advent of the internet, new elements emerged in diplomacy, so e-diplomacy has entered into force (Islam, 2005, p. 68-69; Ghosh, n.d., p. 12).

In conclusion, there has been a major shift in the meaning of diplomacy over the years. The basic idea of diplomacy is that all involved parties achieve something of the deal that has been reached between the parties (whether that deal to be political or economic or even cultural).

1.6. Diplomatic Language and Types of Diplomatic Language

1.6.1. Background to diplomatic language

Diplomatic language is used by the parties concerned to conduct international negotiations or during drafting international legal acts such as treaties, conventions, etc. (Baranyai, 2011, p. 2).

Diplomatic language is an official language characterized by accuracy, clarity and logic. In addition, it is the art of conveying a message tactfully, effectively and persuasively rather than resorting to confrontation (Chen and Lei, 2017, p. 132). In Arab culture, the emphasis is not only to transfer the message, but to focus on dialogue (Arabs call diplomatic language *Adab Alhiwar* i.e. the proper protocol of dialogue), this style of language leaves a wide room for possibilities as in the dictum of the Umayyad Caliph Muawiyah Ibn Abi Sufyan, "I will never allow the hair between me and my adversary to be severed: for, should he pull I will relent and should he relent, I will pull" (Jaber, 2001, pp. 51-52).

The core of the diplomatic language is persuasion, so the diplomat and politician must convince his or her opponents or supporters of a concept or idea. At the same time, this person must master this language and has to be proficient in rhetoric.

The term *diplomatic language* can be expressed in different ways. Firstly, as mother tongue, i.e. the language used by nations, tribes and peoples, for instance, French was the dominant language in the middle of the 20th century. Secondly, as a method of expressing the special needs of the diplomatic practice, for instance, the delegate of each country spoke to each other of a specific subject in a non-diplomatic language. In addition, it refers to the style, method of expression or a particular form, for instance, *the President formulated his requirements in a strong language.* It may also refer to the verbal or nonverbal expression of ideas, for instance, "sending the gunships" in this example the language is clear and that anyone can understand it. So, the use of diplomatic language "is not a simple tool, […] or instrument of communication, but [..] the very essence of diplomatic vocation" (Nick, 2001, p. 39). For this reason, delegates, consuls, and ambassadors had to be learned and well-trained to be able to use multiple languages.

The choice of suitable words is very significant in diplomacy, because the language may contribute to communication problems if the diplomat does not give the subtle meaning to the words which he/she uses it in diplomatic language. So good communication requires a reciprocally understood language (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, p. 72). In order to overcome the problem of communication, there are many solutions, but the ideal solution is the use of one international language such as Esperanto, this solution may have features, but it is doubtful to be put into action soon because of contestant factors that control on the international political scene, and also the linguistic and cultural scene (Nick, 2001, p. 40).

There are some principles and phrases to solve the problem of communication that users must adhere to. The most prominent of these principles in diplomatic language is: firstly, courtesy: the polite and non-dramatic phrases have emerged in diplomacy. The American writer Caskie Stinnett described the personality of a diplomat who uses courtesy as "a person who can tell you to go to hell in such a way that you actually look forward to the trip" (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, p. 73). Secondly, non-redundancy: the diplomat has to think before saying anything. He says neither too much nor too little,

because every word has a precise meaning. Thirdly, constructive ambiguity: It opens the room for the argumentative things to be said in a way that the diplomatic community understands in another meaning but without the need to provoke. In addition, it is a good way to know the negotiator's tact when there are hard questions (Chen and Lei, 2017, p. 134).

The phrases used in diplomatic language should be coined in such a way that soften the statements in the diplomatic field.

1)   Avoid negative adjectives by replacing them by using (not + very + positive adjectives), for instance,

Negotiations were not very good.   (Instead of)   *Negotiations were bad.*

2)   Use of qualifiers, which are a phrase or word, especially an adjective used to reduce the certainty of the word or phrase, for instance,

We had a bit of a conflict.   (Instead of)   *We had a conflict.*

3)   Use of hedges to minimize the impact of a declaration or statement, for instance,
I wonder if maybe we should delay the meeting. (Instead of) *We should delay the meeting* (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, p. 73).

As for the style and form of a diplomatic language, it can be explained in diplomatic speeches which are characterized by a particular style and form and are divided into four parts: 1) The opening salutation. 2) Greetings and praise. 3) Summoning cooperation. 4) The conclusion (Burhanudeen, 2006, p. 40). These parts will be explained according to the following example,

"Speech by H.E. Mevlüt Çavuşoğlu, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Turkey, at the Sixth Ministerial Conference of the Istanbul Process, 4 December 2016, Amritsar/India" (Republic of Turkey Ministry of Foreign Affairs) (You can find the whole speech in appendix 1)

1)   The first part (opening salutation): In this part, the speaker begins his speech by mentioning the attendees, as follows below:

Excerpt (1)
Your Excellencies,
Distinguished Participants,

2)   The second part (greetings and praise). In this part, the speaker uses words of greetings and praise to the host country. These words or phrases can be seen as underlined.

Excerpt (2)
First, I would like to thank both India and Afghanistan for co-hosting this important event.
It is a great pleasure to address the Sixth Ministerial Conference of the Istanbul Process.

3)   The third part (summoning cooperation): In this part, diplomatic language uses words and phrases deliberately to achieve mutual goals in diplomacy. The middle part of the speech focuses on two phrases. The first phrase focuses on the mutual concerns to justify the second stage while the second phrase is the mutual cooperation of the next stage (Burhanudeen, 2006, p. 44). These words or phrases can be seen as underlined.

Excerpt (3)
Today, with this Sixth Ministerial Conference, we renew our commitment to the Process.

Excerpt (4)
We believe that there is still room to further improve the implementation of the CBMs.

Increasing the number of activities will surely help us achieve the desired results.

Excerpt (5)
We organized the courses on "the Critical Infrastructure Protection from Terrorist Attacks" and "the Radicalization, Terrorism and Universities."

<u>We</u> plan to hold the course on "the Financial Aspects of Combating Terrorism."

4)   The fourth part (conclusion): The final part of the language of the diplomatic speech contains a conclusion that focuses on the final cooperation between the parties. In this part, the phrases are positive in contrast to the previous part. These words or phrases can be seen as underlined.

Excerpt (6)

Turkey is part of this effort and <u>we will stand by Afghanistan as long as our help is needed.</u>

<u>We will also continue our bilateral assistance to Afghanistan</u> in the fields of security and development.

Excerpt (7)

<u>Istanbul Process will continue to be a central platform in building a secure and prosperous Afghanistan.</u>

It can be concluded that diplomatic language is an official language characterized by accuracy and clarity and persuasion and user of this language must be gifted and proficient in rhetoric. It also has special principles and phrases that cannot be used in ordinary language. In addition, it has a particular form and special style that cannot be found in any field only in the diplomatic field.

Historically, there was an inclination to improve a *lingua franca* of diplomacy. In the Sumerian civilization (Mesopotamia, modern Iraq), Akkadian was the recognized diplomatic language at that time, where it was the earliest language of communication and diplomatic expression from the third millennium BC, although this language was not dominant such as Hebrew, Egyptian and Phoenician, but had some features that allowed it to keep as a diplomatic language until the era of Alexander the Great (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, p. 69).

The best and oldest examples of diplomatic language (Treaty of Peace and Friendship) is a 2340 BC dated diplomatic letter was sent by the King of the Kingdom of Abela in northern Syria to the king of the city-state or the Kingdom of Hamazi or Khamazi which has not yet been discovered and is thought to be located in northern Iraq. This letter was the first diplomatic letter to be found, but not the first in the history of diplomacy because the kings followed a diplomatic protocol that enabled them to secure communication and treaties between them (Berg, 2017, p. 55; Jaber, 2001, p. 52).

After the demise of the Akkadian language, the Aramaic language (the mother tongue of Arameans in Syria) came instead of Akkadian language as the leading language of diplomacy. It adopted the best writing method known to humanity- the alphabet by the 10th century BC (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, p. 70).

Following the expansion of the empires, Greek and Latin were the common language of diplomacy and thus were useful in building the empire in Asia as a diplomatic language. Eventually, Latin became the natural language in the writing of treaties and talks between diplomats in Europe, such as Westphalia Treaty 1648, the Anglo-Danish Treaty of 1670 and the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1674 were all drafted and signed in Latin (Müller, 2019).

By the end of the 6th century, Constantinople had left Latin language and used Greek instead of it as a diplomatic language. This has caused mutual misunderstanding of the absence of a skilled translation of Latin, at a time when Latin was dominant in Rome. In the 18th century, the French language became the language of diplomacy, it emerged as a common diplomatic language. But in the 19th century, there were attempts to make English as a competition language for the French language and through the multilateral conferences which were held in the twentieth century, there was a real opportunity for the English language to oppose the French linguistic superiority, so English emerged as one of the two diplomatic languages after the First World War. It was raised to the status of French (as a language of coordination in diplomacy) when the League of Nations was established after the end of the Paris Peace Conference.

Multilateral diplomacy has added linguistic problems while at the same time, it has created creative solutions - so-called official and working languages. For example, at the San Francisco Conference in 1945, English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese became the official languages of the Conference, while French and English were admitted as working languages only (Jönsson and Hall, 2005, pp. 70-71).

After the founding of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the League of Nations and the Bretton Woods organizations, English has become more prevalent in international relations. David Crystal points out in his book *English as a Global Language* in 1995-1996 a sample of 500 international organizations out of 12,500 were taken from the beginning of the list, which was alphabetically arranged. About 85% used English as one of the working languages and about one-third of the list used only English as a working language. In contrast, 13% of international organizations did not use English at all. Most of these organizations are francophone (Crystal, 2012, pp. 87-88*)*.

1.6.2. Types of diplomatic language

There are three types of language used in diplomacy such as oral, written and non-verbal (body language, signals and ambiguity).

Firstly, written diplomatic language. The bilateral agreement is usually determined by the use of written diplomatic language. It is based on the principle of sovereign equality among nations. In order to implement this linguistic principle, there are several formulas: 1) Each country writes its communications in its own language, such as letters, notes, etc. For example, "The Croatian Ministry in Zagreb, as well as the Croatian Embassy in Budapest, write in Croatian, while the Hungarian Ministry and [its] Embassy in Zagreb write in Hungarian". 2) Each country writes in the language of the other country and this is in contrast to the number (1). 3) The correspondence is conducted in each country in the local language, for example, "both sides in Zagreb

correspond in Croatian, while in Budapest they do so in Hungarian". 4) The Parties agree to use a third language in a reciprocal manner. The formulas above have their pros, but also their cons (Nick, 2001, p. 42).

Raluca-Maria Topală divided diplomatic language in her article *Morphological Characteristics of the Diplomatic Language* into two types: Written language and oral language. The writer classified written language into treaties, press releases and United Nations resolutions. Whilst the oral language classified it into speeches which will be mentioned later. She found that the percentage of using the nouns is greater than the percentage of using the verbs in the written language (24.04 % vs. 9.1 %) as explained in figure (1). The written language also tends to use the passive voice (Topală, 2014, pp. 310-311). For instance, *Laws are passed* and *The reports were signed off yesterday.*

Another feature of written diplomatic language is the use of personal pronouns. The first person (I, we) and the second person (you) do not exist in the written language, especially in treaties and UN resolutions, which are characterized by using the third person (he, she, it, they). This is not surprising because treaties and UN resolutions have many legal language features (Topală, 2014, p. 316). For instance,

"***They*** understand that this requires a major contribution on their part in which ***they*** will make strenuous efforts to cooperate with each other and with the international organizations and agencies which are assisting ***them*** on the ground" (Dayton Peace Agreement, United Nations, 1995, p. 7).

Second, oral diplomatic language is perfect for personal communication. If compared with written diplomatic language such as (e-mail, fax, etc.), it is faster, more efficient and undoubtedly very useful. In addition, oral diplomatic language includes a range of side effects such as tone of voice whether friendly, threatening, solemn, etc., in addition to pausing between sentences or words (Nick, 2001, pp. 43-44). All these factors helped the speaker to manipulate his words to convince the other parties. She found that the percentage of verbs in diplomatic speeches was greater than the

percentage of nouns (19.43% vs. 11.43%). The oral language also tends to use the active voice, as explained in the figure (1).

Another feature of oral diplomatic language is the use of the first person (I, we) rather than the use of the second person (you), especially in the speeches (Topală, 2014, pp. 314-315). For instance,

"And *I* commit to every Republican here tonight that *I* will not only seek out your ideas, *I* will seek to work with *you* to make this country stronger." (Obama, 2015).
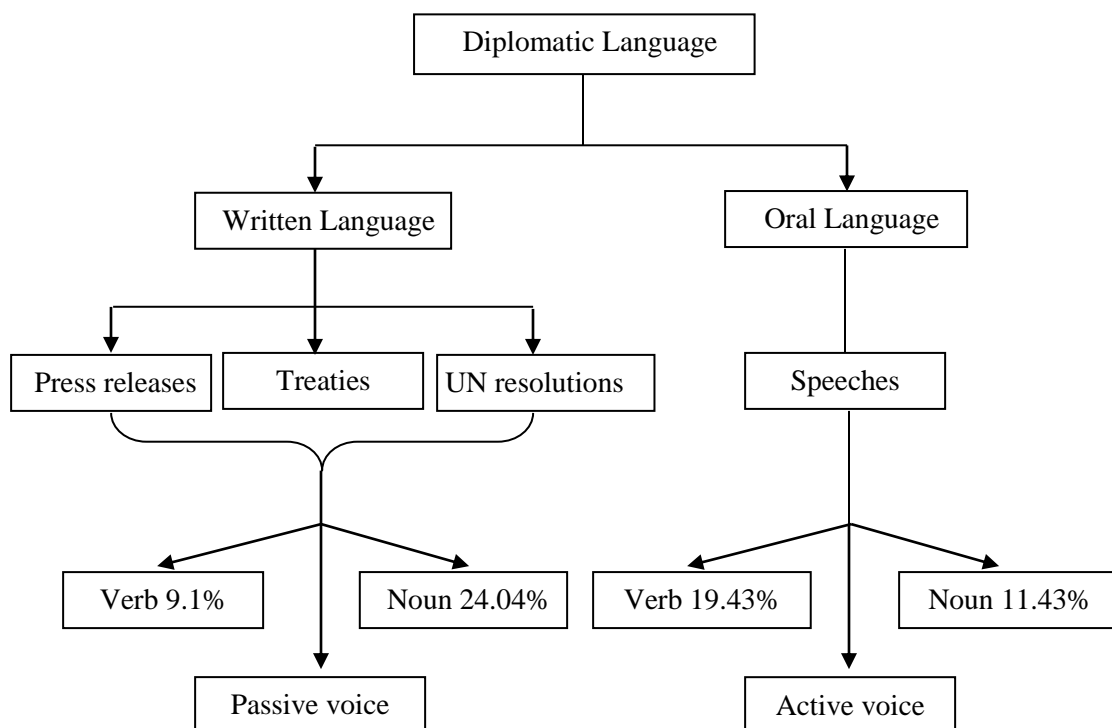
Figure (1) Types of Diplomatic Language (Topală, 2014)

Thirdly, comes non-verbal diplomatic language. The diplomatic agents considered the role of non-verbal communication in diplomatic practice is vital and very important, so the non-verbal message or "body language" is considered an important side of diplomatic communication. The non-verbal diplomatic language has advantages: 1) It attracts the attention of a diverse audience. 2) It is inherently ambiguous and it can be relinquished, thus it helps to keep flexible.

Diplomatic "body language" includes personal gestures and other things for instance, "a handshake [...] is used as a metaphor for the quality of inter-state relations, transferring the language of personal relations to the international arena" (Al-Shamary, 2011, p. 27). In diplomacy, signals are used as an alternative to the language, which is considered a direct way of communication. So, it must have a source, a method of communication, a receiver, a method for both sender and receiver to ensure the truth of the message. In addition, a sender and a receiver with a common protocol, without which the communication may be unclear upon receipt.

Non-verbal signals in diplomacy include: 1) The use of media, which is one of the features of a diplomatic signal. For example, during the Gulf War in 1991, the Iraqi government allowed CNN to remain in Iraq during the war to convey their diplomatic messages to the world (Al-Shamary, 2011, pp. 26-27-29). 2) The withdrawal of an ambassador for consultations is a classic signal of diplomacy. For instance, Australia has withdrawn its ambassador to Indonesia in protest at the execution of two of its citizens for drug crimes (The Guardian, 2015). The withdrawal of an ambassador for a period of time is a political gesture. Some observers have remarked that the withdrawal of the ambassador has the reverse effect of the absence of a senior envoy in his post. 3) Written statements or words that are not accompanied by work, or by work that is at variance from those indicated by the words. For instance, the Chinese Foreign Ministry exercised pressure on India during the India-Pakistan conflict in 1965 by issuing a final warning through a diplomatic note alleging the loss of 40 sheep and dozen of yaks[2] across its border with India. A period of 72 hours was specified to compensate for the loss. The Indian Ministry of External Affairs, replied that there was no kidnapping of the sheep and yaks, and rejected the final warning. This is a kind of support signal to Pakistan (Al-Shamary, 2011, pp. 28-29). 4) Eye contact: different cultures have different views on eye contact. It indicates self-confidence and honesty. In Asian cultures, direct eye contact is considered impolite and uncomfortable in contrast to Western cultures, but in the

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[2] Yak: a large domesticated wild ox with short-legged, long-haired that was probably domesticated in Tibet but has been introduced wherever there are people living at altitudes of 4,000–6,000 metres, mainly in China but also in Mongolia, Central Asia, and Nepal. (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2018).

diplomatic sphere, looking at the person's eye indicates interest, respect, honesty and self-confidence. While avoiding contact with the eye is evidence of negative feelings such as disrespect, negligence and arrogance (Topan, 2011, p. 137).

Raymond Cohen identified the characteristics of non-verbal communication in his book *International Politics: The Rules of the Game*. Firstly, deliberateness: for instance, the wearing formal, informal or national dress in an important event where the media are available and capture the pictures of this event and broadcast it around all over the world may indicate a hidden intention either is positive or negative. Secondly, ambiguity: the ambiguity of intent is part of non-verbal signals. For instance, "diplomatic cold" or sickness. One diplomat or official may offer an excuse during a diplomatic dinner to go to the restroom, someone might think he was a walkout. Thirdly, the rules of protocol, for instance, receiving the foreign visitor at the airport and honouring the visitor, such as a lunch and other (as cited in Al-Shamary, 2011, pp. 26-27-28). This feature is also part of the non-verbal language.

II: A THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO THE TRANSLATION OF DIPLOMATIC LANGUAGE

2.1. The Place of Translation and Interpretation in Diplomacy

Translation and interpretation in diplomatic sphere are the most complicated tasks because they put a heavy burden on the translator/interpreter who tries to convey the content of the message from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL) honestly and entirely in confidentiality. In addition to that, the translator/interpreter must overcome the socio-cultural barriers between languages.

The diplomatic sphere in which translation/interpretation process takes place is characterized by a cultural and social context that affects the role of interpreter and translator. The socio-cultural factor is an important and interesting factor in the context of a diplomatic setting. It is known that the diplomats are individuals rooted in the cultural and social background, and they are usually used to working in diplomatic settings, so they will be required to minimize their cultural specificity in their contacts and their behaviour, in order to understand it and translate/interpret it correctly. This factor may lead to facilitate communication with the other party, or obstruct it, by creating tension in maintaining diplomatic courtesy when conveying different messages. On the other hand, the diplomatic interpreter may be asked to play a very vital role as an intercultural mediator or so-called "ghost" in order to bridge intercultural differences and gaps, in this case, he/she will be more clear in the exchange (Brown, 2008, pp. 40-41).

The goal of translation and interpretation in this sphere is not to transfer the sentences semantically and syntactically from one language to another, but to achieve the same effect with the translation similar to that of the affect of the source language, i.e., reaching a specific goal and effect. The translator must be familiar with cultural characteristics, whether linguistic or non-linguistic because they will affect the track of negotiations. For instance, during the talks of the Hungarian delegation with the French President to discuss the issue of Hungary, the delegation failed to convince the French

President of their demands (after WWI), despite using a factual way. But the Hungarian Foreign Minister intervened directly, and being aware of the French spirit and the style used by the French, he reworded the same speech in a new formula and in a French spirited tone, so he finally managed to convince him of the Hungarian Delegation's demands, although it was first raised in another formula (Baranyai, 2011, p.8).

Sometimes, events may arise from the extreme tension between parties. So, diplomatic interpreters should be trusted, because they have the skill and tact in dealing with critical situations because they were initially selected to work in this field on the basis of competence, sufficient experience and the strength of personality to stand in front of the public. All these factors encourage the rest of the parties when facing critical situations.

The translator's/interpreter's work is not only restricted to conferences and diplomatic negotiations, but also includes national institutions (Ministries, Parliament buildings, etc.) and international institutions (UN, EU, WTO, etc.). For this reason, the tasks facing the translator and interpreter in these institutions are the most difficult, especially the interpreter, who is facing difficulties in conferences and diplomatic negotiations, this exposes the interpreter to pressure, limited time and unintentional mistakes (Buri, 2015, p. 1).

Therefore, working in the diplomatic field requires solid preparation. The diplomatic interpreter/translator must be aware of and have a good knowledge in keeping abreast of the developments in political, and economic affairs and keep up with international developments. He/she should be knowledgeable of all the issues at stake. The more conversant the interpreter/translator is with the diplomatic jargon, the more he/she will be able to process the discourse or text (Buri, 2015, pp. 1-2).

