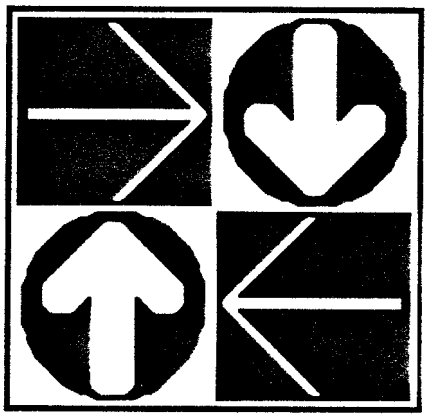

The Keys to Highly Effective Interpreter Training

Proceedings of the Twelfth National Convention Conference of Interpreter Trainers

November 4 - 7,1998

Salt Lake City, Utah

JosephA.Alvarez

Editor

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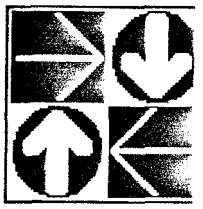

Conference of Interpreter Trainers

Editor, Joseph **A. Alvarez**

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ASSISTING AFRICAN AMERICAN / BLACK ASL / IPP STUDENTS NAVIGATE BETWEEN LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM AND OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

Jackie Bruce, MA
Bishop State Community College
Mobile, Alabama

ABSTRACT

The nation is indeed experiencing a shortage of qualified and / or certified interpreters. The percentage of minority interpreters as compared to the number of minority consumers is low. Interpreter preparation programs across the country continue to recruit minority interpreters with adequate success for some and not so successful for others. The presenter will provide first hand experiences into what could be done to assist programs in recruitment and retention. Another area of interest is that of spacing and facial expression. Spacing and facial expression have been discussed in great length in the field of sign language interpretation, and there are a number of scholarly papers written on the appropriate space and facial expression for sign language/interpreting students. The spacing and facial expression used by the African American / Black Deaf population and how they affect many of the African American / Black students and interpreters will be a reason for discussion. Still another interesting issue is that of terms used within this particular culture, the African American / Black Deaf community. Within this area of interest for students / interpreters who are African American / Black, learning to navigate between what is learned in and out of the classroom is crucial. It may also provide a challenge for beginning student / interpreters trying to incorporate signs learned in the classroom with those learned in the community. Role models are also necessary for self-esteem and self pride for any group. There have been a number of African Americans / Blacks who have made great accomplishments in the field of sign language interpretation. Last, concerns and issues related to "contrasting colors" will be discussed.

INTRODUCTION

We are well aware the nation is experiencing a shortage of qualified interpreters. The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID) states there are approximately 3000 certified interpreters in the United States. A number of African American / Black

interpreters estimate there could be approximately 35-45 RID certified African American / Black interpreters. In an article of the RID Views (1993), Aramburo states, "judging from the statistics. . . it is going to take a considerable amount of time to get the numbers to where the ratio of minority interpreters is in sync with Caucasian interpreters." There are no statistics to date that are kept by the RID home office. In the State of Alabama, there is only one RID certified African American / Black interpreter. According to my own informal observations, it appears that the District of Columbia / Maryland area has the most RID certified African American / Black interpreters. Although there are a number of qualified African Americans / Black interpreters throughout the country who could indeed pass the exam (in my opinion), they have not afforded themselves the opportunity to do so as of this writing. That is a topic for another day and another workshop.

This year's theme is "The Keys to Highly Effective Interpreter Education." According to our brochures, "this conference will focus on how to move towards excellence individually and as a profession." This is indeed a worthwhile goal.

I would like to discuss 5 major topics: 1) recruitment and retention for all students, especially students from the African American / Black group; 2) spatial and facial expressions used by the African American / Black Deaf community and how these factors relate to the African American / Black sign language or interpreting student; 3) cultural terms and how the language learning affects students from the African American / Black group; 4) role models and discussions of accomplishments in the field of sign language interpretation by the African American / Black community; and 5) appropriate attire, specifically the notion of "contrasting colors" worn by sign language interpreters/transliterators.

According to an article written in the Silent News (October, 1996) by the National Multicultural Interpreter Project (NMIP), "The Health Interview Survey conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics (1990-91) suggested that of the 20 million individuals who are Deaf or Hard of Hearing, 1.2 million are African American, 900,000 are Hispanic Americans, and a considerable number of Native Americans and Asian Americans exist. While approximately 90% of the graduates from interpreter training programs are Anglo / Euro-American, only 4% are African American and 5% are Hispanic American." Because of these numbers, programs across the nation are in dire need of recruiting interpreters from various cultural backgrounds as well as

information related to multicultural interpreting for consumers from diverse backgrounds.

RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

What can an interpreter training program do to recruit and retain students from diverse cultural backgrounds?

The most important issue to remember when recruiting is to have respect for all cultures and to be sensitive to what students may call themselves. Students may refer to themselves as one of the following: African Americans, Black, Jamaican American, etc. Not all students are from African descendants. A number of interpreters from the West Indies, Jamaica, and the Diaspora may prefer to be called Black Americans. However, the same preference is true for a number of students / interpreters who are of African descent. For me personally, I would prefer the term "African American"; thus, the term I have been using throughout my paper is "African American / Black." As I learn more about other cultures, the same issues are being discussed in other cultures as well. An example of this is the sign "Spanish." We must be sensitive that this sign may include persons who are "Chicano" or " Latino / Latina," for example.

There are a number of ways to recruit students to the field of sign language interpretation. Recruitment concerns were reported in a paper written by Mathers and White (1985). They reported that there is a lack of professional Black interpreters in the field. Hopefully, since 1985, a few more have been added to that number. Just as Mathers and White posed the question in 1985, I still pose the question thirteen years later, "Why are not more of the siblings of Black Deaf adults looking into the interpreting field as a profession?" That article also quoted Shirley Childress-Johnson, an African American interpreter from the Washington, DC, area, stating, "Locally, RID chapters and interpreter referral agencies should go to area high schools for Career Day and present information about the field." I also would like to include Interpreter Training Programs. Many of you are doing this yearly. My personal list includes .the following:

a) send recruiters (culturally diverse) to career days at schools and colleges where large numbers of African American / Black students attend and discuss career opportunities in interpretation;

b) contact radio stations;

c) be sure that your college advertisement tape has interpreters of color involved;

d) send information to local churches—diverse churches—set up beginning classes at church in order to bring students into the classroom;

e) invite African American / Black Deaf and hearing persons to your school as guest speakers;

f) invite African American / Black Deaf and hearing speakers to teach for one or two weeks, or a full semester;

g) discuss salary and benefits with students;

h) advertise in magazines such as: Jet, Ebony, Black Enterprise, Essence, or Emerge;

i) contact high visibility events: Lou Rawls Telethon, United Negro College Fund;

j) have a national list / information for students in ITP to distribute to students interested in National Alliance of Black Interpreters (NAOBI), National Black Deaf Advocates (NBDA), and other African American / Black organizations;

k) have a local African American / Black conference/workshop;

l) obtain as many videotapes with minorities as possible;

m) have names of individuals whom students may contact for information or support;

n) openly advise the possibility of the low number of African Americans / Blacks in the program; students tend not to know the full extent of enrolling in the ITP programs, and that usually they may be the only one or two enrolled (some exceptions may be Georgia, Houston, Washington, DC, and Mobile);

o) take advantage of African American / Black interpreters / trainers who are coming into your town for another reason and have them stop by your classroom to give a short talk, workshop, or motivational speech; and

p) network more with professional interpreters of color.