Diplomatic interpretation does not get the status it deserves, because of the mistakes in interpretation that may cause serious damages in diplomatic relations that are done intentionally or unintentionally.

In ancient empires and states, when a meeting was held between tribal representatives, interpreters and their reliability of interpretation were questioned, because they were chosen as "heteronymous interpreters" from the opposing side (Baranyai, 2011, pp. 7-8). But there are exceptions, such as NATO Secretary-General Manfred Woerner. In every closing speech, thanks are extended to the translators and interpreters for the reality of what they have done by expressing it as "a gift, a skill, an art and a craft" (Buri, 2015, p. 4).

The diplomatic interpreting is distinguished from other types, as stated by Kucerova (1990):

> First, the normal requirements of the professional interpreter become more stringent: general qualifications as to language, culture, voice, diction, tact, the awareness of confidentiality. The diplomatic interpreter must inspire confidence and trust, always putting the objectives of his principal first-which may include accepting undeserved blame-and be equally at ease in front of large audiences, millions of television viewers, or in face-to-face meetings between heads of state (p. 37).

On this basis, translation/interpretation is divided more clearly according to standards to which it belongs, as explained in the figure (2)

According to the professional field

Diplomatic translation/interpretation

According to responsible for carrying out of translation/interpretation

Human translation

Machine translation

Translator/ Interpreter

According to the expression method

Translation

Interpretation

Settings of interpretation

Types of interpretation

Conference interpreting

Consecutive interpreting

Simultaneous interpreting

Liaison (bilateral) interpreting

Relay interpreting

Whispered Chuchotage) interpreting

Sight interpreting

Figure (2) Translation/Interpretation According to Standards to Which It Belongs

2.2. Basic Concepts of Translation and Interpretation

2.2.1. Translation

The process of translation, in general, emerged after the emergence of writing in the community, "And with the emergence of writing systems the art and science of translation was born" (Reynoso, 2006, p. 8). It is a process involving the conveying of an original written text from the source language (SL) called (the source text) (ST) into a written text called (the target text) (TT) in the other language (target language) (TL) and this process occurs between two completely different languages (Munday, 2008, p. 5). But translation is not only a process of transporting words, but it is a process of conveying the ideas and meaning to convey them to the recipient (the reader) (Reynoso, 2006, p. 1), Anthony Burgess remarks "translation is not a matter of words only; it is a matter of making intelligible a whole culture." So, it is a process of communication among civilizations.

Translation is hard work, not as people think, it is just a transfer from one language to another, but it does not have a mystery, i.e., it is not an impossible assignment. So, the translator must have extensive linguistic knowledge as well as analytical research and cultural skills (Reynoso, 2006, p. 2). For more details See 2.3.

Translation is a means of transfer of civilization, culture, and thought, it is very old, actually older than what people think, dating back to antiquity. The Sumerian Epic of Gilgamesh was the first known translation in history, it has been translated into Asian languages from the second millennium BC. It was found in the library of Ashurbanipal in Nineveh (Popa, 2015)

In the 3rd century BC, translation of the Hebrew Bible into Greek is the first translation in the Western world. This translation is called "Septuagint", which indicates the commissioning of 70 translators to translate the Hebrew Bible in Alexandria, Egypt (Lebert, 2017, p. 1).

In the late 4th century AD, Saint Jerome was commissioned in 382 to translate the Bible into Latin (later known as "Vulgate"), and he completed its translation around 405 AD (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2013). In the same period, many Buddhist texts written in Sanskrit were translated into Chinese by Kumārajīva, a Buddhist monk and translator. Among his most known works, the translation of *Diamond Sutra.* He had a profound influence on Chinese Buddhism. The continuing efforts of translation have led to the spread of Buddhism in Asia for more than a thousand years (Lebert, 2017, p. 2).

In the late 8th century, the first paper manufacturing factory was founded in Baghdad in 794. The improvement of the paper industry has led to an increase in the number of translations. Paper has become available throughout the Islamic world and has reached the Indus Valley in the Indian subcontinent to the Pyrenees. Printing was not possible until paper became available and helped spread the translation. The manufacture of paper in the Arab Islamic Empire had an influence on the circulation of translations (Delisle and Woodsworth, 2012, p. 96)

In the Golden Age of the Abbasid Caliphate, the Caliph Harun Al-Rashid (764-809) issued instructions to establish a large library in Baghdad with the name *Khazanah al-Hikmah* to save books from various languages. Early in the 9th century, during the reign of Caliph al-Mamun (813-833), the library (*Khazanah al-Hikmah*) became more energetic and worked as a translation centre with the name of *Baitul al-Hikmah* (Abdullah, 2017).

In the late 9th century, Alfred the Great, King of Wessex (871-899) in England was commissioned to translate from Latin into English which helped to improve English prose. The most important works which commissioned to the Bede's "Ecclesiastical History" and Boethius "The Consolation of Philosophy".

In the late 15th century, the age of English prose translation appeared. Thomas Malory (1485) interpreted English and French stories, for instance, the story of "Gareth" as one of the Knights of the Round Table.

In the 16th century, the Bible was translated into Dutch in 1526, French in 1528, Slovenian in 1584 and Spanish in 1569. In addition, it was printed in Czech between 1579 and 1593 (Lebert, 2017, pp. 3-4). These translations helped spread all these languages in Christian Europe and participated in the growth of modern European languages.

In the 17th century, the translation of French classics into English has increased considerably in France between (1625 -1660). This century saw the birth of the most influential translation theorists such as Sir John Denham (1615-1669), Abraham Cowley (1618-1667), John Dryden (1631-1700), and Alexander Pope (1688-1744) (Sawant, 2013, p. 6).

In the 18th century, the first formal and organized translation activity appeared in the Tulip Age of Ottoman Empire, when a translation council was created under the instruction of Minister Ibrahim Pasha, who had many Arabic and Persian works and science works translated into colloquial Turkish. In addition, the council opened its doors for the Greek translation. Vedat Günyol points out that the interest in translating the great Greek works opened the way to begin translation (Aksoy, 2005, p. 953).

In the late 18th century, British colonists in East India were interested in languages, literature and the translation of ancient Indian languages. In addition, many English works have been translated into various Indian languages.

The 19th century saw many translations from several languages into English such as the translation of the *Rubaiyat* of Omar Khayyam from Persian into English and the translation of Goethe's work from German into English. In this century the Bible was translated into hundreds of languages throughout the world (Sawant, 2013, p. 7).

In the 20th century, the political arena saw many developments, so translations were regarded as a political task. Political subjects were translated from Chinese, Russian, Asian and European languages into English, as well as translation from French into English and the reverse is true.

In addition, this century saw the development of translation programs such as machine translation and computer-assisted translation (CAT) (Sawant, 2013, p. 8).

In the second half of the 20th century saw the birth of a new discipline called "Translation Studies". James S. Holmes first coined the term "translation studies". He translated Dutch and Belgian works into English (Lebert, 2017, p. 6).

In the 21st century, internet networks have helped to spread translation programs widely. The spread of programs and organizations that have the funds to hire professionals, but not professional translators, has led to making translators invisible. In most cases, the names of translators were forgotten on articles, books and websites, although they spent days and months working on translating the topics (Lebert, 2017, p. 7).

Despite the spread of translation programs on the internet, translators always seek to compare with the previous works of translators in previous eras and to benefit from their theories and opinions.

Diplomatic translation does not differ in terms of the basic principle of translating text from SL into TL but has its own rules and principles. These principles and rules will be clarified in 2.2.1.1.

2.2.1.1. Translation of Diplomatic Documents

The diplomatic sphere deals with diplomatic documents which relate to the security of the country and other countries. In this case, the translator is required to commit in confidentiality, because the diplomatic sphere is very closed and insufficient information is available in advance (Buri, 2015, p. 1).

In this regard, Krivorot (2007) explained the degree of confidentiality of diplomatic documents, which are divided into: "unclassified, classified, in confidence,

confidential, secret, Top secret" (p. 239). Therefore, the translator must take into account the confidentiality of these documents.

So, the translator must take into account the accuracy and choice of words that give the idea and exact meaning as they are full of diplomatic terms that exist only in this milieu for instance, (ambassador, counsellor, secretary, consul, attaché, chancery documents, consular documents, etc.).

2.2.2. Interpretation

The process of interpretation means to understand speech and turn it into another language, i.e., interpreting it orally from SL into a language that aims at conveying the main idea of the recipient. This process involves the interaction between the speaker and the listener. It emerged before the emergence of writing. It is the oldest activity in the record of human history (Jungwha, 2003, p. 1). It appeared for the first time officially at the Paris Peace Conference after the First World War (Persaud, 2016, p. 90).

Interpreting is presented only one-time. It is difficult to revise or correct, for the lack of time. As Otto Kade defines it "interpreting is a form of Translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language" (as cited in Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 11). Whilst Andersen (1978) focused on his definition of interpretation on the oral side, saying "[…] the interpretation occurs whenever a verbal message is rephrased in one language and sent back verbally in a second language" (p. 218).

Theoretically, interpreting is devoid of faults in both languages: the SL and the TL. It requires a keen insight into the subject matter and master of the correct method to carry out the interpreting process. Practically, many of the problems which are encountered by interpreters are due to their insufficient word bank, lack of alternative vocabulary; weakness in their interpreting skills; interpreting other foreign languages and many other reasons (Jungwha, 2003, pp. 1-2).

Interpreting often occurs in different linguistic and cultural communities. The most obvious criterion is the social context of the communication or the environment in which interpreting activity is taking place (Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 13).

Diplomatic interpreting does not differ from other interpretations in terms of principle – as explained in the translation - but has its own rules and principles, because it is a very special task adopted by countries in embassies and consulates, as well as the Heads of State, foreign delegations and else. Therefore, diplomatic interpreting requires perfect language skills, as language competence is considered an essential element for accuracy and speed in the interpreter's performance. It also entails having extensive knowledge of terminologies and concepts which are related to conferences and diplomatic negotiations to avoid mistakes that may endanger the professional life of an interpreter. Similarly, it entails a strong memory and immediate strategies for processing and conjures up texts such as idioms, false friends, syntactic structures, the ability to observe cues in sentences, and the audacity to public speaking (Persaud, 2016, pp. 96-97), in addition to courage, self-confidence, tension control, the ability of persuasion, technical, cultural and moral knowledge ... and other factors that make communication possible at the level of ministries, international organizations, etc.

Interpretation is discovered to be a very complex skill, i.e., "the precise modality of interpreting that is required in each situation must be selected because each stage of a conflict and type of encounter will have its specific requirements" (Persaud, 2016, p. 97).

In a nutshell, we conclude from the foregoing that the difference between translation and interpretation is that translation concentrates on written texts while interpretation concentrates on the oral side. Translation and interpretation share everything and perform the same function, but they differ slightly in the medium that conveys the message from one language into another as much as written language differs from spoken language (Buri, 2015, p. 2). When we translate, we are writing by conveying words or text (message) from one language into another, while when we are

interpreting, we do it orally by conveying ideas in a correct and an accurate way from one language into another, i.e., "[...] reexpress in one language what has been expressed in another" (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 1-2).

2.2.3. Machine translation (MT)

Since the invention of the computer in the 1940s, machine translation (MT) for more than half a century has been the subject of research (Baker, 2009, p. 162). With the emergence of globalization, there has become a tremendous diversity of languages and cultures, thus the need for languages translation has increased. The actual development of machine translators has begun in the 1950s, from that time to this day, MT has developed amazingly. This development is due to the drastic change in technology and artificial intelligence industry; therefore, large companies have begun to spend millions to develop MT software. We note that "[..] all over the world, software designers, programmers, hardware engineers, neural-network experts, AI specialists, linguists, and cognitive scientists are enlisted in the effort to teach computers how to port words and ideas from language to language" (Morrison, 2010, p. 21). Examples of this type of MT are Bing Translator and Google Translate, which are the most common and popular on the web and relies on a large database of words to produce the texts because most users do not desire for high-quality text, but for the text of information. As for the translators, they use much more powerful programs than free versions, which can be set to their professional needs (Buttacavoli, 2014, p. 48).

The reason why MT is more desirable than human translation is several factors: 1) it is fast, 2) it is low cost, 3) it is constantly updated, 4) it is confidential. Regarding – it is fast, meaning it translates the text immediately, and it is low cost - tools such as Google Translate and other programs are available in case of availability of the internet and without a high cost. For instance, Systran, one of the senior companies in MT, presents the statistics that "[…] humans can translate 2000 – 3000 words a day, while Systran's MT software can translate 3700 words a minute". We cannot deny the speed of

MT, speed means saving money. As for its constantly update, the dictionaries are updated by feeding it with new words, terminologies and phrases that keep abreast of language development, Google Translate has more than a hundred languages currently. The last factor- it is confidential, MT is more confidential when translating emails and other private documents. Translation by MT is much better than passing through a human. It is the best option for translating specific texts in certain circumstances (Morrison, 2010, pp. 21-22). But it does not amount to human translation even though it is worldwide dissemination, but it is full of flaws and cannot be used in an environment of a special nature, like diplomacy and other special areas.

2.2.3.1. Challenges in machine translation (MT)

Hutchins (1992) points out in a study he conducted that MT system encounters linguistic problems and classifies it into four categories: lexical, contextual, structural, and pragmatic or situational (Hutchins, 1992, p. 2). All these problems arise from ambiguity that exists in natural languages. It will be discussed in detail in Chapter III.

If we look at MT, we will find that it translates the text (word-for-word) not on the basis of content context, thus it cannot link words to context. Since it does not know who is the target audience? What are their educational level and their ages? What is the content being used for? Due to lack of equivalences of the structures and vocabulary between SL and TL. For instance, the word *convention* may mean *treaty*, *tradition* or *conference*, which determines the use of the exact meaning is the context in which the word is used.

Another problem is, its inability to understand the cultural differences, there are many cultures in the world, thus it cannot understand or translate the slang, perhaps even names and terminologies. This is one of the most important challenges facing it, in addition to its inability to localization such as the translation of dialects and it is not

giving the text a certain style and tone like some types of special texts such as legal, diplomatic, etc. It cannot be of high quality without human touch.

MT problems, such as ambiguity and other problems, are usually based on translators, who can resolve these problems when making input "pre-edit" on the MT system. Thus, "the reason they're [MT] bad now is that you feed the machines with bad translations, with bad data. So, garbage in, garbage out" (Buttacavoli, 2014, p. 48).

The problems of MT in the diplomatic sphere are like problems facing other spheres, in particular, MT is unsuitable for live conversations since the spoken language is full of elusiveness and ambiguity. Since MT lacks linguistic factors such as ambiguity and metaphors, this will affect the course of diplomatic negotiations because computers produce literal translations that are "[...] based on formal and systematic rules so sometimes it cannot solve ambiguity by concentrating on a context and using the experience of mental outlook as a human translator". In addition, diplomacy and international negotiations contain culturally sensitive and specific issues. Accuracy is vital, so machines and dictionaries are not able to deal with this kind of ambiguity (Morrison, 2010, pp. 23-24). The ambiguity is not only about lexical, syntactical, cross-textual, and cross-cultural ambiguity but also there is deliberate and unintentional ambiguity. See chapter three.

Translating metaphors is a significant problem for interpreters, how can MT overcome it. It is not possible to understand metaphors unless there is an understanding shared between the parties communicating and if there is no understanding, communication will be problematic (Morrison, 2010, p. 15). Hutchins (1998) states "for spoken translation, [....] there will be a continuing market for the human translator. There is surely no prospect of automatic translation replacing the interpreter of diplomatic and business exchanges" (p. 13).

As for the written language in the diplomatic sphere, this can be easily performed by machines, but in specific topics. The technology has improved in the development of

MT after its capability was 250 words only until it reached 30,000 words (Morrison, 2010, pp. 21-25).

This saves a lot of time for human translators because they will edit the machine translation for the same problems that were aforementioned.

2.2.4. Human translation (HT)

In spite of the widespread of MT and its use in all fields, the human translation (HT) remains of high quality, professional, vital and irreplaceable especially in fields of a specific nature, such as the diplomatic and legal fields and others. For instance, governments and international organizations such as the European Union and the United Nations require high-quality and accurate translation of subjects that deal with complex geopolitical issues, and global corporations require localization that maintains the context across languages (Denkowski, 1975, p. 37).

HT is of high-quality because it is capable of understanding and capturing context, understanding cultural differences, finding suitable alternatives, understanding idioms, metaphors, puns, etc., in addition, the experienced translators are doing a creative translation of the language, and they are entirely acquainted with the field they are working in.

HT passes with a cycle which concentrates on the quality processes, and consists of many stages: -

1. Initial translation project management. 2. Translation. 3. Translation terminology research. 4. Terminology discussions, debates and reviews. 5. Entering parallel terminology into tools and dictionaries. 6. Translation review. 7. Translation correction process (entering the corrections made by the reviewer). 8. Second translation review. 9. Translation correction process (entering the corrections made by the reviewer). 10. Final translation review. 11. Terminology review nd

corrections. 12. Translated text formatting and document compilation for delivery to the client. 13. Final translation project management (Guerra Martínez, 2003, p. 31).

To illustrate this in a nutshell, the ideal way that humans use to achieve a good translation in their work: Once they have finished the first copy of their translation, they will check whether there are errors, misunderstandings or inconsistencies through the proofreading and then they will rewrite the text in a way that makes the final version more like an original document or text.

As aforementioned, in spite of the considerable improvements of technology in the field of machine translation, there is no substitute for humans in the diplomatic sphere in terms of written language and spoken language. The written diplomatic texts and live meetings, especially in negotiations is full of linguistic factors such as ambiguity and metaphors in addition to the nuances of cultural sensitivities. While non-linguistic factors such as speech style, accents, and dialects are a huge barrier which affects the negotiations and discussions. Only humans are capable of dealing with this complex sphere (Morrison, 2010, pp. 25-27).

2.3.   An Overview of the Role of the Translator/ Interpreter in Diplomacy

The role of the translator and the interpreter is very big, indispensable and cannot separate them. For the translator converts written language from one language into another in writing, whereas the interpreter converts spoken language from one language into another orally. It is not necessary for interpreters to translate, nor can the translators to interpret (Chriss, 2006, p. 1). So, the best translators may not be good interpreters and the reverse is true.

The job of a translator differs greatly from the job of an interpreter. Translators work alone, facing a text on a paper. They rewrite the text into another language, becoming its second author. Whilst interpreters do not work alone, they receive a speech from the speaker directly. They express their ideas directly without rewording or

checking the interpretation linguistically and idiomatically. Thus, they are in direct contact with the audience who are listening to them, and to the speaker at the same time (Cremona and Mallia, 2001, p. 301).

The roles of the translator and interpreter are not limited to finding the equivalent words when transporting the text or the speech from SL into TL, they deal with the meaning units, but go much more when they are concerned with contexts and cultural sensitivities, and all that is related to comprehension. For this reason, they should be thoroughly familiar with the terminologies and styles that are known and used by translators/interpreters. They must be in constant contact with sources of information, whether printed, readable or electronically published; for the acquisition of high skills in comprehension and rewording texts into another language. A translator and/or interpreter must prepare for his/her translation and search for accurate meanings when translating texts and interpreting speech, especially if the translation/interpretation in fields which are not entirely familiar with. They acquire skills over time. It takes them 10 years or more of studying and living in foreign societies and cultures. Skills that cannot be acquired overnight and any translator/interpreter who wants to be creative must live and be totally immersed in different cultural environments, to enrich his/her linguistic creativity and style, through communication across cultures (Reynoso, 2006, p. 13).

For thousands of years, the translators and interpreters have worked as a vital link; to transfer science and knowledge among peoples, they awakened the collective consciousness of ethnic and linguistic groups and they worked for the preservation of the cultural heritage. They became a bridge between cultures, nations, and continents. Their minds became in different paths, moving back and forth between languages and cultures (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 15-16). Cultures have been enriched by their works over time. Translators and interpreters played an essential role in all fields and were not excluded from any field.

In the eighth century, Ibn al-Muqafa, the Persian translator, enriched the Arabic culture with Indian fables known as *Bidpai* and he called it in Arabic "*Kalila and*

Dimna". Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) was a translator before being an author. He transported the ballad and animal fables to his English culture. In the 18th century Jagannatha, the Indian astronomer, translated "*Ptolemy's Almagest and Euclid's Elements*" from Arabic into Sanskrit. Newton's works were translated into French by Emilie du Chatelet who was the first to translate it. Constance Garnett (1861-1946) is one of the first prominent English translators of Anton Chekhov, Leo Tolstoy, Ivan Turgenev, and Fyodor Dostoevsky (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 7-8).

In addition, translators and interpreters dealt with law, commercial contracts and literature. They also helped to negotiate surrender during wars and preparing treaty documents. As they have had a connection to religious teachings. All these made them a link between peoples and cultures.

During the Renaissance between the (14th-17th) centuries, two different directions emerged. First, the appearance of "nationalistic sentiment" that increased the use of colloquial languages. Second, emphasis on scientific and technical translation, especially in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. So, the task of translators and interpreters was to explain for and instruct non-specialists such as trainees and laboratory assistants. Whilst translators in the fields of physics, chemistry, and pharmacy were explaining the works they translated in simpler ways to readers, acting as teachers in explaining them. For instance, "De Boulenc translated a chemistry textbook by Oswald Croll into French, simplifying the material and describing the chemical processes step by step for a student readership" and "Culpepper, too, simplified the scientific documents he translated" (Delisle and Woodsworth, 2012, p. 97).

As for interpretation, there was no exact date, but in 3000 BC the hieroglyphics in Egypt referred to "interpreting". In ancient Greece and Rome, there were references to the existence of interpreters, who helped to spread ideas, philosophy, religion and diplomacy. For instance, the interpreters were used by the Romans in their campaigns and in the administration of the territories that they conquered.

Interpreters were also used in all the major religions such as Judaism and Christianity for interpretation from Hebrew into Aramaic and for their missionary works. In Palestine and Babylon, between the fifth BC century and sixth AD century, the interpreters were working in the courts and schools. During the Age of Discovery, interpreters both sexes (women and men), interpreted their language and culture to strangers, such as soldiers and explorers, and their work was voluntary. In North America - Mexico in the 16th century there was a woman known as Doña Marina, the Indian woman, who spoke Nahuatl, Mayan, and Spanish. She worked as "interpreter" for Hernan Cortes during his communications with the king of Spain. When she has fallen in love with Cortes, she became more than an interpreter and a lawyer, she was an adviser and strategist to him, but she was perceived by the Mexicans as a traitor because she betrayed her people to the Spaniards (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 9-10).

In the Ottoman Empire, the interpreters were called *Dragoman* as shown in western sources. While in the official Ottoman documents, they were called *divan tercümanı* (Çiçek, 2002, p. 3). The Dragomans are the founding fathers of diplomatic interpretation in the Ottoman Empire (Abbasbeyli, 2015, p. 1). It is worth mentioning that most of the Dragomans were not Muslims. They were mainly Greeks, Armenians and Jews. The first chief Dragoman of the Ottoman Empire was the Greek interpreter Panayotis Nikousia, who took his office in the Ottoman Porte (in Turkish *Babıali*) from 1661 until his death in 1673 (Diriker, 2015, p. 88). During the reign of Sultan Mehmed II (the conqueror), who conquered Istanbul in 1453, the interpretation became institutionalized. At that time, the court employed interpreters for diplomatic contacts in the palace. They had a significant position in the court, most of them were Greeks (Aksoy, 2005, p. 950).

The Dragomans were court officials, serving as mediators between litigants, on one hand, and courts and officials, on the other hand. In addition, they acted as representatives in their communities, looking after all kinds of interests of their community. They played a vital role in promoting cooperation and bilateral understanding between the state and its non-Muslim subjects (Çiçek, 2002, pp. 3-4).

In the 20th century, the interpreter participated in the International Military Tribunal at Nuremberg (November 1945-October 1946) for the trial of the Second World War criminals. The interpreter played a great role in interpreting the most famous trials of the century. It will be discussed later in 2.4.2.2 Simultaneous interpreting.

If we checked the translation and interpretation process, we will find that the role of the translator and the interpreter is receiver and emitter (Reynoso, 2006, p. 12), which are separated processes but are linked to communication.

Author / Speaker —Text / Speech—Reader / Listener = Translator / Interpreter -- Text/ Speech — Reader / Listener

A good translator is a bilingual person who converts written material such as documents, books, manuals, etc., into texts that are understood in another language (Chriss, 2006, p. 1). His/her task transcends linguistic criteria. According to Eugene Nida's Model of the translation process. The translator does a process of decoding and recoding as explained in figure (3):
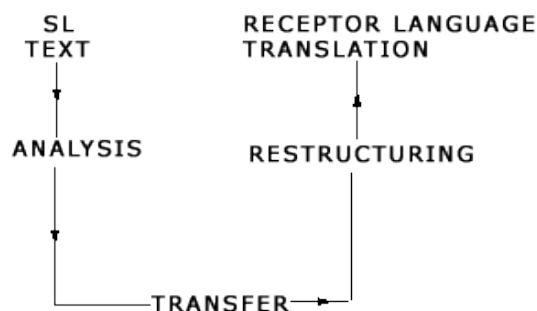
Figure (3) The Role of the Translator in Eugene Nida's Model
The Process of Translation

The translator reads the ST to understand its content, then analyzes it, to produce integrated text in terms of the context, meaning and culture of the target language (Reynoso, 2006, p. 12). He is a professional linguist who is fluent in more than one language, a proficient writer, and a skilled diplomat. Roger Chris likened translator to diplomats "like diplomats, translators have to be sensitive to the cultural and social

differences which exist in their languages and be capable of addressing these issues when translating" (Chriss, 2006, p. 4).

The role of the translator has not stopped at this point, he/she has contributed throughout history to enriching civilization with many achievements, including the creation of the alphabet, dissemination of scientific and technical knowledge, writing of dictionaries, propagating religions.

While the interpreter has to master the languages that he/she specialized in, in order to be able to conjure up words and correct structures during speaking, and does not hesitate (Cremona and Mallia, 2001, p. 301). Anderson describes the role of the interpreter as a bilingual because he/she deals with two languages: the dominant language, which is the mother tongue, and the target language, which is the language being interpreted. Here he/she shows his/her ability to maintain impartiality in his/her work, and as a middleman has power, he/she is a mediator who serves the clients, has to be responsible and obligated, not affected by the conflict of directions, has an active role on the interpreter-mediated event, control over the interaction with the event, and shows his/her exceptional ability to selective translation, the whole burden is placed on him/her in the interpreting (Brown, 2008, pp. 31-32).

The officials fully trust in the interpreters' skill and capacities, since they meet their expectations. Lyndon Johnson has been asked once: What would you do if your ministers went on strike, he answered: replace them with interpreters; they have the necessary understanding and knowledge of political and diplomatic issues, which enables them to reach a settlement of problems (Brown, 2008, p. 24).

Those who work in the diplomatic corps of translators and interpreters must follow professional and ethical rules, a professional protocol, show professional loyalty, keep secrets of conventions, treaties, and secret discussions, and they are required to possess a linguistic wealth, highly educated, diplomatic skills, and negotiating capacities (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 18-20). All these can be achieved through completely subject to rigorous training which requires a greater discipline of the mind.

Those who work with diplomats should have a deep understanding of language, to convey it to the recipient in high accuracy. They have extensive knowledge of idioms and linguistic styles, keeping abreast of the latest linguistic developments. They are working to overcome failure in transferring meaning including ambiguity and difficulties in accents and metaphors, as well as detailed knowledge of the diplomatic context, which is characterized by special cultural factors, which affect the understanding of language and its subtleties (Morrison, 2010, p. 26).

2.4. Modes of Translation and Interpretation in Diplomacy

2.4.1. Translation

As known, written texts and documents are an essential part of the diplomatic procedure, it provides powers and credentials of the diplomats. It also contains their instructions and negotiating deeds. There are approved formulas of the texts such as opening and final clauses of conventions, letters of accreditation, as well as diplomatic notes. Means of communication have greatly affected the manners of written diplomatic documents today. Documents traded between states in the past had been written in Latin and in the 18th century in French and then the 20th century saw the rise of English as a diplomatic language among nations (Kappeler, 2001, p. 201).

Diplomatic translation is usually done within the embassies, consulates or diplomatic missions. The scope of diplomatic translation is in two main sets of documents: chancery documents and consular documents. The chancery documents related to all diplomatic communications need to be signed by the ambassador or his representative, including letters, reports, notes, conventions and treaties. While the consular documents, including travel permits, visas and consular issues constitute the bulk of written translation works at the embassy, although closely related to legal translation. The translators find themselves translate the certificates of birth, marriage,

death, divorce sentences, etc. As we have already mentioned, this sphere related to written texts and diplomatic documents requires highly skilled linguistic experience and entire confidentiality because it regards the security of one or several countries (Krivorot, 2007, pp. 328-329).

2.4.2. Interpretation

2.4.2.1. Consecutive interpreting (CI)

Consecutive interpreting (CI) occurs when there are a few speakers in a language that is different from the rest of the participants, it does not require tight time constraints because the interpreter and speaker are alternating in taking the floor. CI requires the interpreter to have the ability to summarize by taking notes during the speech and the ability to synthesize in order to deliver an interpreting which is based on memory and notes without errors, omissions or shifts. The time that he/she alternates with the speaker gives him/her room for rewording and conjure up any cultural references that are necessary to convey the intended message (Pistillo, 2003, p. 11). This type is often used for interviews, talks between heads of states, very sensitive diplomatic missions, diplomatic and press conferences, etc.

There are two types of CI: short and long, the speech is ranging from a minute to 20 minutes in length. The short CI involves the pause of the speaker after each sentence or two to allow the interpreter in taking the floor for interpreting the speech (Gillies, 2017, p. 5), this type of interpreting is more accurate and detailed, for the ability of interpreter to recall everything in detail, and may not need to note-taking due to the short period of time in which the speaker speaks. While the long CI lasts more than five minutes and requires skill and efficiency. The long period of time determines the cognitive competence of the interpreter and his/her ability to recall the information. In this case, he/she needs to note-taking to recall all the details.

There are many ideas and principles used in CI to note-taking. Gillies (2017) points out several ideas that are followed when taking notes: firstly, macro-thinking is "looking at the bigger picture", ideas and words are part of the micro-level, the way of speech and structure are part of the macro-level. The interpreter listens to the speech, which is a set of ideas, idioms, and words arranged in a certain order and related to each other logically or according to their importance. These relationships and structures are repeated in each speech. If the correct way is understood, note taking will be the visible representation of the SL analysis, so that the interpreter can easily convey the message to the audience. Secondly, capacity: as we have mentioned before, the CI occurs in two phases, the first phase is when the orator is speaking and the second phase is when the interpreter is interpreting. During these two processes, a lot of tasks occur, all of which are the responsibility of the interpreter who has a limited intellectual capacity. If the interpreter concentrated on writing notes, trying to decipher the speech, he/she will listen less, and if his/her notes are illegible or unclear, it will affect the speed of interpreting because he/she will make an effort to read it. In order to improve mental capacity, the same tasks must be done, but by using less of capacity on some of the tasks. Thirdly, automization or internalization, Gillies defines it as an activity which "[is] repeatedly using a consistent method for the completion of a task so that it requires less intellectual effort (becomes automatic), thus leaving time and capacity for other tasks". Thus, the effort to take notes becomes less because the speech is internalized without stopping to think. So, it will have a positive effect on the process of CI. Finally, a bottom-up approach, in this case, the interpreter listens to part of the speech of SL and analyzes it immediately before taking notes (Gillies, 2017, pp. 8-9-10-11)

In addition, there are principles for taking notes. Rozan (1956) was the first to set the fundamental principles of taking notes. The aim of these principles is to reduce a time-consuming by casting a glance at the notes that were written and concentrating on the basic ideas (as cited in Persaud, 2016, pp. 93-94).

The first principle of Rozan (2002) is noting the idea and not the word. When taking notes, the diplomatic interpreter must focus on the idea rather than the words

(Rozan, 2002, p. 15). Chen (2016) explained that it was expressed as "comprehension" or "analysis" before taking notes. Therefore, interpreters should focus, in the first place, on the main idea, not the words during taking their notes (Chen, 2016, p. 153).

The second principle of Rozan is the rules of abbreviation. Rozan (2002) suggested that the word which consists of more than (4-5) letters should be abbreviated in order to facilitate its notation. So, the latter letter was written as a superscript. For instance, C^{on} is an abbreviation of *commission* and C^{ee} is an abbreviation of *committee*. While the other rules of abbreviations: A) gender, which is indicated by the addition of ^{e} or ^{s} to the abbreviation or symbol. B) Tense, which is indicated by the addition of ^{d} to the past, such as *suggest^d* and ^{ll} to the future such as *I will* can be written: I^{ll}. C) The register, which is abbreviated by using fewer letters, but conveying the meaning of the word itself. For instance, *situation* can be noted *sit^{on}* (Rozan, 2002, pp. 16-17).

The third principle of Rozan is the links, which work to link ideas and its sequence. Links are an important and indispensable part for taking notes because "an idea can be distorted completely if its relation to the previous idea is not clearly indicated". It can be referred to the links either by using keywords, for instance, (*tho*) which refers to *although, despite, etc*., and (*but*) which refers to *nevertheless, on the other hand, etc*. Or by using symbols, for instance, (=) which refers to *the same goes for, to equal* and (≠) refers to *on the other hand, contrary to, etc.*

The fourth principle of Rozan is negation. It is noted by placing a line through a symbol or word, for instance, *Ok* refers to *agree* and *O̶k̶* refers to *disagree* and it can be noted: *no Ok*.

The fifth principle of Rozan is the emphasis. It happens by emphasizing the word by underlining it and if it is of the utmost importance, two lines are put (Rozan, 2002, pp. 18-19). For instance, *The situation in Iraq is very interesting int^g* and *The situation in Iraq is exceedingly interesting int^g*.

The sixth principle of Rozan is *verticality*. Rozan (2002) described it as the backbone of taking notes system. Notes are taken from top to bottom, this technique helps to assemble ideas logically and be in two forms: A) stacking by placing the symbols vertically and stacking above or under each other (Rozan, 2002, pp. 20-21), for instance,

The statistics on Latin America is interesting $\underline{Stat^{ics}}$ int^g
                                                     Lat. Am.

B) Using brackets, for example,

A decline in prices, which indicates the development in the situation. ✗ *prices* (↗ sit^{on})
(The symbol ✗ refers to decrease and ↗ refers to increase).

The seventh principle of Rozan is the shift. Rozan (2002) also described it as the backbone of taking notes system. It is noted by placing it on a lower line where the other symbols have appeared above it, for instance,

"*Over the course of 1954, prices rose, although not to the same extent as income, thus the population's net income increased.*" (Rozan, 2002, p. 21)

$$54, prices \nearrow$$

$$but\text{-----------}no = income$$

$$so \text{ ------- } pop^{on} \nearrow$$

In addition to Rozan's seven principles, he has laid down 20 symbols of taking notes. The diplomatic interpreters in their negotiations and conferences rely on them until this day. Their use is not only restricted to this field, but also covers all fields of CI. Rozan (2002) points out that the first ten symbols are essential for taking notes in the CI. They will be explained in brief (Rozan, 2002, pp. 26-27-28-29-30-31).

A. The Symbols of Expression	
I. Thought :	
e.g. *My delegation believes that*	*my delegation :*
II. Speech ”	
e.g. *The comments made by the UK delegation*	*”s UK*
III. Discussion Θ	
e.g. *European Commission will discuss the proposals made by ....*	*Eur C^{on} Θ prop^{als}*
IV. Approval OK	
e.g. *The USA delegation agrees with the report made by the delegation from France.*	*USA <u>OK</u> R^{ort} Fr*
B. The Symbols of Motion	
I. The arrow for direction (or transfer) →	
e.g. *which lead to serious problems*	→ *prob^{s}*
II. The arrow for increase ↗	
e.g. *An increase in duties*	↗ *duties*
III. The Arrow for Decrease ↙	
e.g. *Slow-down in business*	↙ *business*
C. The Symbols of Correspondence	
I. Relation /	
e.g. *Which have been slightly affected somewhat by a cut of tax*	*affect^{ed}/ ↙tax*
II. Equivalence =	
e.g. *...for countries like Austria*	*for countries = A*
III. Difference ≠	
e.g. *The situation in Iraq cannot be compared to that in Syria*	*sit^{on} Ir ≠ Sy.*
IV. Framing [ ]	
e.g. *The problem we are in...*	*prob^{s} [we]*

Indeed, researchers warn to rely too much on notes that were written during the speech without good memory, analysis, correct understanding, rewording and re-expression (Al-Zahran, 2007, p. 100).

All of the above-mentioned discussion of CI, including its ideas, strategies, principles and symbols are just tools which help the diplomatic interpreter in his/her conferences and negotiations so that he/she can convey the basic ideas in the shortest possible time for participants.

2.4.2.2. Simultaneous interpreting (SI)

Simultaneous interpreting (SI) is one of the most recent systems, it was used for the first time, according to western authors, in 1927 at the International Labor Conference, while according to the Soviet history in 1928 at VI Congress of the Comintern in Moscow (Flerov, 2013, p. 2; Al-Zahran, 2007, p. 16). Other sources indicate that the 15th International Congress of Physiology of 1935 in Leningrad was the first place in which (SI) was used. In this conference, five languages were used which were interpreted and transferred to the audience by a wired system. The conference was chaired by the Academician Ivan Pavlov and his opening speech was interpreted simultaneously from Russian into English, German and French (Gaiba, 1998, p. 31). But the global publicity of the 1945 Nuremberg Trials participated significantly to its popularity. It was used later in international conferences and all international organizations, since the admission of Chinese, Russian and Spanish to the United Nations. It was used as a beginning to solving the time-saving problem that CI requires (Al-Zahran, 2007, p. 16).

In spite of the difference of sources about its use for the first time, the Nuremberg Trials sometimes called "The Trial of Six Million Words" on 20 November 1945, is the official use or the so-called official birthday of simultaneous interpreting of conferences (Matasov, 2017, pp. 3-9).

SI began when "the representatives of the German High Command signed the Act of Military Surrender in Karlshorst, Berlin", thus World War II ended. After that, the Allied powers (the USA, the UK, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and France) created "the Charter of the International Military Tribunal" and Lord Justice Colonel Sir Geoffrey Lawrence was appointed to be a chief judge of the Nuremberg trials.

The followed traditional mode at that time was consecutive CI, but the trial required a faster technique which assures understanding among all members of the trial.

So, Colonel Léon Dostert, American scholar and General Eisenhower's interpreter, was assigned to find a solution. He suggested that the optimal solution is using (SI) after being appointed as manager of the interpreting department of the International Military Tribunal (IMT) Secretariat. So, he became responsible for three teams of simultaneous interpreters who were taking turns during interpreting in the Nuremberg Trials (Matasov, 2017, p. 1).

After approval of Dostert's suggestion of using (SI), the following step was to find the necessary equipment to carry out the (SI) in the court. So, Justice Robert Jackson, who was arranging the Nuremberg trial with other prosecutors in London, asked his son William to go to Washington to take a look at the equipment. Ensign William Jackson contacted American International Business Machines Corporation (IBM) to provide the newest equipment. So, IBM responded to his request on August 8, 1945, and offered to provide the courtroom with "Hushaphone Filene-Findlay (sic) system" at no fee, provided that the US government can pay only for the shipment and delivery to Nuremberg and its installation in the courtroom (Gaiba, 1998, pp. 36-38-39).

Dostert began to prepare for selecting and recruiting of interpreters to work as simultaneous interpreters at the Nuremberg trials. The recruitment was in two stages. The first stage, the test would take place in Washington, London, Geneva and Paris to discover candidates' skills in listening and interpreting at the same time. The second stage would be after passing the candidates of the first stage where they would test them in Nuremberg to see if they deserved the opportunity to work in this task. Among the candidates for this task were Patricia van der Elst, Elisabeth Heyward and others. Their ages ranged from 18-30 years (Matasov, 2017, pp. 4-5-8).

After completing the task of recruiting simultaneous interpreters, they became 36 interpreters within three teams (A, B, C). Each team consists of 12 interpreters and is distributed to four booths. Each booth consists of three interpreters and is allocated to a specific working language, including (English, French, Russian and German). Each interpreter had three working languages (German, French and Russian). Each team

worked for 85 minutes and when one of the interpreters was interpreting, the other two interpreters waited until their turn would come. Once the interpreter had finished his/her work, he/she would pass the microphone to his/her colleague to take his/her turn (Matasov, 2017, pp. 3-4-5). The following figure (4) will explain the work of one of the teams, for instance, Team A

Figure (4) Team A in the Nuremberg Trials (12 simultaneous interpreters and each booth includes three interpreters and they interpreted for one working language)

Dostert suggested that the location of the "aquarium" for simultaneous interpreters should be near the defendants' seats. According to his experience, it is important for the interpreters to observe the defendants' behaviour, gestures, hand movements, and so on. In addition, the booths were not soundproofing as nowadays, but were enclosed on three sides with low glass panels and without a ceiling. But nowadays a soundproofing booth has become mandatory for the work of simultaneous interpreters.

One hand microphone and three sets of earphones were installed in each booth at the Nuremberg Trials. The system that has been installed in the courtroom consists of five channels: the first channel transferred the original speech and was designed for interpreters. The second channel is for the English language. The third channel would be for the French language. The fourth channel would be for the German language. While the Russian language takes the fifth channel (Matasov, 2017, p. 3). Thus, all the

audience have earphones and can listen to any channel they want to listen to their interpreting.

Simultaneous interpreters lasted interpreting for 216 days of the Nuremberg trials, which had a profound impact on the whole world. In an interview with Sir Hartley Shawcross, the UK's chief prosecutor, he expressed appreciation for the simultaneous interpreters' work at the trial, saying: "I am of the opinion that simultaneous interpretation should be adopted at all international meetings as it saves so much time." (Matasov, 2017, pp. 9-10).

Simultaneous interpreters have proven their proficiency in this task and their names have been written in the history of interpreting. This type of interpreting became applicable as recommended by Sir Hartley Shawcross and is now used in all international conferences and being taught at all universities of the world (Matasov, 2017, p. 10).