In my own situation, for the majority of my courses, I was the only African American student. For a time during my early years, Jolinda Greenfield and one other person who is not in the field at this time were my only classmates who were African

American / Black. As I became more involved in the field and moved to other cities, I was accustomed to "being the only one," and it became the norm.

Retaining African American / Black students can be a challenge. Some suggestions for retaining these students are:

a) have interpreting students mentor beginning students;
b) be sure funds are available for students;
c) encourage all students to attend group study;
d) provide names of outside mentors whom students can call for support;
e) provide tutors;
f) provide dormation or sponsor students to attend National Black Deaf Advocates, National Alliance of Black Interpreters, or other minority conferences;
g) provide assistance and contacts to students who, after completing a two-year ASL / interpreting program, may be interested in becoming educators or rehabilitation counselors, and will transfer to a four-year university;
h) bring in speakers from diverse cultural groups to present;
i) have a panel of diverse speakers discussing how they began their career in the field of sign language interpretation;
j) e-mail and / or communicate with others in ITP or professional interpreters;
k) set up a chat room for beginning African American / Black students with each other, and / or with professional interpreters / transliterators;
l) get all students on the mailing list for the National Multicultural Interpreter Project; and
m) be sure students are aware of organizations (i.e., NAOBI, Asian Pacific Conference).

USE OF SIGNING SPACE AND FACIAL EXPRESSIONS

All across the country, African American / Black students have been recruited for fields of study related to interpreting, education, and rehabilitation.

Major issues to study are appropriate signing space and facial expression. Let LE examine the topic of signing space. Of course, during my era of training, the "signing in the box" was appropriate. Signs that are made below the neck have changed through time to become more centralized and have moved inward toward an imaginary line

vertically dividing the body into two equal parts, either upward or downward toward the center of the sigrung space (Baker-Shenk & Cokely, 1980, p. 90).

Aramburo (1989) stated that "two Deaf African Americans conversing may utilize their facial expressions, signing space to the fullest and when conversing with white Deaf people, they may utilize the space and facial expressions that are used by the white Deaf person." I also have read scholarly papers in which the references to the signing space and facial expressions of African American / Blacks used descriptors such as "exaggerated signing space, and too much body movement and facial expression." Of course, terms have been improved as we discuss issues of respect and understanding of each other's culture. To date, I have already seen a change in written materials. Of course we know this may not be true for ALL Deaf people. This may be a parallel to what many hearing African American / Blacks do with many of their white counterparts. Indeed it may be how some African American / Blacks converse with other African American / Blacks. We know tlus may not be true for ALL hearing African American / Blacks. Again this is a topic for a later date, and further research is needed.

What are the ramifications of Aramburo's (1989) research related to utilizing facial expressions, appropriate space, and "body movement" for students who are African American / Black enrolled in ITP Programs? How often do we tell our students to associate more with persons from the Deaf community to improve their skills, or to attend Deaf related events? Often we suggest, if possible, finding a Deaf mentor, someone who will assist with improving the students' use and understanding of the language and culture. What happens if the person whom the students associate with is an African American / Black Deaf person? Of course, that may depend on background, educational level, parent upbringing, involvement in mainstream culture or African American / Black culture, and a number of other factors. The above mentioned characteristics may be acceptable in the African American / Black culture but not in most ASL / ITP classrooms.

A number of students throughout the country are doing what is expected of them and associating and attending workshops and events within the community. Wilcox and Wilcox (1991) state, "another way for the ASL students to meet and interact with Deaf people is for them to enter the Deaf community. We do not mean that ASL

students can or should attempt to be accepted into the Deaf culture. Rather, we mean that ASL students can make Deaf friends and attend Deaf cultural events.''

But what if that community is African American / Black and the students take on the signing characteristics of that community, i.e., using a larger signing space and body movement as well as utilizing facial expression to the fullest. A number of students all over the country are being criticized for "exaggeration of facial expression and sigrung too large." Students in ASL courses and interpreting training courses are beginning to realize that they must sign one way in the classroom and a different way outside of the classroom, depending on the consumer. In other words, one way for the mainstream Deaf community and a different way for a number of consumers in the African American / Black Deaf community. Over the years, beginning sign language students and interpreting students have stated that instructors have told them, 'You sign too large, make it smaller," or "You use too much facial expression." Then, when they go back to their own community, a number of African American / Black Deaf persons may reprimand them for signing too small and not using enough facial expression.

Of course there are a number of African American / Black Deaf consumers who are multicultural / multilingual. Many will change their signing style when necessary to that of the mainstream Deaf community and, when necessary, to that of many in the African American / Black Deaf community (Valli, Reed, Ingram, & Lucas, 1990). Again, informal observations show that a number of hearing African American / Black Interpreters may do the same thing when conversing with their hearing mainstream counterparts. Because of this, students must learn to multiculturally interpret (MI). Let's take a look at this idea a bit further.

Have you ever had a friend who was Deaf and white tell the agency or company he or she would prefer not to have African American / Black interpreters because they sign too large, or use too much facial expression and body movement? On the other hand, some members of the African American / Black Deaf community request African American / Black interpreters regularly. Have you heard of an African American / Black Deaf person who prefers a Black interpreter because he or she enjoys the "fullness of the signing style" or "facial expression freedom" used by the interpreter? Does this mean that students must learn how to interpret multiculturally depending on the consumer's needs? Over the years and on a number of occasions, I have counseled

students to utilize s i p g space and facial expressions differently depending on setting and situation. For many of those students, it worked.

As we expand our research and understanding of language and culture, hopefully, we will soon begin to look at the way we work, how we utilize space, our body, and facial expressions.

Just as signing space is a concern in language development and usage, facial expressions and body movement may be concerns for African American / Black students as well. A number of African American / Black Deaf may utilize signs learned from a variety of influences, such as the African American / Black hearing culture, segregated schools / residential schools, regional / geographical signs, home signs, and in-group / out-group signs.