It is noticeable that SI is the most common type because it saves so much time in the diplomatic sphere and the most complex and difficult one because when the speaker is speaking; he/she keeps talking without stop; at the same time the interpreter listens to the speaker and interprets in his/her mind; delivers his/her interpreting through a microphone while listening to the speaker's speech. Therefore, a few interpreters can deal with this type of interpreting (Chen and Dong, 2010, p. 714). According to Setton (1999) defines SI more clearly

> Simultaneous interpretation (SI), a service which allows participants at international meetings to speak and follow proceedings in their own languages, is widely viewed as a particularly impressive form of rapid, instant translation [...], in which interpreters in a sound-proof booth with headsets, control consoles and microphones, and a direct view on the meeting room, deliver versions of the discourse in different languages 'online' with a lag of a few seconds, alternating every 20-30 minutes or as Speakers take turns on the conference floor (Setton, 1999, p. 1).

SI is the interpreting of a speech in the TL at the same time as the speaker is speaking in the SL. In this case, the interpreter does not interact with the audience, nor with the speaker because of his presence in a booth isolated where he/she works, often set up in the back of the meeting room where the interpreting process occurs. The interpreters can hear the speaker through earbuds fed into their ears, and when their turn comes to take the floor; they will broadcast their interpreting into the audience's headphones (Reynoso, 2006, p. 4).

In this context, Chen and Dong (2010, p. 714) have explained the SI process as in the following figure (5)

```
┌──────────┐     ┌──────────┐     ┌──────────────┐     ┌──────────┐     ┌──────────┐
│ Speaker  │┈┈┈▸│ Equipment │┈┈┈▸│ Interpreter  │┈┈┈▸│ Equipment │┈┈┈▸│ Listener │
└──────────┘     └──────────┘     └──────────────┘     └──────────┘     └──────────┘
```
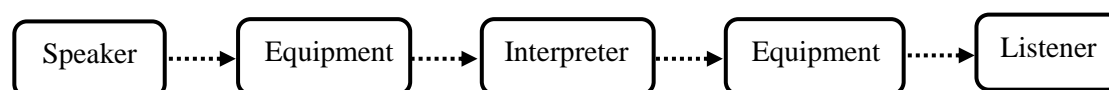
Figure (5) The Process of Simultaneous Interpreting

Cremona and Mallia (2001) point out that SI has different styles: some interpreters when listening to a speaker, interpret the general idea by summarizing the speech that was said without going into too many details, while others rewording the speech. Others seek to interpret the words with completely honest in terms of style, tone of voice, and expressing of gestures (Cremona and Mallia, 2001, p. 302).

In addition, Chen and Dong laid down the basic principles of SI. **1)** Syntactic linearity is a segmentation of the SL sentence into several parts then rearranged to reproduce a new TL sentence, which is the most effective to reduce time between interpreter and speaker. **2)** Adjustment, the interpreter adjusts structure, correction of errors, and adds information to the target language. For instance, English requires adding adverbial modifiers (temporal and spatial) at the end of the sentence. **3)** Anticipation, the interpreter predicts what the speaker will say, this saves a lot of time for him/her. It is common between languages in which the order of the word is not the same. For instance, many languages may start with subject, verb, and object (SVO) such as English and French, but German begins with the subject, object, and verb (SOV). So, the interpreter

must predict whatever the speaker will say and use a neutral word or expression in order to be at the same pace without delay until he/she knows for sure. **4)** Reformulation is used when there is a big difference between languages, for instance, between English and Chinese, it is difficult to interpret word for word, so it will be reformulated by organizing the original information and conveying it into the target language. **5)** Simplification, it is known that in all conferences and negotiations there are words that are difficult to understand and their use has increased recently such as technical, legal, and diplomatic words which are difficult for the audience to understand, for instance, sustainable development, right of law, regulatory bodies, etc., the interpreter tries to simplify the words without affecting the transport of the main information. **6)** Faithfulness is the standard to evaluate interpreting, but it is difficult to follow it in the SI because there is no enough time to think. The interpreter tries to deliver the information and meaning to the listeners as correctly as possible (Chen and Dong, 2010, pp. 714-715-716).

2.4.2.3. Liaison (bilateral) interpreting (LI)

Liaison interpreting (LI) is also called as bilateral, community, and dialogue interpreting. It is used to facilitate communicating between two peoples or two small groups that speak different languages. It is a very common type of interpreting that occurs in formal and informal conversations.

Interpreters often work in one direction but liaison interpreters work to and from two or more languages (from SL into TL and the reverse is true) i.e. in two different directions and that is done by the same person (Oakes, 2015, p. 19). The interpreter should be able to switch languages constantly, and to achieve this he/she must be fluent in both languages and has a deep knowledge of the culture of language he/she is interpreting.

Al-Zahran's description was very accurate for the liaison interpreter "the interpreter [...] works in both directions and clients alternately become speaker and audience during the same interpreted dialogue" (Al-Zahran, 2007, p.23). The LI process can be explained in the following figure (6)

```
English     Interpret      Liaison       Interpret from    Turkish
Speaker    from Tr. into  Interpreter    En. into Tr.      Speaker
```
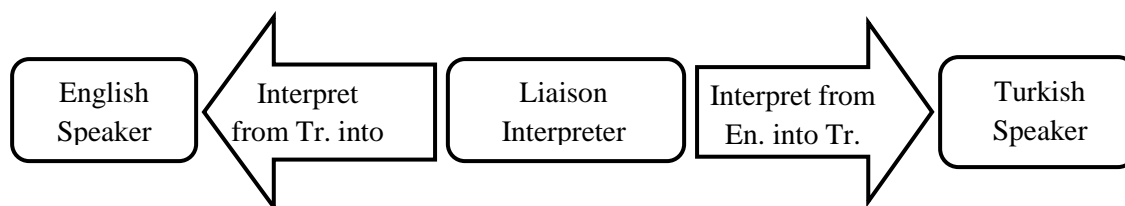
Figure (6) The Process of Liaison Interpreting (LI)

The liaison interpreter is usually present and visible, he/she is considered an element of clients and audience; is not separated from them, his/her presence makes clients feel more comfortable, in case, there is a need to clarify or repeat something to the other party (Oakes, 2015, pp. 19-20). In some cases, interpreters do not communicate face-to-face with the clients such as telephone interpreting, satellite interpreting or maybe between officials at the diplomatic level (Hsieh, 2003, p. 285). He\she is also considered a mediator between languages and cultures. Where the linguistic and cultural communities meet to establish diplomatic and political relations, they will rely on mediators, who are usually practising so-called diplomatic interpreting (Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 14). His/her involvement in the LI as a mediator may impair his/her professional performance and may negatively impact on him/her to stay neutral and committed to a code of ethics and conduct. The International Federation of Translators FIT states that "translators and interpreters shall carry out their work with complete impartiality and not [to] express any personal opinions in the course of their work" (Oakes, 2015, p. 21).

Most of the fields related to LI include a wide scope of formal negotiations such as diplomatic, industrial negotiations, etc., as well as political talks (Brown, 2008, p. 12). LI is not only of these types, but also "several [other] different types of interpreting (e.g. business, court, medical, sign language, and telephone interpreting) are all included in this form of interpreting" (Hsieh, 2003, p. 286).

2.4.2.4. Relay interpreting

The relay interpreting is used especially in the interpreting of conferences when there are multiple target languages and there is no team of interpreters to cover all the working languages. This type of interpreting is also called indirect interpreting. The first interpreter listens to the speaker in the SL and interprets it into the common language, then the second interpreter, who received the common language, interprets it into a third language for the benefit of the audience who speak neither the first language nor the second language.

Dollerup (2000) has defined relay interpreting "as a mediation from source to target language in which the translational product has been realized in another language than that of the original" (Dollerup, 2000, p. 4). It is usually used at meetings when the United Nations host the speakers of the six official languages (Russian, Spanish, English, Chinese, French, and Arabic). For instance, if the SL speaker speaks Chinese, the interpreters of Arabic, Russian and Spanish do not understand the language spoken (Chinese language). They will rely on the common language, English or French, which is called "pivot" and then interpret the English language to their groups that do not understand English or Chinese. As illustrated in the following figure (7):
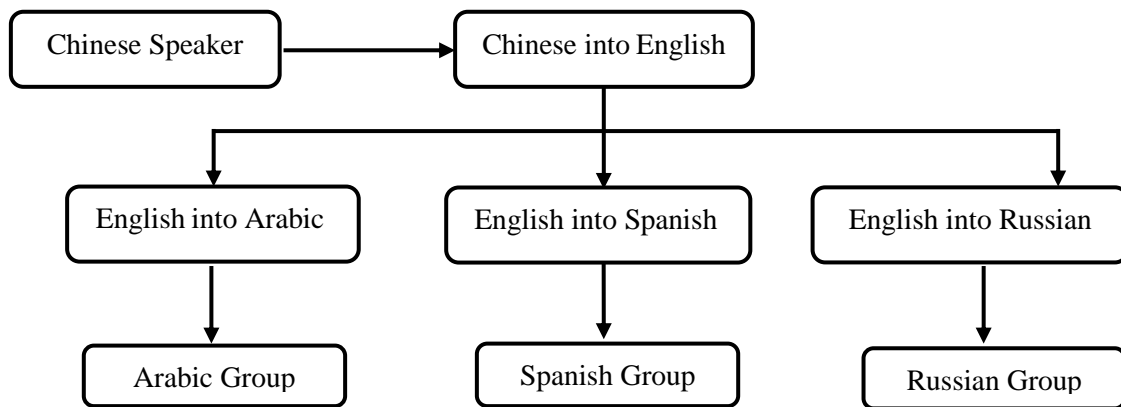
Figure (7) The Process of Relay Interpreting

In this process, the quality of interpreting may be reduced for it passes through several steps, the fewer number of the transmission the more accurate the message is.

The process of relay interpreting occurs at conferences, but the audience does not know that the relay interpreting technique is being used because they are receiving interpretation through headphones and perhaps the only thing they notice is that there is a delay to convey the interpretation.

Some considerations must be taken into account when using relay interpreting. Firstly, the interpreters who rely on the "pivot" cannot hear the original speaker, therefore, they will miss some original features such as tone, rhythm, etc. Secondly, the interpreters who rely on the "pivot" lack skill in the original language and face variations in meaning and lack of understanding of some cultural references. Thirdly, the interpreters may have trouble pronouncing the names of places and people because they do not know the original language. Fourthly, the interpreters may not be familiar with the geographical and political conditions of the country of the original speaker, in addition to the delay of the original speaker speech until it was interpreted by the "pivot". Therefore, the "pivot" must take all these considerations into account to help interpreters who rely on his/her productivity in interpreting to achieve a successful interpretation and avoid possible mistakes (Al-Zahran, 2007, p. 25).

2.4.2.5. Whispered (chuchotage) interpreting (WI)

Whispered interpreting (WI) is a form of simultaneous interpreting (SI) (Persaud, 2016, p. 92; Al-Zahran, 2007, p. 17). Baxter (2016) explained that, following Van Hoff, the authors (Aliexa, 1997; Pagera, 2003 and Jones, 2002) classified it as a subtype of SI but whispered interpreter works unlike the simultaneous interpreter without a booth and within a small target audience (Baxter, 2016, p. 61).

It is also called "half-voice" or Chuchotage, a French term meaning whispered interpreting, this term is used by interpreters worldwide due to its long history since the seventeenth century. Interpreters may resort to it when additional equipment cannot be used (Baxter, 2016, p. 61).

WI occurs in one-way when the speaker speaks in the SL then the interpreter whispers its interpretation directly into the client's ear without stopping like the SI but the difference is that the interpreter sits next to the client (maximum of two persons). In some cases, the interpreter may need a system with a microphone and a set of headphones for listeners (Persaud, 2016, p. 92).

Baxter (2016) referred to the problems of WI which may cause annoyance for the audience because all audience speak the language of the speaker and there is neither a possibility of separating the audience from the client/clients nor putting the interpreter in a booth for interpreting. WI has physical problems for the interpreter who permanently twists his/her body towards the listener and this affects on the back and neck if carried out for a long time, especially in the conference centres, which often have a cramped seating. In addition, whispered interpreter is exposed to external noise to sit with the audience, the noise may negatively affect the quality of his/her interpreting because there are no earphones that may increase his/her concentration and performance of his/her job properly (Baxter, 2016, pp. 62-63). An example is what happened in.

> […] the European Social Forum (held in Istanbul in 2010) where sets of earbuds were plugged into the small, hand-held FM transistor radios used as sui generis receivers with all of the interferences imaginable, as a rule WI is performed without the use of headsets by interpreters (Baxter, 2016, p. 63).

Despite the disadvantages of WI that is not negligible for the interpreter and the target audience, this type is recognized by different institutions.

WI is also used in domains such as court interpreting, community interpreting and in peacekeeping negotiations. It is recognized by international institutions such as the United Nations, the European Union and in meetings where there are one or two delegates who speak a language of minority and are listening to the interpreter (Baxter, 2016, p. 61).

2.4.2.6. Sight interpreting

There are some authors who may use the term sight translation (ST) when referring to sight interpreting (SI), a few of them have distinguished different types of it, including "on-sight translation, sight interpreting or SI with text, etc." Many of them view it as a form of interpretation rather than a translation (Li, 2014, pp. 11-12-13).

Sight interpreting is one of the most difficult tasks that is faced by interpreters. The interpreter is asked to read the written ST and render it in the TT aloud. This type of interpreting is considered a bridge between translation and interpretation, i.e. between the written and the spoken (Reynoso, 2006, p. 3).

Li refers to "sight interpreting", more specifically, "SI with text is cognitively more demanding because the interpreter multi-tasks between listening, reading, reformulating, and self-monitoring [....] and has to pay special attention to any omissions or additions" (Li, 2014, p. 13).

In this type of interpreting, the interpreter faces one of the most important factors which is time pressure, so the interpreter must produce an exact rendition in the TL at the same time while reading the text of the SL (Persaud, 2016, p. 90). The written language is usually more formal than the spoken language, the sentences are longer and more complex. The task of interpreting becomes more challenging, especially in the fields of expression, grammatical coordination, and division of ideas that are quite different from the organization of ideas in writing, the shift to a different system from punctuation to the use of intonation and pausing, which makes this technique more challenging and the interpreter is unable to resort to dictionaries and other sources to prepare carefully and in addition to performing it less than other forms of interpreting (Stansfield, 2008, p. 4).

In the United States, this type of interpreting is regarded as an essential technique and has guides that include all names and contact information of interpreters. This type of interpreting is widely used in courts, hospitals and at the diplomatic level. For

example, diplomatic interpreters, who are employed by ministries, consulates, the United Nations, the European Union or other international organizations, are asked to carry out a sight interpreting of the documents. Diplomatic interpreters should perform sight interpreting without any problems because they are usually highly efficient in both languages (Stansfield, 2008, pp. 4-5-9).

The essential skills required to sight interpreters in the US court system and the educational system can be taken into account as requirements that can be applied to sight interpreters in general. Firstly, fast interpretation skills and a high level of literacy. Secondly, previous experience in the sight interpreting from SL into TL in general. Thirdly, high-efficiency level, and solid knowledge of the culture and geographic region in both SL and TL (Stansfield, 2008, p. 10).

Therefore, this technique is very important at many levels and has special requirements. Thus, the interpreters find it more difficult because they perform other types of interpretation more frequently.

2.4.3. Settings of interpretation

2.4.3.1. Conference interpreting

International conferences interpreting began in the late nineteenth century and was not a recognized specialized science until the early twentieth century. It became a distinct and organized branch of modern interpretation branches with the emergence of simultaneous interpreting and international institutions and their evolution. Therefore, it is one of the most qualified branches of interpreting in terms of formal and high level and the most organized in terms of language classification, users expectations, ethics and professional standards, training, and access to the profession (Setton and Dawrant, 2016, p. 30).

The policy of language equality advocated by the European Union (EU) has helped to spread of conference interpreting to all spheres of communication of languages and cultures, although it is related only with multilateral diplomatic interpreting. The most important characteristic of conference interpreting is that it occurs within a certain formula of interaction "conference" and is often determined in an international environment, although there is a large domestic market for conference interpreting services between English and the national language (Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 16).

The oldest monograph by Jean Herbert on the conferences interpreting was (*The Interpreter's Handbook*), which appeared in 1952 in three languages, devoted to "Paul Mantoux, the first Conference Interpreter". No one thought that the conference interpreting would be the subject of study. Nevertheless, Eva Paneth had completed at the University of London in 1957 a master's thesis in this field (Pöchhacker, 2004, pp. 32-33).

The conferences interpreting is the work performed by an interpreter who is working on interpreting the speaker's speech in "real time" from one language into another language, i.e., from SL into TL. The work is usually done in this field in two modes of interpreting: simultaneous interpreting (SI) and consecutive interpreting (CI) where interpreters work into their mother tongue, especially in multilingual conferences.

Setton (2010) defined conference interpreting in terms of the following essential features:

1- Setting and status: typically, high-level formal meetings and negotiations;

2- Mode: mainly simultaneous interpretation (SI), or 'full' or extended consecutive with notes;

3- Qualification: most practitioners receive intensive initial training tailored to these skills and setting;

4-   Professionalization: most conference interpreters work within a framework of norms and conditions promoted and defended by a dedicated international association (Setton, 2010, p. 66).

Interpreting of conferences has been divided into two parts: Firstly, multilingual conferences in international organizations or special multilingual treaties. As is the case with the EU, which is the largest employer of interpreters in multilingual groups, the meetings may reach up to 23 languages and 506 pairs of potential languages. Secondly, bilingual conferences usually occur in local markets where interpreting takes place between the national language and the English language, i.e., interpreters are working between their native language (A) and their active (acquired) language (B). For instance, native language A (Chinese), active language B (English) in China, and the native language A (French), the active language (B) in most parts of Africa (Setton, 2010, p. 67).

The rapid spread of conference interpreting was not limited to international organizations, but extended to private sector meetings. For instance, the recent statistics showed that intergovernmental organizations account for around half of the total number of AIIC conference interpreters in Europe, 37% in North America, 20% in Latin America and 30% in Asia-Pacific. Private sector meetings and other types making up the rest (Setton and Dawrant, 2016, p. 30).

The traditional mode of conference interpreting was the consecutive interpreting (CI) because speakers preferred to speak for several minutes at each meeting. This method was insufficient and then the interpreters developed it into 'extended' long consecutive with taking notes. Nowadays, this technique is used in diplomatic meetings, smaller international meetings and press conferences (Setton, 2010, pp. 68-69). With the development of modern equipment, technologies, increasing conferences and meetings at all diplomatic, political, technical levels, etc, users prefer simultaneous interpreting because it saves time and makes communication more effective. Its use makes up to 90%

of conference interpreting work. So, the use of this technique has become widely used in all international organizations and conferences (Reynoso, 2006, p. 6).

Nowadays, conference interpreters are undergoing vocational training courses at postgraduate level for one or two years or intensive orientation training if they work as permanent staff of an international organization (Setton, 2010, p. 71) because they need multiple skills and settings that meet a wide range of their needs. These skills are characterized by many features, including a short period of time, the amount of information and variation in the meetings, the cognitive constraints associated with prevalent mode of interpreting in the conferences, the high professional independence in the work, in addition to having high proficiency in the negative language (C) and language acquired (B) (Setton and Dawrant, 2016, p. 31).

To ensure professional standards, the interpreters of conferences must join strong representative bodies, such as the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC), which defines technical, ethical standards, quality of interpretation and defines the working conditions that it negotiates with employers, such as the EU and the UN, as well as ensuring pay levels. It is the professional ethics of conference interpreters not to intervene to provide explanations, request for clarifications or adjust language record, but they keep themselves apart from meetings and stay in their booths (Setton, 2010, pp. 67-68), in addition to entire confidentiality in the work and non-disclosure of what is going on behind the scenes, and this is the essence and the basis of professionalism and work in diplomatic conferences.

Conference interpreters may face some challenges during their work performance. Firstly, the pressures arising from the long working periods. So, the conference interpreters work in teams of two or three, they are alternating every 30-40 minutes for the quality of the interpretation. The interpreter's work should not exceed six hours a day. Secondly, temperature, ventilation and space in the booth are important factors for the interpreter. Thirdly, placing the interpreters' booth next to the conference room may prevent vision, so they cannot read the gestures of the speaker, facial

expressions, or lips which may negatively affect the interpretation process. Fourthly, the conference interpreters should be briefed on the issue and purpose of the meeting and provided with references and documents because this is very important for the interpreters before the conference. Fifthly, the speaker's voice cannot be heard through the microphone or cases of "mishearings" that lead to misunderstanding and frustration of the interpreter to deliver a high-quality interpretation (Reynoso, 2006, pp. 4-5).

There are other challenges that may face the conference interpreters in the diplomatic sphere and sensitive conferences such as sacrificing style rather than risking and making an error in meaning because they do not understand the speaker in the source language.

Then, the development of international relations has helped to find ways to organize the international community by holding international conferences and meetings to tackle diplomatic and other issues. This is what is observed in the United Nations, the European Union and other bodies which hold conferences attended by heads of state, diplomats and representatives of states to discuss pending issues and diplomatic problems. All these conferences and the increase of international languages made the need for conference interpreting urgent and made the interpreter deal with different topics and information, which adds to his/her experience a tremendous amount of information throughout his/her work period in the diplomatic sphere.

III: CHALLENGES IN THE TRANSLATION/INTERPRETATION OF DIPLOMATIC LANGUAGE

3.1. A General Overview

"The primary medium of diplomacy is language [....]. Diplomats are masters of language" (Scott, 2007, p. 2). So, language is their profession in diplomacy, which involves linguistic tact. Since the diplomats deal with language, they face challenges that arise from their use of it and its translation into several languages. The challenges they face are many and cannot be limited to a factor or two. Yet there are several factors that can be mentioned in general and then I will concentrate on the most important challenges facing the diplomatic language that is ambiguity. It is the most common challenge in the diplomatic sphere.

The challenges, in general, arise from language problems. These are:

1)   Framing, it is one of the strategies used in diplomatic negotiations involving the creation of new words or changes in definitions, that cause misunderstanding and challenge to diplomatic translators/interpreters. For instance, the situation in Iraq was referred to as rogue nations, but the new expression is States of concern. These expressions or terms do not change the current reality of instability and disorder in the country, but may refer to future alliances and shift in attitudes towards Iraq.

2)   Ambiguity occurs when the same phrase or word has more than one meaning and the meanings do not correspond. For instance, a) the word bill may mean draft law or *invoice*. B) The word *bear* may mean *to tolerate people* or *give birth to (e.g. Mary cannot bear any baby)* (is Mary sterile or is she intolerant to a baby?).

3)   An equivalence occurs when "the words are close approximations, but not exact equivalents" (Scott, 2007, p. 3). For instance, (trickle – river - stream) all these words refer to water flow and our use of the word depends on the size of the running water. If

we look at the French words (*fleuve, rivière*), the difference between them is whether the water flows into the sea. The (*fleuve*) is a river flowing into the sea. The same thing in diplomacy, the word *peace* in English corresponds to the Arabic word *salam* (peace as negotiation) and *sulh* (peace as reconciliation). In the case of lexical non-equivalence among languages, borrowing, rewording or creating a new word will be used (Scott, 2007, p. 3).

4)   An idiom "is a fixed phrase whose form is usually unchangeable, and whose meaning is always the same, inflexible, metaphorical and indirect" (Ghazala, 1995, p. 128). For instance, *frank exchange of views* means *opinions are very different* and *to bend the truth* means *distorting the truth*.

5)   A metaphor is a major problem for translators/interpreters who are working in the diplomatic sphere, it focuses attention on showing certain characteristics of basic rather than secondary concepts (Morrison, 2010, pp. 6-7-15). For instance, (*the news was a dagger to his heart*), (*racing against time*), "Gunboat diplomacy" [3] and "Shuttle diplomacy"[4]. Ghazala (1995, p. 146) defines metaphor as a linguistic expression and a figure of speech, which is meant to be used and understood in an indirect and non-literal style in order to achieve a kind of similarity of two texts. According to Newmark (1988), metaphor is "the most important particular problem [in] the translation" (p. 104). He divided the metaphor into six types:

A)   Dead metaphors do not have a metaphorical meaning. Language users use it unconsciously, for this reason, they are called dead. They are often used to describe time, space, parts of the body, geographical objects and activities of people. The problem faced by the translator is that it cannot be translated literally (Oliynyk, 2014, p. 124). For instance, *iron resolution, on the other hand*, and *time is running out*.

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[3]"Gunboat diplomacy- a foreign policy that is supported by the use or threat of military force, a term now associated particularly with British imperial power" (Encyclopedia, 2018).

[4] "Shuttle diplomacy- international negotiations conducted by a mediator who frequently flies back and forth between the negotiating parties; "Kissinger's shuttle diplomacy in the Middle East" (The Free Dictionary, 2018)

B)   Cliché metaphor is used frequently and daily. It is a popular and informal type (Ghazala, 1995, p. 148). "A cliché is a metaphor which due to repetitive use in social life, has lost its original, often ingenious heuristic power" (Ain and Abdul-Aziz, 2014, p. 74). For instance, (*as brave as a lion*) (to refer to the brave person)*, (*at the speed of light*) (to do things in a quick way) and (*please, give us a precise of your mind*) (to refer to the frank opinion).

C)   Stock or standard metaphors are metaphors used to describe concrete or abstract concepts, as well as having an emotional impact on the readers. The translator has difficulty in translating this kind of metaphors at times because these metaphors may be outdated or used by a certain class of people (Newmark, 1988, p. 108; Oliynyk, 2014, p. 125). For instance, British politics use a metaphor *The Shadow Home Secretary* which means that the person who works in the shadow cabinet, i.e., monitoring government policy on internal affairs such as national security, police, etc.

D)   Recent metaphors are metaphorical neologisms, many of these metaphors are anonymous and generally spread in the source language (Oliynyk, 2014, p. 125). For instance, *The Arab spring* is a series of protests against the government that spread throughout the Middle East in late 2010.

E)   Original metaphors are the best metaphors and the easiest in translation. The best way to translate original metaphors is to translate them literally because they reflect the writer's views and his/her personality as it is a good choice for enriching the target language. For instance, "*window of opportunity*", it means that there is an opportunity to do something, so it needs to be taken advantage of quickly. "*A ton of silence*", it means absolute silence (Newmark, 1988, pp. 112-113).

F)   Adapted metaphors are similar to stock metaphors that have been adapted into a new context by their writer or speaker. The difficulty faced by the translator in translating this type of metaphors is to attempt to translate more smartly than the original text. For instance, President Ronald Reagan in one of his speeches when he challenged

the Soviet Union to return to arms talks, saying "*the ball is really in their court*", means it is time to take a decision because others have previously taken responsibility (Newmark, 1988, p. 111).

There is another challenge in the translation of diplomatic texts is the high cost, for instance, the official languages of the United Nations are Russian, Spanish, English, Chinese, French, and Arabic while working languages are English and French. If "[…] it was calculated that the translation of one single page to all official languages of the UN amounted to the value necessary to cover the cost of living for one person in India for a whole year!" (Nick, 2001, p. 47). In addition, the difficulty of drafting equivalent documents and treaties in different languages. For instance, the versions of working languages rely on the simultaneous interpretation records and the preparation of other language versions separately. The drafting committee needs one member for each language and members proficient in two or more languages used to ensure compatible texts correctly. The negotiating body is preparing drafts for a committee to check simultaneous interpretation recordings and issue versions in languages that have not been used as working languages. This committee sometimes meets again after ratifying the treaty for making language amendments among versions (Kappeler, 2001, p. 204).

3.2.   Ambiguity in Diplomatic Language

Humpty Dumpty: 'There's glory for you!'

 'I don't know what you mean by "glory," Alice said.

 Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. 'Of course you don't--

till I tell you. I meant "there's a nice knock-down argument for you!"

 'But "glory" doesn't mean "a nice knock-down argument," Alice objected.

'When I use a word,' Humpty Dumpty said in rather a scornful

tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean--neither more nor less.'

 'The question is,' said Alice, 'whether you CAN make words

mean so many different things.'

'The question is,' said Humpty Dumpty, 'which is to be master--that's all.'

<div align="right">(Carroll, 1971, pp. 42-43)</div>

From this quote, it is a good point for discussing diplomatic language and the various meanings for the same phrase, word, or sentence it contains, which is known as an ambiguity. Pehar (2005, p. 156) points out that ambiguity cannot be ignored as incomprehensible or non-sense, but we must try hard in order to understand the intentions of ambiguity producer or to learn more about the context of such ambiguity.

The translation of ambiguity in international relations is not recent because misleading translations were as old as history in international relations. Parent (2009, pp. 144-145) in his article *Ambiguity and Incongruity of Terms in Translations of International Treaties* writes that there was a Russian chronicle between the ninth and thirteenth centuries that was about the Russians who came to Kiev. The chronicler or who translated the chronicle was not fully familiarized with the Norse languages. According to the chronicler, three brothers from *Varangian* determined to sail with their tribe to Russia. The elder brother, *Riurik*, resided in Novgorod and the second brother, "*Sineus*, in *Beloozero*" and *Truvor*, the third brother, resided in *Izborsk*. But the translator of the chronicle or the chronicler misunderstood the names. He/she was thought to be the names of the brothers who had sailed to Kiev. In fact, *Riurik* was a leader of the *Varangian* and travelling with his family and armed men's group. Whilst *Sineus* is his house and his family in Old East Norse. *Truvor* refers to *the loyal brothers in arms* of the Varangian leader. This example explains the misunderstanding and ambiguity across the history of international relations at the time. In recent centuries, diplomatic history has offered many examples of ambiguity and misleading translations that have led to conflicts and wars among nations. It was not just for that, but also these ambiguous translations may lead to the loss of sovereignty of states.

Diplomats in the diplomatic sphere are not without their language of ambiguity. It is the tool in their negotiations, conferences and treaties among states. The ambiguity plays an important role in linguistic politeness. So, Pehar (2001b) points out "that

[ambiguity] combines two conflicting desires: the desire to convey a clear message that, in its authentic form, would insult a human being, and the desire to soften the message to avoid making that human being feel offended or humiliated" (p. 164). It also has an important role in the political world, as Edelman pointed out "[....] ambiguity [is] neither deviations nor pathologies ...[it] constitutes the political world" (as cited in Scott, 2007, p. 10). It is a tool that helps to open room for subsequent interpretation and is considered as a form of diplomacy. Scott (2001) explains "in conference diplomacy, the successful diplomat engaged in the negotiation of texts will often strive to persuade his interlocutors to reach agreement on a form of words which combines precision with ambiguity" (p. 153).

In other words, ambiguity in the convention refers to two or more meanings and thus allows both parties to translate/interpret the convention to serve their own interests. These ambiguous formulas perform a diplomatic function that allows a kind of compatibility when the negotiating parties cannot reach an agreement. Ambiguity is used when negotiating parties have conflicting interests and there is no time to resolve these conflicting interests, in addition, the parties are not ready to make concessions. So, in this case, ambiguity is used in the convention and put a formula that can be interpreted in two different ways (A) and (B), and one of them to satisfy the A's party and the other to satisfy the B's party. Therefore, each party retaining their own perceptions, in addition to that, one common language between the two parties is adopted, which both parties may use it later. And each party focuses on a possible interpretation. For instance, the party (A) focuses on the possible interpretation (A) while the party (B) focuses on the possible interpretation (B) or, on the contrary, both of them hope that the ambiguity provision chosen will provide enough substance to meet their demands even for a temporary period (Pehar, 2001b, p. 170).

The ambiguity in diplomacy between the negotiating parties results in (the exploiter) and (the victim). In other words, the user of the ambiguity is the first party to be identified as (the exploiter), while (the victim) is the other party who is the victim of the ambiguity. For instance, two parties one of them (A) and the other (B), the first party

(A) represents the exploiter who knows that there is ambiguity in the agreement while the other party (B) is the victim who does not know that there is ambiguity and thinks that there is one interpretation, so it signs the agreement assuming (believing) that the party (A) will sign as well. Hence, the exploiter party (A) starts by pressing on the victim (B) in order to respond in various ways even if it is unsatisfactory to the victim. Party (B) can accuse party (A) of being deceptive or it simply gives up the signature of the ambiguous agreement (Pehar, 2005, pp. 160-161). But, due to the ambiguity, the party (B) cannot find a satisfactory solution that proves that party A's interpretation is wrong and arbitrary.

3.2.1. The role of the translator/interpreter as mediator

As for the mediator's role in diplomatic agreements that carry an ambiguous style between both parties involved in a conflict, his/her role is to explain why there is an ambiguous provision and what the reason is for proposing an ambiguous wording of the provision in these diplomatic agreements without explaining his/her own interpretation.

There are several things that the mediator must explain to the two parties. Firstly, there is an ambiguous provision in the convention. Secondly, each party has an equal right to present its own interpretation. Thirdly, each party presents its arguments in favour of a specific interpretation it has chosen, for instance, the interpretation (A) or the interpretation (B). Fourthly, the ambiguous provision, which carries an ambiguous formula, has been intentionally left open for more than one interpretation. But ultimately, the interpretation that has been chosen to find a compromise between incompatible interpretations must be adopted, to each of the two parties that have taken a specific interpretation to serve their own interests. In addition, the mediator must explain the ambiguity and does not risk of silence about it (Pehar, 2001b, pp. 194-195). It can be concluded that if the two parties realize that the convention carries an ambiguous formula that has not been announced by the negotiator, the mediator will cause loss of the two parties. If the two parties do not have a relationship of trust with the mediator,

they should sufficiently trust him/her. For, if there was no trust, there was no explanation.

As for the translator's role with regard to ambiguity, Greenstein states:

> If the original is ambiguous, if the style is twisted and convoluted, the translator must choose a term as ambiguous, a style as convoluted in the target language. The translator must not clarify. The role of the translator is not to interpret, but he has to warn, using footnotes, about the problems of the original text (as cited in Parent, 2009, p. 155).

3.3. Types of Ambiguity

Ambiguity is a property of linguistic characteristics. It is an obstacle to language because the main goal of language is to convey ideas and information clearly from person (A) to person (B) (Pehar, 2001, p.163). But ambiguity does not meet the requirements of this goal because it leaves the recipient of the message in a confusion.

Bach (1994) defines ambiguity as any "word, phrase, or sentence" which has more than one meaning (Bach, 1998, p. 11). In the same regard, Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba (2017) state that any "word, phrase, or sentence" which has more than one interpretation is ambiguous (p. 44). For instance, *light* can mean *not heavy* or *not dark* as in this ambiguous sentence "*The colours and the feathers are light*." (Sennet, 2016). Munson (1976) explains that "An expression is ambiguous when it has more than one meaning and it is used in a situation or context in which it can be understood in at least two different ways" (as cited in Awwad, 2017a, p. 201).

To illustrate the process of ambiguity, let's take a look at the following figure (8). It will be noticed that the picture cannot be described as a duck and a rabbit at the same time, either be a duck or be a rabbit or describe it as a third neutral picture, which is close to, or far from, both duck and rabbit. This is exactly what happens with ambiguity, which is considered multifaceted (Morrison, 2010, p. 9). And since ambiguity is part of

language, it "1. Can be interpreted as meaning A, 2. Can be interpreted as meaning B, and 3. Cannot be interpreted as A and B simultaneously" (Pehar, 2001b, p. 164).
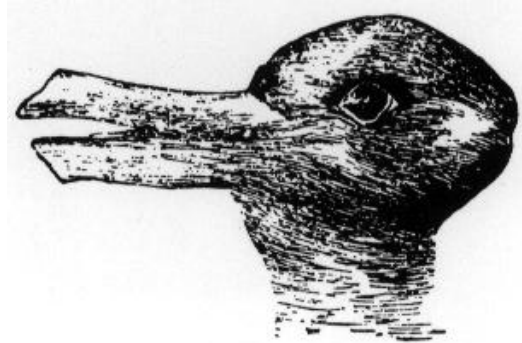
Figure (8) The Process of Ambiguity (Duck-Rabbit Picture)

There are two types of ambiguity: linguistic and non-linguistic. The linguistic ambiguity includes several types: Lexical ambiguity, syntactic ambiguity, pragmatic ambiguity, semantic ambiguity, cross-textual ambiguity, and cross-cultural ambiguity (Zhang, 2011, p. 38). In addition, ambiguity is classified according to the characteristics of intention: Intentional ambiguity and unintentional ambiguity (Yuzhannikova, 2015, p. 535), as explained in the following figure (9):

Ambiguity According to its Linguistic Levels

Linguistic Ambiguity		Non-Linguistic Ambiguity

Lexical Ambiguity

Syntactic Ambiguity

Cross-textual Ambiguity

Pragmatic Ambiguity

Semantic Ambiguity

Cross-Cultural Ambiguity

Ambiguity According to Its Intention

Intentional Ambiguity		Unintentional Ambiguity

Politics

Diplomacy

Conferences, Negotiations, Treaties, etc.
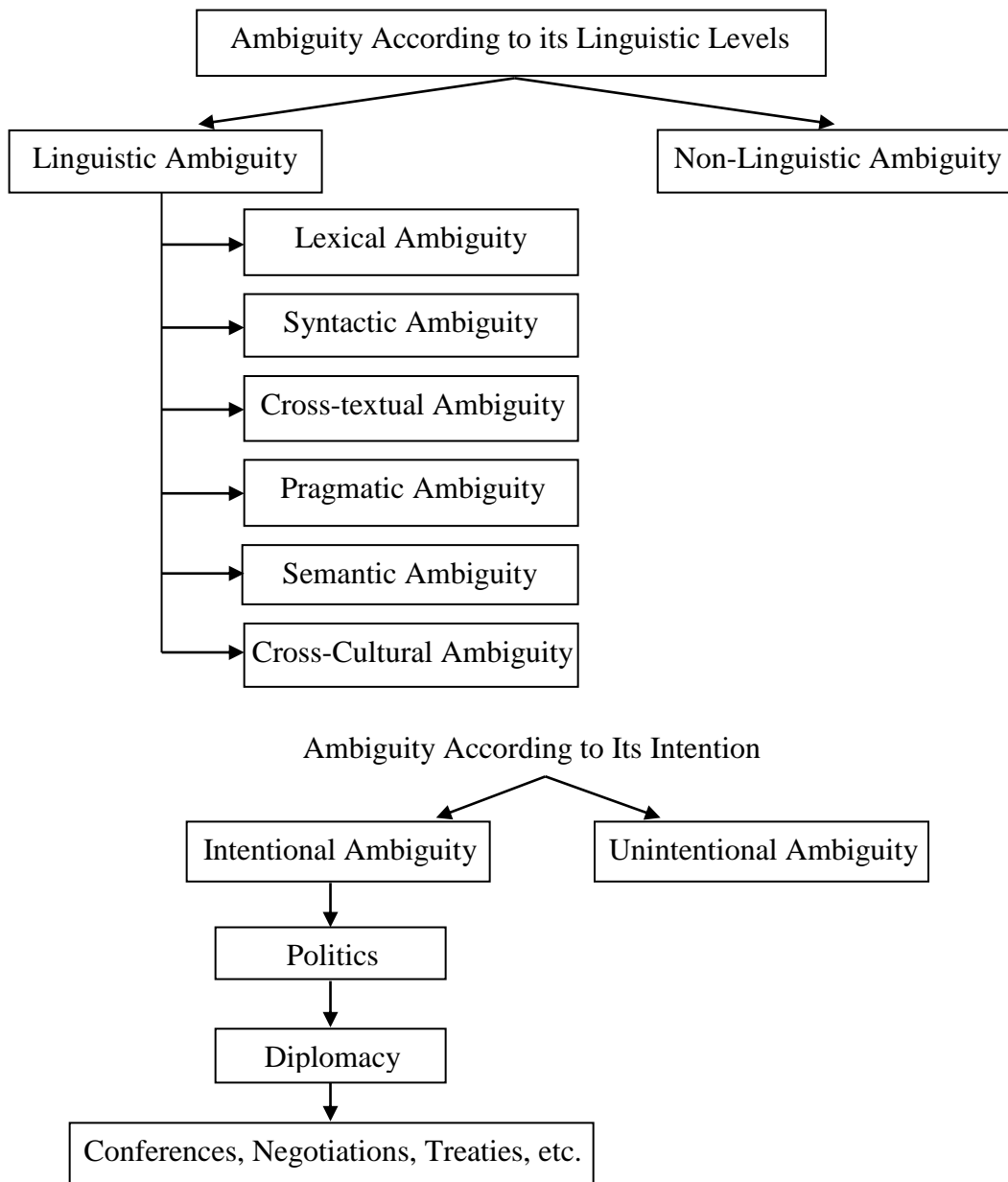
Figure (9) Ambiguity According to Its Linguistic Levels and to Its Intention (Zhang, 2011)

3.3.1. Lexical or referential ambiguity

> The comedian Dick Gregory tells of walking up to a lunch counter in Mississippi during the days of racial segregation. The waitress said to him, "We don't serve coloured people." "That's fine," he replied, "I don't eat colored people. I'd like a piece of chicken." (Pinker, 1994, p. 115).

Lexical ambiguity is one of the simplest kind of ambiguity in language because it is concerned with the ambiguity of a single word or words that has or have two separated meanings or several different meanings, it is also known as semantic ambiguity (Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba, 2017, pp. 44-45). It can be noticed that the lexical ambiguity in the previous example is represented by the word *serve* which means *present food* or *serve customers*.

Lexical ambiguity is not only concerned with the ambiguity of one word that has two separate meanings, several different meanings or separate interpretations, but also the ambiguity of identical words in form and spelling but different in meaning. So, lexical ambiguity includes (Homonym) and (Polysemy).

3.3.1.1. Homonym

Homonym occurs when two or more of lexemes have the same (spelling or pronunciation) and sound but different in meaning, i.e. unrelated semantically (Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba, 2017, p. 45; Scott, 2007, p. 7; Zhang, 1998, p. 13; Zhang, 2011, p. 38). For instance: the word *bat* (1) means *a kind of flying mammal* or (2) means *a stick of wood*. As explained in the following figure (10).

Example: George did not see the bat at midnight.
Meaning (1) George did not see the flying bat at midnight.
Meaning (2) George did not see the stick of wood at midnight.

3.3.1.2. Polysemy

Polysemy occurs when a basic lexical unit of a language (lexeme) has more than one meaning and is related to each other i.e. related semantically (Zhang, 2011, p. 39; Zhang, 1998, p. 13). For instance: *foot* means (1) *foot of a person*, (2) means *foot of a mountain*, and (3) means *foot of a bed, chair*. It is noticed that these examples are related in meaning. The word *foot* means *the lower part of something*. As explained in the following figure (10):

(1)   The foot of a person.

(2)   The foot of a mountain.