CULTURAL TERMS USED WITHIN THE COMMUNITY BY SOME AFRICAN AMERICAN / **BLACK** DEAF

The amount of interaction the African American / Black Deaf person has with the African American / Black hearing community will denote how often terms are used in communication. **A** number of signs used with some of the African American / Black Deaf are taken from the African American / Black hearing community. Cohen and Grace (1990) state, "there is a duality of socialization required of Black people: children must be prepared to imitate the 'hip, cool' behavior of their culture while simultaneously taking on those behaviors necessary for upward mobility." For Black Americans, according to Levine (1977) and for other minority groups, socialization becomes increasingly difficult as they attempt to live in both worlds. For some African American / Black individuals, it becomes the White Deaf, African American / Black Deaf, African American / Black hearing, White hearing, thereby attempting to live in all worlds.

As terms are learned within African American / Black culture, they are often included in the Deaf community. There is a tendency to use the term exactly as it is stated, with no translation for the term. An example: Statement made by a hearing person, "Those shoes are BAD." The translation would be "SHOE BAD." This means that the shoes look extremely nice. Another hearing statement could be, "Clean your room. You are so sorry!" Translation could be: "ROOM CLEAN SORRY-YOU." This sentence means that you need to clean your room and stop being so lazy. Other terms

that I have noticed are "GO GIRL," "OH PLEASE," "GIRLFRIEND," "HOOK ME *UP*," "YOU AIN'T ALL THAT," "DON'T GO THERE," and "DUH." There is a host of other colloquialisms. *Of* course, new slang will evolve, and these expressions will become outdated. How do students keep up with colloquialisms? Students are learning outside the classroom that at times we will see these terms used by African American / Black Deaf in sign language without being translated into American Sign Language. Appropriate sign to voice inflection is necessary for appropriate meaning.

Segregated schools or signs from residential schools may also be utilized by the African American / Black Deaf consumer. A number of our African American / Black Deaf seniors may utilize signs from segregation days. It is worthwhile to note while many African American / Black Deaf seniors have taken on the signs of the mainstream community, we must recognize that often a certified Deaf interpreter or intermediary who is familiar with the signs used by the seniors will be needed. A number of signs may be utilized from the residential school in which all students use a particular sign. It may often be categorized as an African American / Black sign when it is indeed a residential sign. There are signs that African American / Black Deaf may recognize as a sign particular to that group. Students are learning outside the classroom to be sure what one is seeing before labeling it.

There are a number of regional / geographical signs that may be utilized exclusively by African American / Black Deaf. Students are learning that they must be careful to see if this is, indeed, an African American / Black Deaf sign or a regional / geographical sign used by all Deaf people from that region. For example, an African American / Black Deaf person moves to Washington, DC, from Texas. He utilizes the sign for "watch" which is a Texas sign, but many are mistakenly labeling it as a "black sign." A number of signs are used by the African American / Black community across the country, yet there are signs utilized by one region of African American / Black Deaf that persons in another state or community may not know. Two such signs in Houston, Texas, are "laugh" and "white person." All African American / Black Deaf in Houston may not utilize these sign, but many do. Let us take this time to look at the sign for "Africa" and "nigger / Negro."

Ernmanual Azodeh (1994) discussed the sign for Africa. He stated that the appropriate sign for Africa is the "A" hand circling the entire face. Let us look and see if

our sign language books have kept up with updated dormation. I randomly looked at five sign language / interpreting books to see how the sign for Africa is being taught.

Two were appropriately signed for this era; one had two pictures, one of which was the sign suggested by Mr. Emmanual Azodeh (1994). This one particluar source states, "The 'A' hand, thumb pointing to the face, makes a counterclockwise circle around the face. This is considered a racist sign and should generally be avoided." The sign that this book provided as appropriate is the sign that "is the shape of the continent." This book states tlus is generally considered the most acceptable and racially neutral sign for Africa. Unfortunately, this is an error at this time. I viewed another book, a SEE sign book, and it had the sign for Africa correct. I still have seen a number of African American / Black Deaf who still would prefer to sign Africa as it was used formerly. It would appear that information has not been provided for those persons.

I was lucky to be present at one of the Black Deaf Advocates Convention a number of years ago when this topic was discussed. Although a number of African American / Black Deaf may not be aware of the change, it continues to be provided as the appropriate sign throughout the country.

Another term that is often discussed outside of the classroom is "nigger / Negro." I have received a number of calls over the years asking what exactly that sign means and how it is voiced. I will try my best to give my own understanding of its usage I have noticed over the years.

Born and reared in California, I personally saw the sign used in only one way, to mean "NIGGER," a derogatory meaning. Although, of course, just as African American / Black hearing individuals use it with other African American / Black hearing individuals, the term would take on a sort of in-group acceptable meaning depending on connotation. The same holds true for the African American / Black Deaf. When asked if another person out of the group could use the term other than in a derogatory manner, my response would have been an equivocal NO. After moving to the South, I would have to retract my statement. There are some in the African American / Black community who will always feel that the term is always meant to be derogatory; however, I have come to the realization that this is not the case for each situation in whch it is used.

After moving to Texas, I took a job worlung with Senior Citizens who are Deaf. On one particular day, I was retrieving paperwork when I happened to glance over to

the group and notice one of the Senior Citizens signing, "NIGGER GIRL WHERE?" At the same time, I noticed her facial expression (non-manual signals) was quite the opposite of what I was accustomed. But it did not matter; I was furious. I approached my supervisor to inquire as to the reason for this insult. He calmed me down and proceeded to tell me that the meaning is different for some people in the South. Of course, for me there was only one meaning. But after discussing it with others, I discovered he was correct. I thank Rob Granberry for being there at the time I viewed this sign.

This sign has been a topic of discussion for many of us outside the classroom for years. In this particular situation, I may have voiced, "Do you know where the African American lady is?" or another translation to reflect the times, "Do you know where the colored young lady is?" Still another translation could be *"Do* you know where the black lady is?" Which translation is accurate is not the point of decision; it is that the term "NIGGER" would have not been an accurate translation for this setting. Of course, persons who are not from the South or areas in which these signs are used differently may not agree with my findings.

Since that time I have been privy to a number of signs used. If you are interested in more, please contact Bob Daniels, a playwright in the Washington, DC, area, known for the play, I *Didn't Hear That Color.* Many of you have probably seen the play. One scene in the play depicts all the derogatory signs used, both past and present. But throughout my years of observation, this signs appears to take on different meanings at different times, depending on the source presenting the sign.

NEED FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN /BLACK ROLE MODELS

Access to role models for any group is important. Role models build self-esteem, self worth, and pride. Students are learning to find their role models inside and outside of the classroom. You may not be aware, but a number of you are becoming role models for African American / Black interpreters. They are finding support and role models in the conununity, across the country via e-mail and World Wide Web, at National Black Deaf Advocates Conventions, and at the National Alliance of Black Interpreters Conventions. Many African American / Black students across the country are sitting in classrooms alone. We often discuss how students who are Deaf feel when they are the

only one sitting in a mainstream classroom. I would imagine the feeling is mutual for students who are African American / Black or from any other cultural group.