(3)   The foot of a bed or chair.
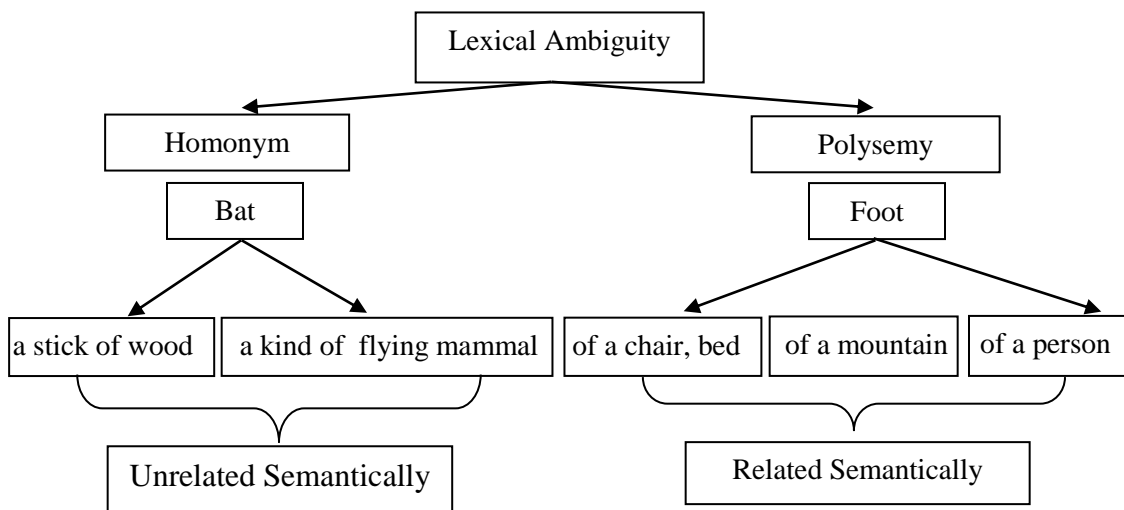
Figure (10) Homonym and Polysemy

Rambouillet Agreement for Peace and Self-Government in Kosovo can be given as an example of lexical ambiguity in the diplomatic language

The negotiations' goal between the Serbs and the Kosovo-Albanian delegations started on 6 February 1999 in Rambouillet is to keep Kosovo a part of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. But the Kosovo-Albanian delegations wanted to secede from the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia on an equal footing with Serbia and turn Kosovo into a completely independent state. The Rambouillet negotiations were trying to find a

solution to reconcile the demands of both parties (Criekemans, 2007, pp. 3-4). So, an intentionally ambiguous fashion of drafting the provisions of the agreement was adopted to leave a wide space of interpretation, as explained below:

The first article of chapter (1) of the draft constitution clause (6.c):

"Kosovo shall have authority to conduct foreign relations within its areas of responsibility *equivalent* to the power provided to Re-publics under Article 7 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia" (United Nations, 1999, p. 10) (You can find the article 1 clause 6.c from the first chapter of the Rambouillet Agreement in appendix 2).

Analysis:

The word *equivalent* is ambiguous and means more than one meaning. It may mean *equal*, *similar* or *approximately equal*. Thus, the wording of the draft constitution became referentially ambiguous, because the word *equivalent* is not the same but could be.

3.3.2. Syntactic, structural or grammatical ambiguity

Munson calls this type of ambiguity as "grammatical and K. Bach calls it "structural" while Pehar (2001b) prefers to use the term "syntactic" because he claims that the syntactic ambiguity "[....] rests on the vagaries of [syntactic] relations within a sentence" (P. 166). Syntactic ambiguity arises and occurs as explained in the following figure (11)

	arises when a sentence can be analyzed. It can be identified by different interpretations of the same sentence that can be analyzed because different syntactic structures can be identified in the same sentence or sequence of words (Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba, 2017, p. 45)
	"occurs when a given sequence of words can be given more than one grammatical structure, and each structure gives a different meaning" (Awwad, 2017b, p.189).
Syntactic Ambiguity	occurs when a sentence or phrase has more than one structure and there are two or more potential meanings within one sentence (Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba, 2017, p. 45)
	occurs when a sentence or phrase has more than one potential meaning resulting from the structure or the punctuation used in the sentence (Morrison, 2010, p. 9)
	occurs when there is a relationship between parts of sentence. What specifies the ambiguous sentence is several multiple specifications in the sentence, which open room for several various and incompatible interpretations (Pehar, 2001b, p. 166).
	occurs when each sentence or phrase can be represented in two grammatical different ways (Bach, 1998, p. 11).
	occurs when "there is assigned more than one structural analysis at the grammatical level of analysis" (Zhang, 2011, p. 39).

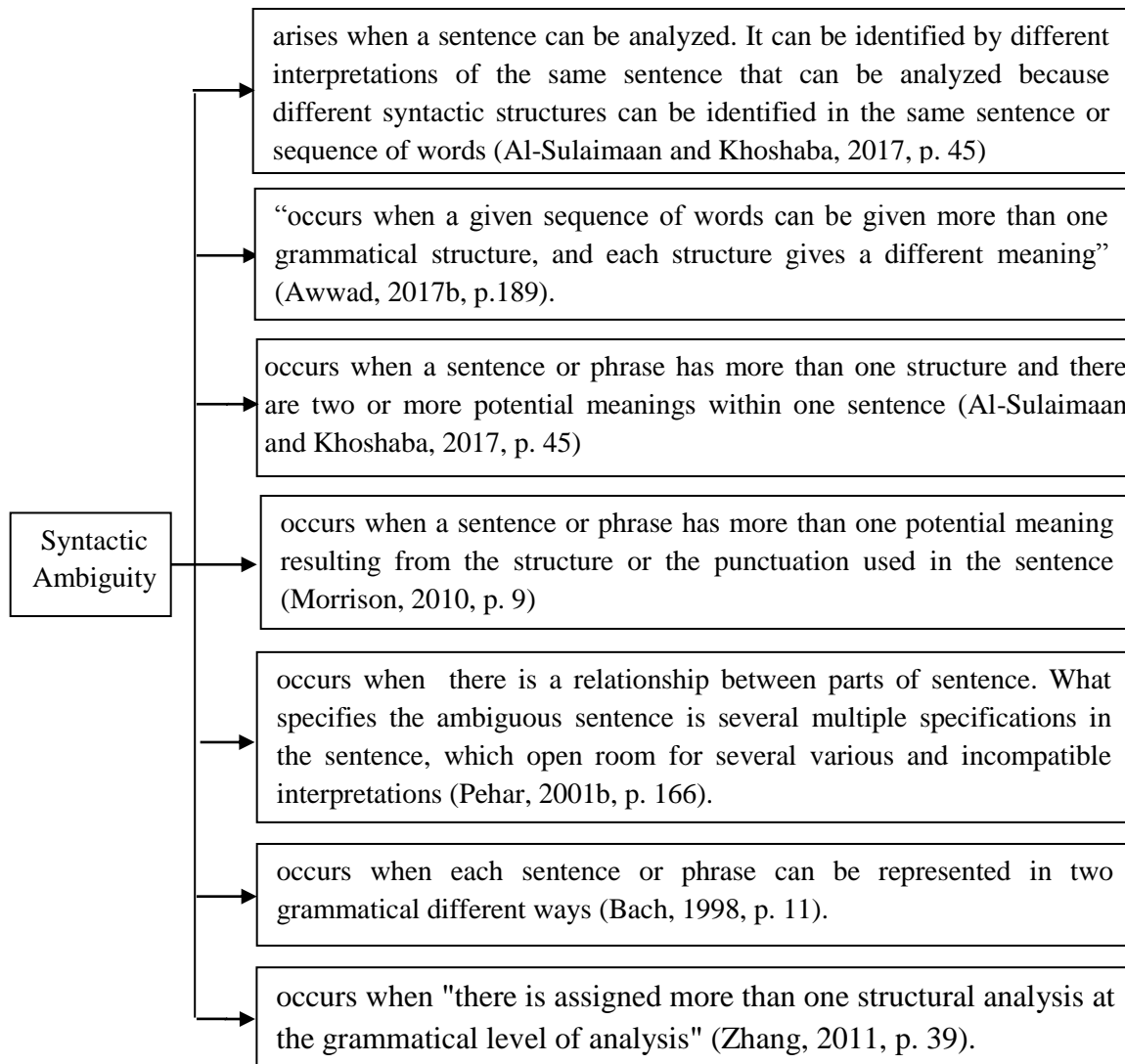Figure (11) Methods of an Occurrence of Syntactic Ambiguity

As Pehar explained above, syntactic ambiguity occurs through the relationship between the parts of a sentence. So, an example below will be provided to clarify the syntactic ambiguity. If a sentence contains elements (A, B, C). C can identify either A or B but not both of them at the same time, this indicates that it is a kind of syntactic ambiguity, such as:

1-   *New cars and houses* (in this example, there are two interpretations)

A)   [*New cars and houses*].

B)   [*New cars*] *and houses*

The first interpretation in example (A) both cars and houses are new. While the second interpretation in example (B) only the cars are new.

2-   *The teacher refers to tall boys and girls* (in this example, there are two interpretations)

A)   The teacher refers to [*tall boys and girls*].

B)   The teacher refers to [*tall boys*] *and girls*

The first interpretation in example (A) the teacher refers to both boys and girls who are tall. While the second interpretation in example (B) the teacher refers only to the tall boys, not the tall girls.

3-   *The students discussed their problems with their teachers*

A)   The students discussed [their problems with their teachers]

B)   The students discussed their problems [with their teachers]

The first interpretation in example (A) the students discussed the problems related to their teachers (i.e. the problems with the teachers). While the second interpretation in example (B) the students discussed their problems with their teachers (i.e. the students' own problems).

Example of analysis of syntactic ambiguity in the diplomatic language can be seen below:

A Six-point Cease-fire Agreement between Russia and Georgia on 12 August 2008

The agreement between Russia and Georgia contains a deliberate syntactic ambiguity. Where the agreement was drafted to end the war that broke out in August 2008. The language of the agreement is French because France at the time was holding the presidency of the European Union and provided its mediation between the

belligerents in the reign of French President Nicolas Sarkozy. In addition to that, It has been translated into English and Russian. The cease-fire was agreed on 12 August 2008, and Russia and Georgia agreed on a six-point agreement, where a disagreement arose over article 6 of the agreement, which states (Phillips, 2011, p. 8).

The French version is translated into English (you can find the French version in appendix 3)

"The opening of international discussions on the modalities *in* security and stability of South Ossetia and Abkhazia."[5]

The Russian version is translated into English according to the Russian President's website

"An international debate on the future status *of* South Ossetia and Abkhazia and ways to ensure their lasting security will take place."[6]

Analysis:

As mentioned above, a dispute arose between Russia and Georgia over the interpretation of Article 6 of the cease-fire agreement. Because the French version dealt with security *in Abkhazia and in South Ossetia* while the Russian version dealt with the security *of Abkhazia and of South Ossetia*. The linguistic problem occurred in the Russian version. The English version talked about security '*in*' the two regions. The syntactic ambiguity in article 6 of the agreement caused a dispute between the two countries by replacing the preposition '*in*' with the preposition '*of*' which led further disagreements over the cease-fire agreement.

The difference between the two translations may generate disagreement because the issue is very crucial because Abkhazia and South Ossetia have autonomy within

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[5] National Committee on American Foreign Policy. Implementation review: six-point ceasefire agreement between Russia and Georgia. Retrieved from
https://www.ncafp.org/implementation-review-six-point-ceasefire-agreement-between-russia-and-georgia/
[6] President of Russia Web. Press Statement following Negotiations with French President Nicolas Sarkozy. Retrieve from http://en.kremlin.ru/events/president/transcripts/1072

Georgia. Russia is trying to help them in becoming independent from Tbilisi (the capital of Georgia). Thus, their subordination to Georgia will become questionable.

3.3.3. Cross-textual ambiguity

The ambiguity of this type relies on the text that contains several sentences, which is more complex and ambiguous than the two previous types. Pehar (2001b) points out that this kind of ambiguity "involving not only semantics of phrases or semantics of propositions and sentences, but also semantics of texts; semantics of sets of interrelated sentences" (p. 167).

As explained previously ambiguity relies on determinants that have multiple tracks. These can be interpreted as determining the elements of a sentence, but this type of ambiguity does not only determine one sentence but also spread across a text. The spread of these determinants across a text causes ambiguity and confusion. Cross-textual ambiguity occurs in "open-ended sentences" which can be seen in legal treaties. For instance, a treaty may include a chapter beginning with a listing of the powers exercised by one entity, such as "a central federal authority" and we note that another "open-ended provision" was added at the close of the chapter as follows: "The central federal authority may exercise some other duties as well". This clarifies ambiguity in the count of powers given to that authority because the provision which does not determine the basic powers of authority will contrast with the provision of the clear beginning, which includes the count of the basic powers of the authority (Pehar, 2001b, pp. 167-168). So, an open clause causes ambiguity across the texts for having not determined the powers that negotiating parties agreed upon. If the provisions are left open, this will leave room for open interpretations, which cause ambiguity, as can be seen from the example below:

Dayton Peace Agreement (DPA)

Dayton Peace Agreement's aim, which was signed on 14 December 1995, is to end the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina among Muslims, Croatians and Serbians between 1992-1995. This agreement ended the war and divided Bosnia and Herzegovina by redrawing: it is a constitutional, organizational and institutional structure (Clinton, 2018).

Annex 4 of this agreement includes the constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In article 3, clause 1 contained a clear and unambiguous enumeration of the specific responsibilities of the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina as stated below:

Article 3, clause 1

"(a) Foreign policy. (b) Foreign trade policy. (c) Customs policy. (d) Monetary policy [...]". (United Nations, 1995, p. 63).

While the article 3, clause 5. a

> Bosnia and Herzegovina shall assume responsibility for such other matters as are agreed by the Entities; [....] or are necessary to preserve the sovereignty, territorial integrity, political independence, and international personality of Bosnia and Herzegovina, in accordance with the division of responsibilities between the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina (United Nations, 1995, p. 65) (You can find Article 3, clause 1 and 5.a in appendix 4).

Analysis:

Clauses (1) and (5.a) together form cross-textual ambiguity. It can be interpreted in two ways: the first interpretation, through providing entities with authorities that do not reach the level of the state unless clearly agreed by the entities. The second interpretation, by providing the state with ambiguous specific powers that have not been mentioned in the enumeration of entities, i.e. provisions that do not require the approval

of entities. It can be concluded that article (3) clause (1) decrease the powers of authorities while article (3) clause (5.a) increase the powers of the authorities.

3.3.4. Cross-cultural ambiguity

Ambiguity occurs cross-culturally because of problems between languages and when a culture of language is interpreted into a culture of another language. The disagreement between parties is caused by a difference of cultures. So, cultural differences should be taken into consideration when formulating agreements between states at the diplomatic level. Thus, the linguistic problems that arise from the interpretation of diplomatic agreements between cultures of states are causing cultural ambiguity (Morrison, 2010, p. 12). Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba (2017) remark that "there are no two identical cultures [that] have the same values, history, systems, and social norms" (p. 48).

Lorand Szalay states that interpretation differs because of the different meanings of each word and what they mean in every culture because cultures have inherent differences:

> Cultural meanings are basically subjective meanings shared by members of a particular cultural group. People in each country of the world develop their own particular interests, perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs, which form a characteristic frame of reference within which they organize and interpret their life experiences… Different cultural experiences produce different interpretations not shown in conventional dictionaries (as cited in Morrison, 2010, p. 13).

The translator/interpreter has to master the culture of the target language because there are cultures that have a high context culture and other cultures that have a low context culture. This will be discussed later. So, he/she must master the culture of each language in which he/she is working in order to be able to translate/interpret cultural ambiguity.

In addition, some cultures of the states may translate/interpret the same word in a completely different way according to their cultural characteristics. For instance, negotiations between the Soviet Union and the United States for banning nuclear test for six years from 1958 until 1963. The interpretation of the word *control* had led to a big misunderstanding, because of cultural differences between the Russian and the English languages. The Soviets used the word *Kontrol* which means *verification or supervision* while in English means *command over something*. The difference in meaning between the two cultures caused confusion and ambiguity. The cultural ambiguity that occurred in the word *control* led to confusion in interpretation. The Soviets thought that the phrase *control over armament* will make the Americans supervising the disarmament, but found that the meaning according to the Americans was to *control over disarmament*, not supervise it (Morrison, 2010, p. 14). An example to this issue is given below:

Treaty of Waitangi 1840

A treaty signed on 6 February 1840 between the British Crown and a number of Maori leaders whose number was more than 500 leaders. The Treaty of Waitangi was called by this name because it was signed at Waitangi town in the Bay of Islands. It was a significant document for the founding of New Zealand and written in two languages: English and Maori, and includes three articles. This treaty is a diplomatic instrument to establish a nation state in New Zealand (State Services Commission, 2005, pp. 2-3). But it turned out that the translation was not identical to the Maori, but there was a significant difference in meaning (you can find the treaty in appendix 5).

The preamble of the English version refers to:

Queen Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, will make sure to protect properties and rights of the New Zealand tribes and secure peace and order. As well as her desire to establish a Civilian Government and impose her authority over the New Zealand tribes islands (State Services Commission, 2005, p. 5).

The preamble of the Maori version (translated into English) refers to:

The Queen of Great Britain is committed "to provide a government while securing tribal Rangatiratanga (chiefly autonomy or authority over their own area) and Māori land ownership for as long as they wished to retain it" (State Services Commission, 2005, p. 5).

The first article of the treaty (The English version)
"Mäori leaders gave the Queen "all the rights and powers of sovereignty" over their land." (State Services Commission, 2005, p. 6).

The Maori version (translated into English)
"Mäori leaders gave the Queen "te kawanatanga katoa" – the complete government over their land." (State Services Commission, 2005, p. 6)

Analysis:

The difference between English and Maori cultures may generate ambiguity across cultures. The word '*sovereignty*' does not have a direct equivalent in the Maori language, because the Māori leaders had authority over their own property and never had a form of sovereignty in New Zealand. For this reason, the Maori leaders believed that they would retain their authority over their property and would give up the governance of Great Britain to protect them.

As for low and high context cultures, they also generate ambiguity across cultures. Intercultural communication at two levels which are: Firstly, high context culture that depends on indirect and implicit communication as well as nonverbal communication such as facial expression, gestures and voice tone that are important factors for high-context culture, for instance, Arabic, Asian, African and other cultures. Secondly, low context culture that depends on direct and clear communication, for instance, western cultures like the United States of America, Australia, Germany, Canada and others. In addition, nonverbal communication is not important because verbal messages are clear (D'Acquisto, 2017, p. 10; Neese, 2016). As explained in the following figure (12):
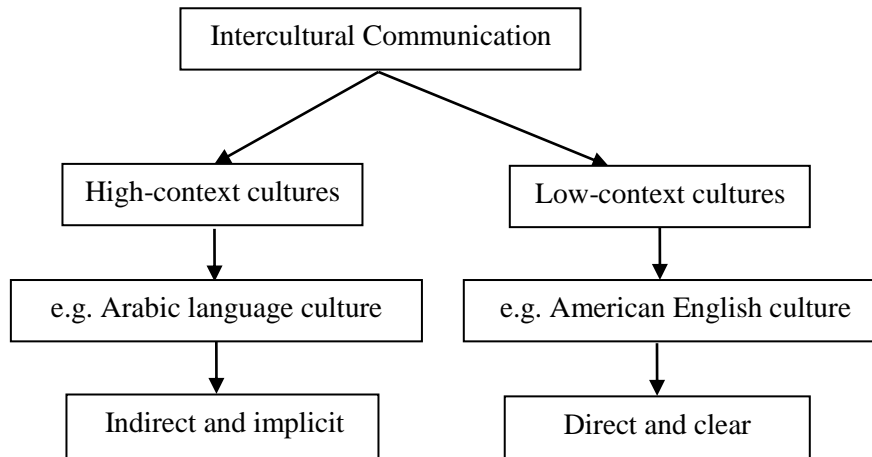
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                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │  Intercultural Communication │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
                         ╱                    ╲
          ┌───────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
          │ High-context cultures │      │ Low-context cultures │
          └───────────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
                    │                           │
          ┌───────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
          │ e.g. Arabic language culture │   │ e.g. American English culture │
          └───────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────┘
                    │                           │
          ┌───────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
          │ Indirect and implicit │      │   Direct and clear   │
          └───────────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
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Figure (12) High and Low Context Cultures (D'Acquisto, 2017; Neese, 2016)

To illustrate diplomatic ambiguity across cultures, it will address the culture of Arabic as an example of high-context cultures and the American English culture of low-context cultures. Hall (1976) explains that the difference between American and Arabic cultures relies on the existing meaning in context vs. code. American culture focuses on the meaning of the language code more than the meaning in the context. Therefore, its culture is low-context which is characterized by explicit and direct communication and accurate analysis. While the Arabic culture focuses on the meaning of the context more than the meaning of the language code, therefore, its culture is high-context characterized by ambiguity and indirect and implicit communication (Zaharna, 1995, p. 242).

Cohen (1999) points out that Arab diplomats place great importance on the context in different directions. They present in their negotiation with the parties "[....] a strong and particular sense of the history which has brought the participants together". They also develop the cultural context with the parties which they negotiate with, through establishing trust and friendship and paying great attention to the personal honour and dignity of all participants (as cited in Sharp, 2001, p. 99). While American diplomats regard diplomacy as an instrument of solving problems that can be of two ways: A) technical: by achieving a solution that would satisfy the negotiating parties through the application of knowledge and experience such as establishing the basic

principles of any treaty or agreement. B) Political: by give-and-take between the negotiating parties such as working out the conditions in which each state is party to the broad agreement.

Cohen (1999) also explains that ambiguity that causes misunderstanding arises from language and cultural differences. Misunderstanding does not give rise to conflict between the parties as much as it leads to a conflict of interest. The linguistic and cultural difference does not only arise between high and low context cultures, but also among low-context cultures (Sharp, 2001, p.100). The difference between low and high context cultures causes inherent differences in diplomatic negotiations with regard to what is at stake and the meaning.

People from high-context cultures expect their interlocutors from low-context cultures to know what bothers them and what is going on in their minds. They think that the interlocutors "will talk around and around the point, in effect putting all the pieces in place except the crucial one". Thus, the cultures of high context constitute a burden of understanding; the meaning falls on the listener. While the cultures of low context do not constitute a burden of understanding; the meaning does not falls on the listener, but on the speaker, because he/she must convey the meaning accurately and transparently whether the message is written or spoken (Zaharna, 1995, pp. 242-243).

This is what happened in the negotiations between the Americans and the Iraqis before the Gulf War. When US President George W. Bush sent a message with James Baker, U.S Secretary of State, to the Iraqi Foreign Minister Tariq Aziz to deliver it to Iraqi President Saddam Hussein, but Tariq Aziz refused to accept the letter because of its non diplomatic language. Whereas the Americans in their direct and clear style thought that their Iraqi counterpart is trying to evade and slow down, but in contrast, the diplomatic style of the Americans may offend the feelings of their negotiating partners (Sharp, 2001, p. 101) (You can find Bush's letter in appendix 6).

3.3.5. Pragmatic ambiguity

Pragmatic ambiguity differs in its definition according to scholars, each scholar has his own definition regarding pragmatic ambiguity. It concerns the study of interpreting the meaning of a speaker in a specific context and how the context affects what is said. Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba (2017) state "ambiguity can be represented by pragmatic concepts like indirect speech act, presupposition, etc… [as well as it is] resulting from a particular communication which is intended by the speaker and/or hearer for a particular communicative purpose" (p. 46). The listener can infer pragmatic ambiguity when utterances and expressions used by people can be interpreted in more than one meaning. In addition, it points to the ambiguity in use, as well as it occurs when the speaker and listener do not agree on what a position is?. In the same regard, Berry, Kamsties, and Krieger (2003) point out:

> Pragmatic ambiguity occurs when a sentence has several meanings in the context in which it is uttered. The context comprises the language context, i.e., the sentences uttered before and after co-text, and the context beyond language, i.e., the situation, the background knowledge, and expectations of the speaker or hearer and the writer or reader. This type of ambiguity results from the presence of deictic ambiguity (p. 12).

For instance, *The cops are coming* this sentence may mean affirmation, a warning or an expression of relief. Another example,

(A) Maria solved the problem too.

In this sentence, it comes to our mind that someone has solved the problem as well as Maria do that but maybe the interpretation is different. Maria may have solved the problem and done something else as in the sentence (B)

(B) Maria came up with the problem. Maria solved the problem too.

Whilst He Ziran points out in his book *Notes on Pragmatics* that "vagueness in pragmatics includes the notions of fuzziness, indeterminacy, probability, ambiguity and

generality manifested in practical use of language" (as cited in Chen and Lei, 2017, p. 132-133). Pragmatic ambiguity is classified into two types: unintentional ambiguity and intentional ambiguity as explained below in figure (13). Unintentional ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of language and adequate knowledge of a subject and the speaker cannot convey his ideas correctly and clearly and usually occur in the daily communication. While intentional ambiguity occurs when it is intended to communicate successfully or in a special situation and is frequently used in the diplomatic sphere (Chen and Lei, 2017, p. 133). Therefore, spokespersons and diplomats usually adopt pragmatic ambiguity in their statements, which is considered a deliberate instrument of communication in order to achieve the goals and interests of their country.
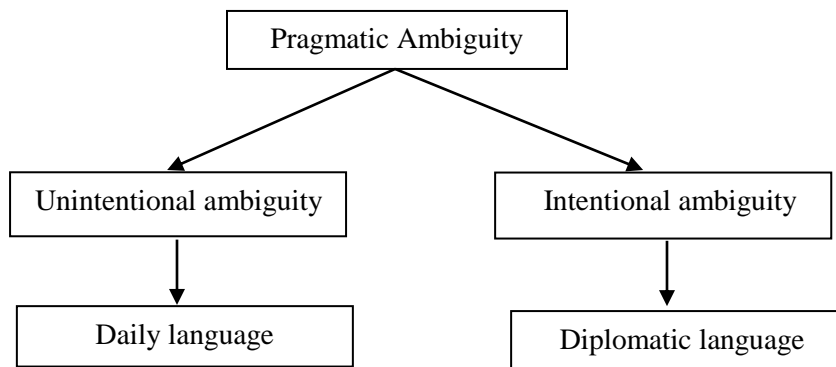

Figure (13) Types of Pragmatic Ambiguity

In the diplomatic sphere diplomats often find that their precise use of expressions may not be a solution to some of the critical problems and situations that occur between the parties. Therefore, we find them use ambiguous language to avoid potential conflicts and at the same time, they are using a nice and polite way to deal with the rest of the parties. So, they use this instrument deliberately. We notice that Ted Gibson (2012) supports what has been said about the use of ambiguity in diplomacy. He states that "[...] ambiguity is not a problem – it is something you can take advantage of, because you can reuse easy [words] in different contexts over and over again" (as cited in Al-Sulaimaan and Khoshaba, 2017, p. 46). Example of analysis of pragmatic ambiguity in the diplomatic language is as follows:

Foreign Ministry Spokesperson Qin Gang's Regular Press Conference on November 27, 2013

> **Question:** The Election Commission of Bangladesh announced on the evening of November 25 that the next round of the general election will be held on January 5, 2014. The Bangladesh Nationalist Party, the biggest opposition party there, voiced strong protest. What is China's comment on the situation in Bangladesh? (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the People's Republic of China)

> **Answer:** We have noted the aforementioned situation. As a friendly neighbour of Bangladesh, China sincerely hopes that all relevant parties in Bangladesh would set store by overall interests, solve differences through dialogue, make efforts to ensure the success of the election and work together to achieve political and social stability and economic development" (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the People's Republic of China)

In the diplomatic sphere, diplomats seek to achieve the goals and interests of their country. So, the activities of the diplomats are important because the relationship between countries is very complex and subtle. As we know, the diplomats represent the image of their country. So, when they are asked about neighbouring or friendly countries, they must express their opinions or their country's opinion on the issue and make sure that their expressions will not harm the interests of their country and will not bring troubles. For this reason, the diplomat resorts to an ambiguous language as a diplomatic instrument, as explained in the example above.

Analysis:

The press conference held on November 27, 2013, to answer questions which were raised to the Chinese side with regard to the Bangladesh elections to be held on 5 January 2014. The spokesman Qin Gang replied in an ambiguous style to avoid as much as possible the responsibility through his statements on the election in Bangladesh, it is an internal affair related to Bangladesh. Therefore, Qin used a pragmatic ambiguity to

avoid the biased opinion towards the situation. Qin said that he hoped all concerned parties in Bangladesh work together to reach economic development, political stability, and social security. By using this type of ambiguity, he managed to protect himself and protect his country's interests from being criticized as intervening in the domestic affair of Bangladesh.

3.3.6. Semantic ambiguity

Semantic ambiguity also occurs when there is more than one interpretation of the same sentence. As it was mentioned, lexical ambiguity is called semantic ambiguity because semantic ambiguity occurs on several levels.

Many scholars have discussed this type of ambiguity. According to Poesio's view (1995), the problems of semantic ambiguity which must be tackled are "meanings" and "senses". Berry, et al (2003) point out that:

> Semantic ambiguity occurs when a sentence has more than one way of reading it within its context although it contains no lexical or structural ambiguity. Semantic ambiguity can be viewed as ambiguity with respect to the logical form, usually expressed in predicate logic, of a sentence (p. 11).

For instance, (*No one has seen a horse with wings*.) This sentence can be read either that there is no horse with wings or can be read as a legendary horse with wings that no one saw it at all. This sentence is ambiguous because the correct meaning of the sentence is that horse has no wings. If the wings are an instrument to identify the horse, it will become a mythical horse that no one has ever seen. So, the first reading is the correct one. Poesio (1995), explains that:

> Semantic ambiguity is part of the specification of the grammar of a language; most, if not all, sentences are semantically ambiguous, but their ambiguity need not be noticed by listeners, and in fact it is typically discovered only by linguistic research (p. 12).

Whilst Muhonen and Purtonen (2012) state that "semantic ambiguity occurs not only on the lexical level, but also on the syntactic level, where it leads to two different syntactic trees depending on the interpretation" (p. 2). It can be concluded that semantic ambiguity is difficult to find easily because it contains more than one reading. In addition, the reason for semantic ambiguity is referential and grammar ambiguity and occurs at several levels (phrase, sentence, and logic). Example of analysis of semantic ambiguity in the diplomatic language is as follows:

Faisal-Weizmann Agreement

After World War I in 1919, an agreement was signed between Prince Feisal, son of Hussein, Sherif of Mecca, and Dr Chaim Weizmann (who became later Israel's first president). The agreement includes giving Jews the right for settlement in Palestine, in return for the Prince Feisal to be the ruler of Arab states in the Middle East. But the agreement was drafted deliberately ambiguous (Faisal-Weizmann Agreement) (you can find the whole agreement in appendix 7).

Analysis:

The phrase "Arab State" did not specify exactly what it meant and what limits it would cover and include. When the agreement was signed Prince Faisal was appointed king of Iraq, this is not what he was expecting. Because the British used the equivocation method (or what is so-called doublespeak). It is an ambiguous style used in politics and diplomacy to avoid committing to something. This is what made the agreement contains semantic ambiguity because the phrase "Arab State" carries several readings and meanings.

IV: CONCLUSION

Diplomacy is the only way to solve the world's problems instead of using violence to settle the conflicts between states. It is an instrument for implementing foreign policy and a tool for diplomats, who are representing their countries abroad. Diplomacy has not become the only way to settle conflicts until it passed a long history of inter-state relations from Mesopotamian civilization to modern diplomacy. It developed over the years to become what it is today. Diplomacy is also an integral part of international relations which have a great significance through the advancement of civilization and its development.

International relations are essential for the survival of states and their continued independent entities, not only as an active field, which is the international relations between the governments of the world, and their relations with international organizations and multinational companies, but also an academic discipline taught in all countries of the world. It also has an important place among the branches of knowledge.

The importance of diplomacy and international relations have led scholars to study the diplomatic language used by diplomats to conduct negotiations or during drafting international legal acts such as treaties, conventions, etc.

It can be concluded from the study of the language of diplomacy that it is an official language characterized by accuracy, clarity, logic and persuasion. The user of this language must be proficient and gifted in rhetoric, because this language has special principles, such as courtesy, non-redundancy and constructive ambiguity.

It is also characterized by special phrases that cannot be used in ordinary language. In addition, it has a unique and special style that is divided into four parts: 1) the opening salutation. 2) Greetings and praise. 3) Summoning cooperation. 4) The conclusion. These styles cannot be found in any fields only in the diplomatic field.

The language of diplomacy is not only restricted to form and style but also includes three types: 1) written language, it can be concluded that written diplomatic language has a greater percentage of using the nouns than the percentage of using the verbs (24.04% vs. 9.1%). It also tends to use the passive voice. 2) Oral language, it can be concluded that oral diplomatic language has a greater percentage of using the verbs in diplomatic speeches than the percentage of using the nouns (19.43% vs. 11.43%). It also tends to use the active voice. 3) Non-verbal language, it can be concluded that non-verbal diplomatic language includes: 1) Personal gestures, for instance, handshake which is used as a metaphor for the quality of relations among states. 2) Signals which include: a) the use of media, b) the withdrawal of an ambassador for consultations, c) written statements that are not accompanied by work, d) eye contact.

The process of translation emerged after the emergence of writing in the world community. It is a process involving the changing of an original written text from SL into TL. It is a means of transferring civilization and culture. It dates back to the Epic of Gilgamesh from the second millennium BC until the present day, which has seen the development of translation programs that have become popular all over the world.

It can also be concluded from the study of diplomatic translation and interpretation that these two branches share everything and perform the same function, but they differ in the medium that conveys the message from one language into another as much as written language differs from spoken language.

So, diplomatic translation does not differ in terms of the basic principle of translating text from SL into TL, but has its own rules and principles because it deals with diplomatic documents which relate to the security of the country and other countries. Therefore, working in the diplomatic field requires solid preparation. The diplomatic translator must be aware and have good knowledge in keeping abreast of the international developments, and all the issues at stake. In addition, the translator must take into account the accuracy and choice of words that give the idea and exact meaning. For, this sphere is full of diplomatic terms that exist only in

this milieu, such as ambassador, counsellor, consul, etc. While Diplomatic interpretation does not differ from other interpretations in terms of principle, but has its own rules and principles, because it is a very special interpretation adopted by countries in embassies and consulates, as well as interpretation to the Heads of State, foreign delegations and else. So, it requires perfect language skills and it also entails having extensive knowledge of terminologies and concepts which are related to conferences and diplomatic negotiations. Similarly, it entails a strong memory and immediate strategies for processing and conjures up texts such as idioms, syntactic structures and the audacity to public speaking. In addition, courage, self-confidence, tension control, the ability of persuasion, technical, cultural and moral knowledge ... and other factors make communication possible at the level of ministries, international organizations.

As it can be concluded from this study that the role of the translator and the interpreter cannot be confused because the translator converts written language from one language into another in writing, whereas the interpreter converts spoken language from one language into another orally.

During our study of both the role of translator and interpreter, we find out that translators work alone, facing a text on a paper. They rewrite the text into another language, becoming its second author. Whilst interpreters do not work alone and receive a speech from the speaker directly. They are expressing their ideas directly without rewording or checking the interpretation linguistically and idiomatically. Thus, they are in direct contact with the audience who are listening to them, and to the speaker at the same time. Translators and interpreters played an essential role in all fields and were not excluded from any field. Cultures have been enriched by their works over time.

The translator's/interpreter's work is not only restricted to conferences and diplomatic negotiations, but also includes national institutions, such as Ministries, Parliament buildings and international institutions, such as UN, EU, etc. The translators and interpreters in this sphere must follow professional and ethical rules, a professional protocol, show professional loyalty, keep secrets of conventions, treaties, and secret

discussions, and they are required to possess a linguistic wealth, highly educated, diplomatic skills, and negotiating capacities. All these can be achieved through rigorous training which requires a greater discipline of the mind.

The diplomatic field is characterized by two types: Firstly, the translation of written texts and documents. There are approved formulas of the texts such as opening and final clauses of conventions, letters of accreditation as well as diplomatic notes. While diplomatic documents have two main sets of documents: chancery documents and consular documents.

Secondly, interpretation. The most important types used in the diplomatic sphere are: 1) consecutive interpreting occurs in two phases, the first phase is when the orator is speaking and the second phase is when the interpreter is interpreting. There are two kinds of CI: short and long, the speech is ranging from a minute to 20 minutes in length. This type of interpretation is characterized by several ideas for taking notes A) macro-thinking, b) the capacity, c) automization or internalization, d) a bottom-up approach. It is also characterized by the principles of taking notes. The aim of these principles is to save time by casting a glance at the notes that were written and concentrating on the basic ideas. It can be concluded that CI including its ideas, strategies, principles and symbols are just tools which help the diplomatic interpreter in his/her conferences and negotiations so that he/she can convey the basic ideas in the shortest possible time for participants.

2) Simultaneous interpreting is the interpreting of a speech in the TL at the same time as the speaker is speaking in the SL. But the interpreter does not interact with the audience, nor with the speaker because of his presence in a booth isolated where he/she works, often set up in the back of the meeting room. The interpreters can hear the speaker through earbuds, and when their turn comes to take the floor; they will broadcast their interpreting into the audience's headphones. It can be concluded that SI is the most common type because it saves so much time in the diplomatic sphere and the most complex and difficult one because when the speaker is speaking; he/she keeps talking

without stop; at the same time the interpreter listens to the speaker and interprets in his/her mind; delivers his/her interpreting through a microphone while listening to the speaker's speech. Therefore, a few interpreters can deal with this type of interpreting. It is also characterized by basic principles: a) syntactic, b) adjustment, c) anticipation, d) reformulation, e) simplification, f) faithfulness.

3) Liaison interpreting: in this type interpreters work to and from two or more languages (from SL into TL and the reverse is true) i.e. in two different directions and done by the same person. The Liaison interpreter should be able to switch languages constantly, and must be fluent in both languages and has a deep knowledge of the culture of language he/she is interpreting. The liaison interpreter is usually present and visible. Through our study, we conclude that most fields related to liaison interpreting are formal negotiations such as diplomatic negotiations, political talks, etc.

4) Relay interpreting is used in conferences. It is indirect interpreting. The first interpreter listens to the speaker in the SL and interprets it into the common language, then the second interpreter, who received the common language, interprets it into a third language for the benefit of the audience who speak neither the first language nor the second language. It can be concluded that the quality of interpreting may be reduced for it passes through several steps, the fewer numbers of transmission the more accurate the message.

5) Whispered interpreting is a form of simultaneous interpreting. Whispered interpreter works, unlike the simultaneous interpreter without a booth and within a small target audience. Interpreters may resort to it when additional equipment cannot be used. WI occurs in one-way when the speaker speaks in the SL then the interpreter whispers its interpreting directly into the client's ear (maximum of two persons) without stop as the SI.

It can be concluded that this type of interpreting may cause annoyance for the audience because all audience speak the language of the speaker and there is neither a possibility of separating the audience from the clients nor position the interpreter in a booth for

interpreting. In addition, the whispered interpreter is exposed to external noise to sit with the audience, this may negatively affect the quality of his/her interpreting because there are no earphones that may increase his/her concentration and performance of his/her job properly. As it is recognized by international institutions such as the EU, UN, etc.

6) Sight interpreting is one of the most difficult tasks faced by interpreters because the interpreter is asked to read the ST written and rendered it in the TT aloud. It is considered a bridge between the written and the spoken, between translation and interpretation. It can be concluded that the interpreter faces one of the most important factors which is time pressure, so the interpreter must produce an exact rendition in the TL at the same time while reading the text of the SL. Diplomatic interpreters who perform sight interpreting must have a) a high level of literacy skills. B) Previous experience in the sight interpreting. C) A high-efficiency level in both SL and TL.

As for conference interpreting, the policy of language equality advocated by the European Union (EU) has helped to spread conference interpreting to all spheres of communication of languages and cultures, although it is related only to multilateral diplomatic interpreting.

It can be concluded from our study that conference interpreting has two parts: Firstly, multilingual conferences in international organizations. Secondly, bilingual conferences which usually occur in local markets. As conference interpreters also face difficulties during their work performance. A) The pressures arising from the long working periods. B) The booth space and its temperature. C) Placing the interpreters' booth next to the conference room which prevents the interpreter's vision. D) The speaker's voice cannot be heard through the microphone that leads to misunderstanding and frustration of the interpreter to deliver a high-quality interpretation. In addition, sacrificing style rather than risking and making an error in meaning because they do not understand the speaker in the source language.

It can be concluded from this study that the problems facing diplomatic translation are the high cost and the difficulty of drafting equivalent documents and treaties in different languages. Whilst the problems faced by diplomatic interpretation are inadequate language, lack of alternative vocabulary; poor interpretation skills of interpreters and their work in foreign languages. Another problem of diplomatic interpretation is machine translation, particularly in live conversations since the spoken language is full of elusiveness and ambiguity, and thus, it will affect diplomatic negotiations. For MT lacks linguistic factors such as ambiguity and metaphors, such problems cannot be tackled because the diplomatic sphere contains culturally sensitive and specific issues, and accuracy in this field is considered vital. For this reason, humans cannot be dispensed in diplomatic interpretation. Only they are capable of dealing with this complex sphere.

The diplomatic sphere faces many challenges as we mentioned, but one of the most important challenges facing the diplomatic field is the translation of ambiguity. Ambiguity is a tool that helps to open room for subsequent interpretation and is considered as a form of diplomacy .So, ambiguity in the convention refers to two or more meanings and allows both parties to translate/interpret the convention to serve their own interests. If the two parties realize that the convention carries an ambiguous formula that has not been announced, the mediator will cause loss of the two parties. So, the mediator should be sufficiently trusted. For, if there was no trust, there was no explanation.

It can be concluded from the study that there are two types of ambiguity: linguistic and non-linguistic. Linguistic ambiguity includes several types:

1) Lexical ambiguity, this type is not only concerned with the ambiguity of one word that has two separate meanings, several different meanings or separate interpretations but also the ambiguity of identical words in form and spelling but different in meaning. It can be concluded from the Rambouillet Agreement that Lexical ambiguity in diplomacy is intentional ambiguity. So, a word is used that has more than one meaning to serve the interests of the stronger party in treaties, conventions, etc. As explained in

this agreement, the word "*equivalent*" refers to more than one meaning. In addition, lexical ambiguity includes (Homonym) and (Polysemy).

2) Syntactic ambiguity arises when a sentence can be analyzed. It can be identified by different interpretations of the same sentence that can be analyzed because different syntactic structures can be identified in the same sentence or sequence of words. It can be concluded from the cease-fire agreement between Russia and Georgia that ambiguity in diplomacy is intentional. So, there are differences to use grammar in a particular language from the grammar of the source language to serve the interests of the conflicting parties. This type of ambiguity caused a dispute between the two countries by replacing the preposition "*in*" with the preposition "*of*".