After reading an article in the RID Views, 1995, entitled "RID—A Long Look Back—30 Years Ago This Month," it inspired me to wonder where the African American / Black interpreters were 25-30 years ago. For a presentation given at the 1st National Alliance of Black Interpreters Convention held in Washington, DC (1997), I posed the question. There was one person who has been in the field for 25 years who was in attendance at the conference. Her name was Dorothy Jackson from Ohio, and a standing ovation was given. Many of us remember Shirley Childress Johnson as one of the pioneers as well. Other names given who have paved the way in the early '40's, '50's, '60's, and 70's were Harry Lee, Ann Wilson, Deboria Lyles, Linda Scott, and Georgette Brown. Of course, there had to be others across the nation, but nothing has been published to date to my knowledge.

Acknowledgement of the accomplishments from African American / Black interpreters is long overdue. There are a number of interpreters who have accomplished much in the field of sign language interpretation for African American / Black interpreters, and education is not the only area. Others have paved the way so that we may achieve academically. We truly thank those who may not have received a college degree but have paved the way for many of us to do so. Let's name a few.

- RID-New written test members:

  Mark Morrison and Lovelyn Lee

- Two African American / Black interpreters—Legally Certified:

  Jolinda Powell-Greenfield and Mark Morrison

- Two African American / Black interpreters—MA—Gallaudet Interpreting Program:

  Jackie Bruce and Leandra Williams

- Two African American / Black interpreters—MA—Gallaudet Linguistics Program:

  John Lewis and Anthony Aramburo

- One African American / Black interpreter—RID State Chapter President—North Carolina:

  Glendia Boon

- National Black Deaf Advocates / Interpreter and Transliterators of Color chair:
  Wanda Newman
- National Black Deaf Advocates / Interpreter Coordinators 1997-1999:
  Anthony Aramburo and Leandra Williams

- There are approximately 35-45 RID / NAD certified African American / Black interpreters
- African American / Black owned interpreting agencies
- A number of interpreters in private practice
- African Americans / Blacks with MA degrees in Deaf / interpreter related fields
- African Americans /Blacks with B.A. degrees in ASL or interpreting
- African Americans / Blacks with A.A. Degrees in ASL or interpreting
- Second National Alliance of Black Interpreters Conference-June, 1999, North Carolina
- There are many local / statewide conferences for African American / Black interpreters

- National Black Deaf Advocates Convention:
  African American / Black interpreters and presenters for 1999, to be held in Jamaica
- Local / State Black Deaf Black Tie / Banquet / Pageant Event / Interpreters
- International Institute of Deaf Services: Paul Ellis, Birmingham, AL
- African American / Black interpreters interpreting internationally

One important note to remember is that many of us are pulling "double / triple duty." For example, just as many of you are attending other workshops specific to educational interpreting, Children of Deaf Adults Conferences (CODA), legal interpreting; National Association of the Deaf (NAD), local and state NAD conferences; Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf Conferences (RID), local, state, and national; medical interpreting, we are adding cultural conferences (i.e., National Black Deaf

Advocates (NBDA); local chapter of BDA; National Alliance of Black Interpreters (NAOBI) — with only one local chapter in Washington, D.C. to date). Could this be part of the reason African American / Black interpreters are not attending all of the other conventions and conferences?

There are five personal characteristics / attitudes that make a difference in the lives of successful African American / Black individuals (Anderson, 1992).

1. Managing other's racial perceptions and reactions
   Successful African American / Black individuals have developed the skill to change whatever negative perceptions others have into one that is a positive.
2. Have the courage to be a "trailblazer" or "pioneer"
   Successful African Americans / Blacks have the ability to be effective in environments where no African Americans / Blacks have gone before.
3. Possess a high degree of self-reliance
   Successful African American / Black individuals have the ability to take risks, to think and act independently, and not be just a follower or one of the boys.

4. Give something back to the community
   Successful African American / Black individuals "give something back" or give time to help and serve others.
5. Possess a strong racial identity and an ability to rise above the racial victim perspective
   Successful African American / Black individuals will experience racism and discrimination in their lives; however, they do not spend a lot of time thinking of themselves as racial victims."

USE OF APPROPRIATE ATTIRE AND "CONTRASTING COLORS"

Last, I would like to take a few minutes to discuss the issue of "contrasting colors." Another important issue a number of students may be learning inside the classroom (but we feel that most of them are learning it outside the classroom), is that

contrasting colors depend on your slun tone. Those students/interpreters who have a light complexion will indeed wear "contrasting colors," which means dark clothing. Just the opposite is true for those African Americans who have a dark complexion. What does this say when an African American walks into a testing room with blue or black? Do all the evaluators know this is the case?

Is this a topic needing to be discussed with ITP across the nation? Unfortunately, in some cases, we still *see* students who have dark complexion wearing dark blue or black. They admit that they were not informed, just as we see other students who are quite informed as to what they should wear.

According to Julie Dash, an African American film maker, "In my work, Black women can do anything." Dr. Jordan, President of Gallaudet University states, "Deaf people can do anything, except hear." I say to you students, "We too, African American / Black interpreters, can do anything with the divine help of the Almighty."

Take a closer look at your students who are African American / Black. Do they tend to be older with a family than your other students? Are they working full-time while your other students are not? Assist them with names of person for support and guide all students who need financial assistance what to do. Motivate students to get in study groups together. Pick a time a place at the school. **A** number of students will want to meet at each other's home, **whch** may be uncomfortable for the student who is African American / Black. Students meet at places that may be uncomfortable for minority students. They may live too far away or out of the area where most students live. They are often the only minority in the classroom. Try to make them feel comfortable without being patronizing. Find a room on campus to be used as a meeting room.

Provide students with the names of professional African American / Black interpreters who currently work in the field. These people may assist with support. Give them information regarding the Black Interpreters' Directory, NAOBI's yearly conference, National BDA, local BDA chapters, as well as other organizations related to the field of sign language interpreting. If you want dormation to be shared regarding minority deaf groups, invite someone from outside the classroom. The student is not an authority on the issue and often will feel inadequate to responding to the entire multicultural issue. There are a number of speakers who could speak to the issue, ***such*** as officers of local BDA chapters throughout the country. Invite them to your classroom.

Professional African American / Black interpreters and Deaf speakers are located throughout the country; contact them to come and speak to your students. For more information, contact Mary Mooney with the National Multicultural Interpreter Project (NMIP). **A** list is being compiled at this time.