3) Cross-textual ambiguity is more complex and ambiguous, because it relies on the text that contains several sentences. It can be concluded from the Dayton Peace Agreement that the article 3, clause 1 contained a clear and unambiguous enumeration of the specific responsibilities of the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but article 3, clause 5.a contained additional responsibilities and this causes ambiguity across texts.

4) Cross-cultural ambiguity occurs because of problems between languages. So, cultural differences should be taken into consideration when formulating agreements between states. It can be concluded from the American President George W. Bush's letter addressed to the Iraqi President Saddam Hussein that the translator/ interpreter has to master the culture of the target language because there are cultures that have a high context culture and other cultures that have a low context culture. In addition, the translator/interpreter must master the culture of each language in which he/she is working in order to be able to translate/interpret cultural ambiguity.

5) Pragmatic ambiguity concerns the study of interpreting the meaning of a speaker in a specific context and how the context affects what is said. The utterances and expressions used by people can be interpreted differently and give more than one meaning. Pragmatic ambiguity is classified into two types; intentional ambiguity and unintentional ambiguity. So, spokespersons and diplomats usually adopt pragmatic

ambiguity in their statements, which is considered a deliberate instrument of communication in order to achieve the goals and interests of their country. The best example of this kind of ambiguity is the Chinese Foreign Ministry spokesperson, he used pragmatic ambiguity and managed to protect himself and protect his country's interests.

6) Semantic ambiguity is difficult to find easily because it contains more than one reading. So, the reason for semantic ambiguity is both referential and grammatical which occurs at several levels (phrase, sentence, and logic). As explained in the Faisal-Weizman agreement. The equivocation or doublespeak method was used in this agreement. It is an ambiguous style used in politics and diplomacy to avoid committing to something. For this reason, it is difficult to find like this type of ambiguity easily.

The purpose of this study was to highlight the translational aspects of diplomatic language which is the main tool to carry out diplomatic contact and interaction in the world community. In our globalized world, diplomacy comes to the fore as the instrument not only in international political/diplomatic relations but in business, trade and cultural mediatic contacts as well. Hence, producing quality translations within this context has the utmost importance. The challenges that have been summed up in the previous chapters in this study and the methods to overcome them are hoped to pave the way for a model of the translation of diplomacy in scientific and satisfactory manner.

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Appendix (1) Speech by H.E. Mevlüt Çavuşoğlu

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Speech by H.E. Mevlüt Çavuşoğlu, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Turkey, at the Sixth Ministerial Conference of the İstanbul Process, 4 December 2016, Amritsar/India

Your Excellencies,

Distinguished Participants,

First, I would like to thank both India and Afghanistan for co-hosting this important event.

It is a great pleasure to address the Sixth Ministerial Conference of the İstanbul Process.

It has been five years since we initiated the Process together with Afghanistan.

The idea was that the resolution of regional problems requires regional cooperation and solidarity. This cooperation is also needed, because most of the challenges we face are of transboundary nature. As such, no country can cope with these problems on its own.

Today, with this Sixth Ministerial Conference, we renew our commitment to the Process.

Dear Colleagues,

Since its inception, the İstanbul Process has made substantial progress.

I am pleased that the Process provided the ground to establish an interaction among the regional countries, the supporting countries and the organizations.

Confidence Building Measures have also been significant achievements.

We believe that there is still room to further improve the implementation of the CBMs.

Increasing the number of activities will surely help us achieve the desired results.

It is also important to actively participate in the events organized within the CBMs.

Turkey, as one of the co-lead countries of Counter Terrorism CBM, hosted the course on "the Defense Against Suicide Bombing" in Ankara in 2015.

In 2016, we organized the courses on "the Critical Infrastructure Protection from Terrorist Attacks" and "the Radicalization, Terrorism and Universities."

In 2017, we plan to hold the course on "the Financial Aspects of Combating Terrorism."

The preparations for this course are underway and its details will be announced soon.

Distinguished Colleagues,

Thanks to the assistance of the international community, Afghanistan is moving forward in terms of security and development.

Today, millions of Afghans have access to education, health and other social services.

However, there is still much to do.

The NATO Warsaw Summit and Brussels Conference were encouraging.

In these meetings, the international community showed its commitment to supporting Afghanistan.

Turkey is part of this effort and we will stand by Afghanistan as long as our help is needed.

We will also continue our bilateral assistance to Afghanistan in the fields of security and development.

Distinguished Colleagues,

I am convinced that with the active participation of the Heart of Asia and the supporting countries, as well as the regional and international organizations, Istanbul Process will continue to be a central platform in building a secure and prosperous Afghanistan.

Thank you.

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Appendix (2) Rambouillet Agreement for Peace and Self-Government in Kosovo

S/1999/648
English
Page 9

Chapter 1

Constitution

Affirming their belief in a peaceful society, justice, tolerance, and reconciliation,

Resolved to ensure respect for human rights and the equality of all citizens and national communities,

Recognizing that the preservation and promotion of the national, cultural, and linguistic identity of each national community in Kosovo are necessary for the harmonious development of a peaceful society,

Desiring through this interim Constitution to establish institutions of democratic self-government in Kosovo grounded in respect for the territorial integrity and sovereignty of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and from this Agreement, from which the authorities of governance set forth herein originate,

Recognizing that the institutions of Kosovo should fairly represent the national communities in Kosovo and foster the exercise of their rights and those of their members,

Recalling and endorsing the principles/basic elements adopted by the Contact Group at its ministerial meeting in London on January 29, 1999,

Article I: Principles of Democratic Self-Government in Kosovo

1. Kosovo shall govern itself democratically through the legislative, executive, judicial, and other organs and institutions specified herein. Organs and institutions of Kosovo shall exercise their authorities consistent with the terms of this Agreement.

2. All authorities in Kosovo shall fully respect human rights, democracy, and the equality of citizens and national communities.

/...

3. The Federal Republic of Yugoslavia has competence in Kosovo over the following areas, except as specified elsewhere in this Agreement: (a) territorial integrity, (b) maintaining a common market within the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, which power shall be exercised in a manner that does not discriminate against Kosovo, (c) monetary policy, (d) defense, (e) foreign policy, (f) customs services, (g) federal taxation, (h) federal elections, and (i) other areas specified in this Agreement.

4. The Republic of Serbia shall have competence in Kosovo as specified in this Agreement, including in relation to Republic elections.

5. Citizens in Kosovo may continue to participate in areas in which the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the Republic of Serbia have competence through their representation in relevant institutions, without prejudice to the exercise of competence by Kosovo authorities set forth in this Agreement.

6. With respect to Kosovo:

    (a) There shall be no changes to the borders of Kosovo;

    (b) Deployment and use of police and security forces shall be governed by Chapters 2 and 7 of this Agreement; and

    (c) Kosovo shall have authority to conduct foreign relations within its areas of responsibility equivalent to the power provided to Republics under Article 7 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

7. There shall be no interference with the right of citizens and national communities in Kosovo to call upon appropriate institutions of the Republic of Serbia for the following purposes:

    (a) assistance in designing school curricula and standards;

Appendix (3) A Six-point Cease-fire Agreement between Russia and Georgia on 12 August 2008 - French version

Documented by the Government of Georgia

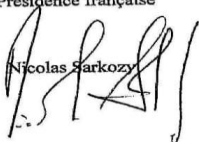## Russian Aggression of Georgia

Six Point Peace Plan

Le Président de la République

Protocole d'accord

1/ Ne pas recourir à la force.

2/ Cesser les hostilités de façon définitive.

3/ Donner libre accès à l'aide humanitaire.

4/ Les forces militaires géorgiennes devront se retirer dans leurs lieux habituels de cantonnement.

5/ Les forces militaires russes devront se retirer sur les lignes antérieures au déclenchement des hostilités. Dans l'attente d'un mécanisme international, les forces de paix russes mettront en œuvre des mesures additionnelles de sécurité.

6/ Ouverture de discussions internationales sur les modalités de sécurité et de stabilité en Abkhazie et en Ossétie du Sud.

Pour l'Union européenne,
la Présidence française

Nicolas Sarkozy

Appendix (4) Dayton Peace Agreement: Annex 4, Article 3

7. <u>International Agreements</u>. Bosnia and Herzegovina shall remain or become party to the international agreements listed in **Annex I** to this Constitution.

8. <u>Cooperation</u>. All competent authorities in Bosnia and Herzegovina shall cooperate with and provide unrestricted access to: any international human rights monitoring mechanisms established for Bosnia and Herzegovina; the supervisory bodies established by any of the international agreements listed in **Annex I** to this Constitution; the International Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (and in particular shall comply with orders issued pursuant to Article 29 of the Statute of the Tribunal); and any other organization authorized by the United Nations Security Council with a mandate concerning human rights or humanitarian law.

<u>Article III</u>
<u>Responsibilities of and Relations Between</u>
<u>The Institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina</u>
<u>And the Entities</u>

1. <u>Responsibilities of the Institutions of Bosnia and</u> <u>Herzegovina</u>. The following matters are the responsibility of the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina:

(a) Foreign policy.

(b) Foreign trade policy.

(c) Customs policy.

(d) Monetary policy as provided in Article VII.

(e) Finances of the institutions and for the international obligations of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

(f) Immigration, refugee, and asylum policy and regulation.

(g) International and inter-Entity criminal law enforcement, including relations with Interpol.

(h) Establishment and operation of common and international communications facilities.

(i) Regulation of inter-Entity transportation.

(j) Air traffic control.

5. Additional Responsibilities.

(a) Bosnia and Herzegovina shall assume responsibility for such other matters as are agreed by the Entities; are provided for in Annexes 5 through 8 to the General Framework Agreement; or are necessary to preserve the sovereignty, territorial integrity, political independence, and international personality of Bosnia and Herzegovina, in accordance with the division of responsibilities between the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Additional institutions may be established as necessary to carry out such responsibilities.

(b) Within six months of the entry into force of this Constitution, the Entities shall begin negotiations with a view to including in the responsibilities of the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina other matters, including utilization of energy resources and cooperative economic projects.

Article IV
Parliamentary Assembly

The Parliamentary Assembly shall have two chambers: the House of Peoples and the House of Representatives.

1. House of Peoples. The House of Peoples shall comprise 15 Delegates, two-thirds from the Federation (including five Croats and five Bosniacs) and one-third from the Republika Srpska (five Serbs).

(a) The designated Croat and Bosniac Delegates from the Federation shall be selected, respectively, by the Croat and Bosniac Delegates to the House of Peoples of the Federation. Delegates from the Republika Srpska shall be selected by the National Assembly of the Republika Srpska.

(b) Nine members of the House of Peoples shall comprise a quorum, provided that at least three Bosniac, three Croat, and three Serb Delegates are present.

2. House of Representatives. The House of Representatives shall comprise 42 Members, two-thirds elected from the territory of the Federation, one-third from the territory of the Republika Srpska.

(a) Members of the House of Representatives shall be directly elected from their Entity in accordance with an election law to be adopted by the Parliamentary Assembly. The first election, however, shall take place in accordance with Annex 3 to the General Framework Agreement.

/...

Appendix (5) Treaty of Waitangi 1840

> **THE TREATY TEXTS**

Preamble

English Text

HER MAJESTY VICTORIA Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland regarding with Her Royal Favour the Native Chiefs and Tribes of New Zealand and anxious to protect their just Rights and Property and to secure to them the enjoyment of Peace and Good Order has deemed it necessary in consequence of the great number of Her Majesty's Subjects who have already settled in New Zealand and the rapid extension of Emigration both from Europe and Australia which is still in progress to constitute and appoint a functionary properly authorised to treat with the Aborigines of New Zealand for the recognition of Her Majesty's sovereign authority over the whole or any part of those islands – Her Majesty therefore being desirous to establish a settled form of Civil Government with a view to avert the evil consequences which must result from the absence of the necessary Laws and Institutions alike to the native population and to Her subjects has been graciously pleased to empower and to authorise me William Hobson a Captain in Her Majesty's Royal Navy Consul and Lieutenant Governor of such parts of New Zealand as may be or hereafter shall be ceded to her Majesty to invite the confederated and independent Chiefs of New Zealand to concur in the following Articles and Conditions.

Māori Text

KO WIKITORIA te Kuini o Ingarani i tana mahara atawai ki nga Rangatira me nga Hapu o Nu Tirani i tana hiahia hoki kia tohungia ki a ratou o ratou rangatiratanga me to ratou wenua, a kia mau tonu hoki te Rongo ki a ratou me te Atanoho hoki kua wakaaro ia he mea tika kia tukua mai tetahi Rangatira hei kai wakarite ki nga Tangata maori o Nu Tirani-kia wakaaetia e nga Rangatira maori te Kawana-tanga o te Kuini ki nga wahikatoa o te wenua nei me nga motu-na te mea hoki he tokomaha ke nga tangata o tona Iwi Kua noho ki tenei wenua, a e haere mai nei.

Na ko te Kuini e hiahia ana kia wakaritea te Kawanatanga kia kaua ai nga kino e puta mai ki te tangata maori ki te Pakeha e noho ture kore ana.

Na kua pai te Kuini kia tukua a hau a Wiremu Hopihona he Kapitana i te Roiara Nawi hei Kawana mo nga wahi katoa o Nu Tirani e tukua aianei amua atu ki te Kuini, e mea atu ana ia ki nga Rangatira o te wakaminenga o nga hapu o Nu Tirani me era Rangatira atu enei ture ka korerotia nei.

Key Differences

The preamble of the English version states the British intentions were to:

- protect Māori interests from the encroaching British settlement;

- provide for British settlement;

- establish a government to maintain peace and order.

The Māori text suggests that the Queen's main promises to Māori were to:

- provide a government while securing tribal rangatiratanga and Māori land ownership for as long as they wished to retain it.

> THE TREATY TEXTS

Article the first

English Text

The Chiefs of the Confederation of the United Tribes of New Zealand and the separate and independent Chiefs who have not become members of the Confederation cede to Her Majesty the Queen of England absolutely and without reservation all the rights and powers of Sovereignty which the said Confederation or Individual Chiefs respectively exercise or possess, or may be supposed to exercise or to possess over their respective Territories as the sole sovereigns thereof.

Ko te tuatahi

Māori Text

Ko nga Rangatira o te wakaminenga me nga Rangatira katoa hoki ki hai i uru ki taua wakaminenga ka tuku rawa atu ki te Kuini o Ingarani ake tonu atu-te Kawanatanga katoa o o ratou wenua.

Key Differences

In the English text of the Treaty, Māori leaders gave the Queen "all the rights and powers of sovereignty" over their land.

In the Māori text of the Treaty, Māori leaders gave the Queen "te kawanatanga katoa" – the complete government over their land.

Rangi Topeora, of Ngāti Toa and Ngāti Raukawa. She signed the Treaty in May 1840 when the missionary Henry Williams brought the Treaty to Kapiti Island. She was one of an estimated 13 women to sign the Treaty. ATL: PA2-2808.

Matene Te Whiwhi of Ngāti Toa and Ngāti Raukawa. In 1839 he travelled to the Bay of Islands seeking a Christian missionary for his people. As a result Octavius Hadfield later settled at Waikanae. In 1840, Te Whiwhi (son of Rangi Topeora) signed the copy of the Treaty brought south by Henry Williams. ATL: 1/2-057403.

Appendix (6) Text of Letter from George Bush to Saddam Hussein

Bush Letter   ✹ *Printer-friendly version*

President George H. Bush wrote a letter directly to President Saddam Hussein on 9 January 1991. The letter was carried by Secretary of State James Baker to Foreign Minister Tariq Aziz, who refused to pass the letter on after reading it. Below is the text of the letter:

Mr. President:

We stand today at the brink of war between Iraq and the world. This is a war that began with your invasion of Kuwait; this is a war that can be ended only by Iraq's full and unconditional compliance with U.N. Security Council resolution 678.

I am writing you now, directly, because what is at stake demands that no opportunity be lost to avoid what would be a certain calamity for the people of Iraq. I am writing, as well, because it is said by some that you do not understand just how isolated Iraq is and what Iraq faces as a result.

I am not in a position to judge whether this impression is correct; what I can do, though, is try in this letter to reinforce what Secretary of State Baker told your foreign minister and eliminate any uncertainty or ambiguity that might exist in your mind about where we stand and what we are prepared to do.

The international community is united in its call for Iraq to leave all of Kuwait without condition and without further delay. This is not simply the policy of the United States; it is the position of the world community as expressed in no less than twelve Security Council resolutions.

We prefer a peaceful outcome. However, anything less than full compliance with UN Security Council resolution 678 and its predecessors is unacceptable.

There can be no reward for aggression. Nor will there be any negotiation. Principle cannot be compromised. However, by its full compliance, Iraq will gain the opportunity to rejoin the international community.

More immediately, the Iraqi military establishment will escape destruction. But unless you withdraw from Kuwait completely and without condition, you will lose more than Kuwait.

What is at issue here is not the future of Kuwait—it will be free, its government will be restored—but rather the future of Iraq. This choice is yours to make.

The United States will not be separated from its coalition partners. Twelve Security Council resolutions, twenty-eight countries providing military units to enforce them, more than one hundred governments complying with sanctions—all highlight the fact that it is not Iraq against the United States, but Iraq against the world.

That most Arab and Muslim countries are arrayed against you as well should reinforce what I am saying. Iraq cannot and will not be able to hold on to Kuwait or exact a price for leaving.

You may be tempted to find solace in the diversity of opinion that is American democracy. You should resist any such temptation. Diversity ought not to be confused with division. Nor should you underestimate, as others have before you, America's will.

Iraq is already feeling the effects of the sanctions mandated by the United Nations. Should war come, it will be a far greater tragedy for you and your country.

Let me state, too, that the United States will not tolerate the use of chemical or biological weapons or the destruction of Kuwait's oil fields and installations. Further, you will be held directly responsible for terrorist actions against any member of the coalition.

The American people would demand the strongest possible response. You and your country will pay a terrible price if you order unconscionable acts of this sort.

I write this letter not to threaten, but to inform. I do so with no sense of satisfaction, for the people of the United States have no quarrel with the people of Iraq.

Mr. President, U.N. Security Council resolution 678 establishes the period before January 15 of this year as a "pause of good will" so that this crisis may end without further violence. Whether this pause is used as intended, or merely becomes a prelude to further violence, is in your hands, and yours alone. I hope you weigh your choice carefully and choose wisely, for much will depend upon it.

George Bush

Source: From Micah Sifry and Christopher Cerf, *The Gulf War Reader: History, Documents, Opinions* (New York: Random House, 1991), pp. 178-79.

✹ *Printer-friendly version*

Appendix (7) Faisal-Weizmann Agreement

His Royal Highness the Emir FEISAL, representing
and acting on behalf of the Arab Kingdom of Hedjaz,
and Dr. CHAIM WEIZMANN, representing and acting on
behalf of the Zionist Organisation,

mindful of the racial kinship and ancient bonds exist-
ing between the Arabs and the Jewish people, and
realising that the surest means of working out the
consummation of their national aspirations, is through
the closest possible collaboration in the development
of the Arab State and Palestine, and being desirous
further of confirming the good understanding which
exists between them,

have agreed upon the following Articles;-

ARTICLE I.

The Arab State and Palestine in all their relations
and understakings shall be controlled by the most
cordial goodwill and understanding and to this end Arab

and Jewish duly accredited agents shall be established
and maintained in the respective territories.

ARTICLE II.

Immediately following the completion of the
deliberations of the Peace Conference, the definite
boundaries between the Arab State and Palestine shall
be determined by a Commission to be agreed upon by
the parties hereto.

ARTICLE III.

In the establishment of the Constitution and
Administration of Palestine all such measures shall
be adopted as will afford the fullest guarantees
for carrying into effect the British Government's
Declaration of the 2nd of November, 1917.

ARTICLE IV.

All necessary measures shall be taken to
encourage and stimulate immigration of Jews into
Palestine on a large scale, and as quickly as poss-
ible to settle Jewish immigrants upon the land
through closer settlement and intensive cultivation

of the soil. In taking such measures the Arab peasant
and tenant farmers shall be protected in their rights,
and shall be assisted in forwarding their economic
development.

ARTICLE V.

No regulation nor law shall be made prohibiting
or interfering in any way with the free exercise of
religion; and further the free exercise and enjoyment
of religious profession and worship without discrimina-
tion or preference shall forever be allowed. No
religious test shall ever be required for the exercise
of civil or political rights.

ARTICLE VI.

The Mohammedan Holy Places shall be under Mohammedan
control.

ARTICLE VII.

The Zionist Organisation proposes to send to Pales-
tine a Commission of experts to make a survey of the
economic possibilities of the country, and to report
upon the best means for its development. The Zionist
Organisation will place the aforementioned Commission

at the disposal of the Arab State for the purpose of
a survey of the economic possibilities of the Arab
State and to report upon the best means for its
development. The Zionist Organisation will use its
best efforts to assist the Arab State in providing
the means for developing the natural resources and
economic possibilities thereof.

ARTICLE VIII.

The parties hereto agree to act in complete
accord and harmony on all matters embraced herein
before the Peace Congress.

ARTICLE IX.

Any matters of dispute which may arise between
the contracting parties shall be referred to the
British Government for arbitration.

Given under our hand at LONDON,
ENGLAND, the THIRD day of
JANUARY, ONE THOUSAND NINE
HUNDRED AND NINETEEN.

Chaim Weizmann

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Translational Aspects of Diplomatic Language

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