A Regional Interpreter Training Consortium held at El Camino College on October 25,1997, sponsored by the National Multicultural Interpreter Project, suggested the following:

Interpreter Training Program Staff should

- Make sure students are exposed, as much as possible to a variety of signing, vocabulary and styles, cross-cultural issues, that they are likely to experience in the real world;
- Make sure teaching materials reflect diversity;
- Recruit staff, guest speakers, and students who are talented, enthusiastic and reflective of the community in which you work and live;
- Invite successful interpreters from various cultural backgrounds as guest speakers (reprinted with permission)."

In closing, students who are African American / Black will continue to strive to be the best that they can with your assistance in understanding what they must go through in order to become just like you, "one of the best." If students learn how to navigate between what they are learning inside and outside the classroom, with your assistance we can move toward excellence individually and as a profession. Effective interpreter education and training can be obtained by all students in our Interpreter Training Programs across the nation.

Booker T. Washington stated, **"A** sure way for one to lift himself up is by helping to lift someone else.''

I would like to thank Dr. Glenn Anderson and Pam Harrison for their helpful comments, suggestions, and support of this paper; to the Conference of Interpreter Trainers Conference, 1998 committee, for selecting my paper to be presented; to the National Black Deaf Advocates and the African American / Black Deaf community for being patient while we learn your language; to the African American / Black students/interpreters for always being willing to discuss their concerns with me; to the National Multicultural Interpreter's Project for financial support in attending the Conference of Interpreter Trainers, 1998; to National Alliance of Black

Interpreters (NAOBI) for being founded; to Bishop State Community College for giving me a chance to be a leader; to Gallaudet University, Linguistics and Interpreter Training Program for training us to understand language, culture, and interpreting to the highest level; to my parents for always supporting and encouraging me; to Brenda LaCosse for being the first African American / Black interpreter I ever saw and sparking my interest; to all of my instructors and co-interpreters throughout the country and the years for sharing their knowledge and skill with me; to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, for loving me. To all, thank you, and Peace!

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THE ACADEMIC STATUS OF SIGN LANGUAGE IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Sheryl B. Cooper, Ph.D.
Towson University

ABSTRACT

This was the first national study of the structure and administration of sign language programs on college campuses around the United States. Data were analyzed regarding the characteristics of institutions offering sign language programs, individuals administering and teaching in the programs, the structure of sign language programs within various institutional frameworks, administrative aspects of course content, and recommendations of current administrators for the development of standards in the field of post-secondary sign language program administration. Results of this study indicate that the status of sign language programs at institutions of higher education has improved over the past few decades, and provide specific recommendations for sign language program administrators and teachers.

INTRODUCTION

Administrators making decisions about sign language programs in institutions of hgher education face many dilemmas today. Where should such classes be administratively based? Should sign language courses be considered modem languages that fulfill graduation requirements? Should American Sign Language or a signed form of English be taught? How should transfer credits be evaluated if the receiving institution of higher education (ME) does not offer the same course? How should native s i p g skills, education, and experience compare as qualifications for sign language teaching positions? Should policy decisions include consideration of conducting classes with or without the use of voice? Should assessment of student progress in expressive and receptive skills be evaluated in a standardized manner? What resources on campus are needed to support an academic sign language program? To date, there has been no comprehensive study that would enable IHE administrators to make informed administrative decisions about the design of sign language classes or to work toward improving the quality of sign language instruction through

standardization of faculty qualifications, sign language curriculum, and program structure.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature has provided little assistance in addressing these issues for the 1990s and beyond. A flurry of research in the 1980s provided basic demographic information regarding the extent and status of sign language instruction in the United States (Battison & Carter, 1982). Shroyer and Holmes (1980) offered some explanations for the increasing popularity of sign language on IHE campuses. A short-lived publication called The Reflector provided lists of IHEs offering sign language programs ("College Level Sign Language Programs," 1982, 1983, 1984; Cokely, 1986). Two studies provided limited statistics regarding numbers of students enrolled in sign language classes (Delgado, 1984; Shroyer & Holmes, 1980). Cogen and Moseley (1984) conducted a study to assess what types of course offerings, degrees and certificates, and program types were available. No research could be found on the topic of sign language program administration at the post-secondary level after 1986.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to establish baseline information about the important characteristics of post-secondary programs where sign language is taught in the United States, including the structure, organization, and administration of such programs and to examine the policies, procedures, and resources used by these classes and programs. In addition, this project included the collection and synthesis of suggestions for the development of standards in the administration of sign language programs at the post-secondary level.

The target population for this study consisted of personnel responsible for the administration of sign language classes in two- and four-year IHEs in the United States. The results provide a description of the administrative aspects of sign language instruction in a post-secondary environment. For the purpose of this study, the term "sign language" included any form of signed language (ASL, Signed English, or contact signing).

METHODOLOGY

RESEARCH DESIGN

A questionnaire was developed and mailed to approximately 1000 institutions of higher education across the country where sign language might be taught based on related academic offerings. More than one-third (n=371) of the institutions responded. Questionnaires were completed by individuals considering themselves responsible for the administration of their institution's sign language program. Results of these questionnaires were analyzed and are reported below. A follow-up survey was conducted to determine reasons for non-response.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the characteristics of the institutions of hgher education offering sign language, and what is the academic status of sign language at these institutions?
2. What are the characteristics, qualifications, duties, priorities, and concerns of administrative personnel in sign language programs in institutions of higher education?
3. What are the characteristics and expectations of teaching staff in post-secondary sign language classes?
4. What is the administrative structure of sign language programs in institutions of hgher education?
5. What is the scope of the sign language program in terms of breadth of coverage, standardization, and assessment of student progress?
6. What are the recommendations of current sign language program administrators regarding the location, status, size, staffing, and administrative needs of sign language classes in IHEs?

SAMPLE

This study surveyed administrators of sign language programs in IHEs in the United States. A mailing list was developed including

(a) Programs listed in the April 1994 directory of the American Annals of the Deaf including Deaf Education (n=60), training for professionals in deafness and deaf-blindness (n=30), and interpreter training (n=63);

(b) Interpreter Training programs listed in the directory of the Conference of Interpreter

Trainers and the American Annals of the Deaf (n=96);

(c) Speech Pathology and Audiology programs listed in the directory of the American Speech Language and Hearing Association (n=137);

(d) Post-secondary programs with specialized support services for deaf students listed in the most recent College and Career Guide for Deaf Students and the directory of the American Annals of the Deaf (n=9);

(e) IHEs known to teach sign language through the Less Commonly Taught Languages Project at the University of Minnesota (n=45); and

(f) Other programs known to this investigator or that responded to inquiries through the Sign Language Linguistics List (SLLING-L) and DEAF-L on the Internet.

This list was cross-referenced with the most recent known list of sign language programs in IHEs (Cokely, 1986, n=772). No attempts were made to eliminate sending duplicate copies; multiple copies of the questionnaire were intentionally mailed to different departments of the same institution with the hope that someone at the institution would respond.

A total of 1230 questionnaires were mailed out, representing approximately 991 institutions. From these, 371 responses were received representing 362 different institutions. Of these, 301 responded that sign language was taught during the 1994-95 academic year.

Non-respondents were surveyed to determine possible reasons for non-response. From the 160 postcards mailed out, 73 responses were received. Table 1 outlines the reasons for non-response.

TABLE 1 REASONS FOR NON-RESPONSE TO QUESTIONNAIRE

Percent of Non-respondents	Reason for Non-response
45.2%	We have sign language classes, not a program.
17.8%	Sign language classes were not offered during the 1994-95 academic year.
12.3%	The questionnaire arrived at a busy time.
12.3%	Never received original survey.
4.1%	Reported that questionnaire was returned.
4.1%	Reported questionnaire was forwarded to another department on campus.
2.756	Questionnaire was returned to researcher by post office.
1.5%	Could not remember.

This dormation provides support for the theory that many institutions did not respond because they offer only one or two classes and not a "program" per se, or they do not offer sign language classes at all. If it can be estimated that two-thirds of the institutions contacted did not respond because they do not offer sign language (17.8%) or have a sign language program (45.2%), then the 362 responses received represent a higher response rate than 37.9% indicates.

MEASURES

A questionnaire was developed to ascertain information on each of the six major research areas. There were approximately 15 questions on each of six topics, creating an SO-item, 12-page questionnaire. Items for the questionnaire were derived from the literature on administration of sign language programs, administration of foreign language programs, and administration of the emerging fields of Black Studies and Women's Studies. The instructions included explanations that the questionnaire was to be completed by the person responsible for the sign language program or classes.

The development of the questionnaire involved a process of ongoing communication between this investigator and several research experts. The questionnaire was pilot-tested by administrators at four institutions including one interpreter preparation program, one deaf education program, one institution serving a large deaf undergraduate population, and one institution where American Sign

Language is a major. All suggestions made by the research experts and pilot-testing administrators were considered, and changes were made before the mailing was sent to the full complement of programs.

PROCEDURES

Data from each completed questionnaire were entered into a data base. To analyze the data, quantitative methods involving descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Frequencies, means, and percentages were the primary descriptive statistics used to profile the continuous variables. Chi-square and t-test statistics were used to provide support for inferential statements, and all statistical analyses were held to a .01 level of significance. Categorical variables were analyzed in terms of grouped frequency distributions. For open-ended questions, both qualitative and quantitative responses were analyzed and coded into categories established by the investigator.

In looking at data describing sign language courses, statistical means rather than frequencies were utilized to control for the differences in prevalence between ASL and other types of sign language classes and to provide a profile of the status of sign language on typical campuses.

RESULTS

CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTITUTIONS

The 301 responses included in the analysis represented two-year institutions (47.2%) and four-year/graduate institutions (52.8%). Of these, 17 respondents indicated that only one sign language class was taught, and **49** indicated that only non-credit classes were taught.

Results of the data analysis indicated that the status of sign language programs at institutions of higher education has improved over the past few decades. This point is most clearly manifest in the following ways:

1. Increased availability of sign language at IHEs: Dozens of new classes and programs have been added each year at institutions around the country since the first sign language class was offered in 1948.

2. Increased enrollment in classes: Respondents to this study indicated that 64.8% of the institutions had experienced an increase in enrollment during the past 3 years, 29.9% had remained stable and only 5.3% had experienced decreased enrollment.
3. Improved status as a credit-bearing course: In 1980, only 13% of the sign language classes taught on college campuses were credit-bearing; in 1995, more than 84% of the classes were credit-bearing. Significantly more 4-year institutions (89.7%) offered credit-bearing sign language classes than 2-year institutions (79.1%).
4. Acceptance of ASL in fulfillment of institutional requirements: Most IHEs (85.2%) accept sign language in fulfillment of some type of requirement (General Education, Foreign Language, etc.) for some or all degrees. Approximately half of the institutions where sign language was taught had foreign language requirements; approximately half of these IHEs accepted ASL in fulfillment of this requirement.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS

The individuals who considered themselves "sign language program administrators" varied greatly in their job titles and backgrounds. Most (60%) were t e a h g faculty members who may or may not also have administrative titles. Twenty percent were full-time administrators such as deans or department chairs, and twenty percent were professional or paraprofessional non-teaching staff members. Most (83%) were full-time employees of their institutions and held permanent positions (85%), but their duties were not limited to coordination of sign language programs. One-third of the respondents indicated that they had no involvement with deaf individuals, and 22% identified themselves to be non-signers. The primary job duty of most of these administrators was teaching, followed by administration, then trailed by advising, service, research, and scholarship.

The data suggested that there were dichotomies among sign language program administrators regarding their primary duties as teachers or administrators and regarding their investment in the teaching of sign language as measured by their level of personal involvement with deaf people and their signing skills. Administrators with less signing skill had a greater likelihood of holding full-time positions than their

colleagues with more sigrung slulls. This dichotomy suggests that sign language program administration is often only one part of administrators' responsibilities. The biggest issues facing most sign language program administrators were lack of support, lack of funding for program expansion, and lack of qualified instructors.

CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTRUCTORS

The status of sign language instructors has not improved as markedly as the status of their classes. These professionals continue to be mostly part-time (78%). Half (52%) of the responding institutions had no full-time sign language faculty, and half of the remaining 48% had only one full-time sign language faculty member. Those who were full-time were mostly female (66.6%) and hearing (61%). The part-time instructors were also mostly female (72.4%) with exactly equal percentages of deaf and hearing individuals. This is a significant improvement compared to 1982 when 76% of the sign language instructors were hearing.

Many instructors held lesser degrees than one might expect of ME faculty. Only 6% held doctoral level degrees, and 40% held Master's level degrees. One-third held Bachelor's degrees. Almost one-quarter (21%) of the instructors identified held less than a Bachelor's degree although they were teaching credit-bearing college courses. Of those who held less than a Bachelor's degree, 75% were teaching in two-year institutions and 25% were teaching in four-year institutions. Over half (59%) had more than six years of teaching experience.

Almost half of the respondents (42.5%) reported that applicants' signing skills were not observed prior to hiring. No graduate programs offered degrees in the teachmg of sign language to provide the desired credentials. Instructors received minimal supervision and minimal institutional support for professional development. Teaching assistants were used in 25% of the responding institutions; these included undergraduate students (35.6%), deaf people from the community (28.8%), graduate students (12.3%), and other individuals such as interpreters (23.3%).

SIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM STRUCTURE

Sign languages classes were located in a variety of different departments on campuses around the country:

Speech Pathology/Audiology, Communication Sciences Departments	25.5%
Foreign/Modem Language Departments	15.0%
Continuing Education Departments	13.1%
Education/Special Education Departments	12.4%
Liberal Arts/Humanities Departments	10.5%
Health/Human Services/Social Sciences Departments	8.6%
Deaf-specific Departments	**3.7%**
Other	11.2%

ASL was the form of sign language most commonly reported to be taught, although 20% of the responding institutions indicated that multiple forms of sign language (Signed English, contact signing) were taught. Advisory boards were used by 20% of the programs.

SIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM CONTENT

Program content, within multi-section programs and across institutions, was not highly standardized. Across and within institutions, different topics were covered (see Table 2), different resources were available (see Table 3), and student progress was measured in different ways *(see* Table **4).**

Table 2 Frequency of Topics Covered in Multi-section Introductory Sign Language Classes

Topic	Frequency Taught		
	Taught in some sections	Taught in **all** sections	Total Institutions teaching topic in multi-section classes
Deaf Community/Deaf Culture	18.3%	77.8%	96.1%
History of Sign Language	29.6%	60.0%	89.6%
Sign Language Continuum	23.1%	63.6%	86.7%
Deaf Education	36.0%	38.6%	74.6%
Careers Using Sign Language	37.2%	27.4%	64.6%
Laws Affecting Deaf People	35.1%	21.6%	56.7%
Audiological Information	24.1%	17.6%	41.7%

Table *3* Resources Available to Sign Language Students

Resource	Percentage of institutions where available
Books on deaf-related topics	74.4%
Deaf-related videotapes	68.4%
Deaf-related journals	57.1%
Deaf students on campus	53.2%
Centralized deaf-related information	43.9%
Video laboratory	41.9%
Sign Language or Interpreting Club	32.9%
Deaf events	31.6%
Deaf student organizations	20.3%
Other resources	11.0%

Table 4 Measurement of Sign Language Student Progress

Assessment Technique	Used in some sections	all sections	Used in technique only	Total Institutions using	Credit-bearing classes
In-class assignments	13.8%	84.9%	98.7%	99.0%	
Live expressive presentations	16.1%	81.456	97.5%	98.1%	
Written exam, translating signs	16.1%	79.6%	95.7%	98.1%	
Out-of-class assignments, papers	22.2%	69.3%	91.5%	94.5%	
Videotaped presentations	28.9%	55.3%	84.2%	86.9%	
Written exam/t-f, multi choice	24.9%	55.8%	80.7%	84.8%	

RECOMMENDATIONS FROM ADMINISTRATORS

Administrators were asked in which academic department they believed sign language should be housed. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5 Sign Language Program Administrators' Opinions: Where Should Sign Language be Housed?

Department recommended	Percentage recommending this department
Modern/Foreign Language	36.8%
Sign Language (separate dept.)	12.6%
Speech Pathology/Audiology	10.5%
Deaf Education	8.1%
Deaf Studies	7.7%
Interpreting	5.7%
Linguistics	5.7%
Special Education	5.3%
Other	7.7%

Administrators ranked how they thought class time should be prioritized, as shown in Table 6, on what criteria they thought students should be evaluated (Table 7), and what methods of evaluation should be used (Table 8).

Table 6 How Class Time Should be Spent by Rated Order of Importance

Priorities	Percentage of Administrators Recommending these Priorities
1. Receptive 2. Expressive 3. Info on Deaf People	36.9%
1. Expressive 2. Receptive 3. Info on Deaf People	26.2%
1. Expressive 2. Info on Deaf People 3. Receptive	14.3%
1. Receptive 2. Info on Deaf People 3. Expressive	7.3%
1. Info on Deaf People 2. Receptive 3. Expressive	6.0%
Other combinations, including those with only two ranked items	9.3%

Table 7 How Evaluation of Progress Should Be Weighted

Skills/Knowledge Evaluated	Percentage of Administrators Recommending these Priorities
1. Receptive 2. Expressive 3. Info on Deaf People	43.0%
1. Expressive 2. Receptive 3. M o on Deaf People	33.5%
1. Receptive 2. Info on Deaf People 3. Expressive	10.7%
1. Info on Deaf People 2. Receptive 3. Expressive	6.6%
Other combinations	6.2%

Table 8 Mean Ranking of Methods for Evaluating Students' Signing Skills

Evaluation Method	Mean	*SD*
Live Signing	1.27	.71
Videotaped Signing	2.29	.99
Written Exams	3.12	.99
Papers	3.84	.73
Other	4.78	.74

On certain issues, significant differences were found between those administrators who were primarily teachers and those who were primarily administrators. Differences were also found between the responses of those administrators who identified themselves as skilled signers and those who identified

themselves as non-signers and not involved in the Deaf community. The issues affected by these dichotomies are explained below.

The position of sign language within the institutional structure. Those who did sign recommended that sign language classes should be in a deaf-specific department; those who did not sign suggested that sign language should be in a department such as speech pathology or audiology.

The acceptance of ASL as a foreign language. Of all respondents, 96.1% suggested that ASL should fulfill an institution's foreign language requirement. Of those administrators who identified themselves as slulled signers, 100% made this recommendation.

Recommended class sizes. Slightly over half (54%) of the 261 respondents believed that sign language classes should have between 8 and 15 students. The minimum response was 8 students per class, the maximum was 35 (mean=17.19, *SD*=5.07). The highest class sizes proposed were 35 (*n*=2), 30 (*n*=9), and 27 (*n*=1). Larger classes were recommended by those who were primarily administrators, not teachers.

Qualifications for sign language instructors. A list of possible qualifications was provided to the respondents, and they were asked to rate each item in terms of its importance as a qualification for post-secondary sign language instructors. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 Importance of Qualifications for Post-Secondary Sign Language Instructors

Qualification	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Prior work experience w/SL	51.2%	39.8%	8.7%	.4%
Native/near-native signer	42.2%	36.3%	15.1%	6.4%
Prior teaching experience	38.6%	46.7%	14.3%	.4%
Known to the deaf community	34.9%	34.5%	23.5%	7.1%
Earned degree	40.2%	23.3%	32.5%	4.0%
Earned degree in a related field	31.3%3	1.3%	32.5%	4.8%
Second language learning *theory*	13.8%3	6.0%	38.1%	12.1%
ASLTA certification	12.1%	28.5%	40.2%	19.2%
RID certification	8.4%	17.3%	38.0%	36.3%

Differences were found between the "most signing" and "least signing" respondents regarding certain qualifications for sign language instructors. The "most signing" respondents saw "knowledge of second language learning theory" as more important than their "least signing" peers, t (195) = **4.15,** p **c** ,0005. *Also,* the "most signing" respondents saw "native use of sign communication" as more important than their "least signing" peers, t (202) = 6.26, $p < .0005$.

These data were investigated further in consideration of the priorities of administrators filling out the questionnaire. The administrators were grouped according to their primary responsibility as "teaching" or "administration." This was defined by their response to the question asking them to rank how they spent their time. The group ranking "teadung" as a top priority was compared to the group ranking "administration" as a top priority, and differences were found in their perceptions of certain qualifications for sign language instructors. The "teaching" group found the qualification of "being known to the deaf community" more important than their "administration" peers, t (243) = 5.88, $p < .0005$. The "most signing" group found the same qualification ("being known to the deaf community") more important than their "least signing" peers, t (204) = -3.85, $p < .0005$.

Level of signing skill required for program administrators. Those who could sign recommended signing fluency as an important job qualification; those who could not sign did not.

DISCUSSION

SUMMARY

The results of this study indicate that with more students enrolled in more programs, sign language is clearly an emerging academic discipline. As a requirement for an increasing number of academic programs and a viable way to fulfill various graduation requirements, sign language as a service course is entrenched in many institutions of higher education. It appears that sign language program administrators are a very heterogeneous group, including signers and non-signers, full-time administrators and part-time teachers, and everything in-between. The professional status of sign language instructors does not appear to have improved as significantly as the status of the classes; many instructors are still part-time and hold lesser academic degrees. Program structure and content is largely not standardized both within and

among institutions. Finally, the recommendations of program administrators tend to depend heavily on the administrators' primary duty as either a teacher or administrator, and their involvement with deafness and sign language.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are some limitations to the generalizability of this study which should be mentioned. Regarding the sample, only those who were contacted were able to participate. It is possible that some programs never received a copy of the questionnaire. *Also,* the sample was limited to those who took the time to fill out the long questionnaire. The final group of 301 institutions where sign language was taught during the year studied included a few institutions with only non-credit classes or single classes; not all respondents represented credit-bearing programs. Most administrators representing "single class only" institutions opted not to respond.

The timing of this study was not ideal. The initial questionnaire was mailed in early April 1995, a busy time near the end of the academic year. Surveys and other data were collected until December 1995, and although requests were made to solicit data only regarding the 1994-95 academic year, it is possible that the final data includes overlapping years. Finally, because data collection lasted for an extended period of time, it is possible that some of the ''planned changes" referred to by respondents actually took place during the data collection period.

An issue arose regarding the respondents' inability to rank and prioritize. Some respondents chose to make check marks rather than rank or prioritize with numerical values, making coding and analysis a challenge. *Also,* an unanticipated issue surfaced as it became clear that many respondents did not have sign language program coordination as their primary duty. The survey questionnaire did not include adequate questions to determine exactly what other duties were coupled with sign language program coordination.

The final limitation of the study was in the self-reporting of the results. Respondents reported their own level of signing skills unsubstantiated by any criteria. Finally, respondents were asked to report the type of sign language taught in their institution (ASL, SE, contact signing). Their responses were accepted without question; however, it was noticed that the textbooks reportedly used did not always appear to match the type of sigrung taught. For example, there were institutions where it was

reported that ASL was taught, and the textbook identified was The Joy of Signing. Since this particular sign language dictionary has no grammatical component, it is generally not used to teach ASL, but the researcher had no way of knowing exactly what took place in each classroom, so the responses were accepted as provided.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND FURTHER RESEARCH

1. Future studies should continue to track the growth and status of sign language programs in IHEs.

2. Research should be conducted to determine if there is a difference in learning outcomes based on class meeting frequency.

3. The need for different tracks of sign language classes should be investigated. IHEs may want to consider separate tracks for professionals and pre-professionals working with deaf people, and another track for students fulfilling institutional requirements.

4. Additional research should investigate definitions and accuracy of the term ASL in course titles and descriptions.

5. Time should be allotted for faculty research on sign language instruction. Publication would provide more information for the field and visibility for the institution.

6. The responsibilities of sign language program administrators should be studied to identify how many are primarily administrators or primarily teachers, and how this impacts programs.

7. The dichotomies regarding sigrung skills and teacher/administrator priorities should be examined further to determine the additional effects of the administrators' own position and background on the sign language program.

8. More Masters and Doctoral level programs are needed to provide appropriate credentials and standardized entry-level requirements for post-secondary sign language instructors. Lack of qualified instructors can lead to canceled classes which can be fatal to a program.

9. Higher hiring qualification standards for instructors should be enforced.

10. More full-time sign language instructors would provide added status and visibility to the discipline. More sign language instructors would have opportunities to participate in institutional decision-making and professional development.

11. Recruitment of minority faculty was not investigated in this study but should be studied.

12. Institutions offering multiple sections of classes should attempt to have as many features standardized as possible.

13. Standardized tests of signing proficiency should be developed for placement of transfer students.

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PRE-INTERPRETING SKILLS: LAYING THE FOUNDATION
CURRICULUM CONSIDERATIONS AND INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Lynn Finton
NTID/RIT
Rochester, New York

INTRODUCTION

During the last several decades the field of interpreter education has recognized that fluency in ASL and English is critical, although insufficient, preparation to do the complex task of interpretation. The professional literature and my experience in the field of interpreter education over the last fifteen years suggests that processing skills are a necessary prerequisite to the performance of interpretation. The course, "Processing Skills Development," was developed ten years ago at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf (NTID) to prepare students with the necessary pre-interpreting skills to process information successfully in an interpretation.

The course "Processing Slulls Development" is a three credit, forty-hour course offered in the Department of American Sign Language and Interpreting Education at NTID. It is a transition course between the ASL language sequence and subsequent interpreting courses in the AAS degree in Educational Interpreting.

GOAL OF COURSE

The goal of this course is to break the task of interpretation into a series of hierarchical sub-skills that, when worked on in isolation, allow for greater success when beginning the interpreting process. Interpreting is an example of 'multi-tasking' at its best. Attempting to begin the interpretation process without developing mastery of the various sub-slulls that make up this complex task can be confusing and overwhelming. Although lack of fluency in ASL and English certainly contribute significantly to errors in interpretation, many errors also result from the inability to process incoming information successfully. In this course, students develop the pre-interpreting skills that allow them to process information successfully as they develop their interpreting abilities.

In addition to the stated goals and objectives of this course (see appendix **A),** an unstated but critically important goal for this course is to develop the students' ability to THINK like an interpreter. I want students to leave this course understanding that:

- the task of interpretation is very complex;
- interpretation is about MEANING and not about WORDS;
- preparation is an important component of interpretation; and
- the breadth and depth of one's real world knowledge and experience significantly impact one's ability to interpret.

Ten sub-skills have been identified from the interpretation literature, and through my experience in the field of interpreter education, as important to address in a course that prepares students for interpreting courses. They include:

Visualization
Main point and summary
Shadowing (auditory and visual)
Listening and comprehension
Structuring
Abstracting
Paraphrasing
Dual task training
Cloze
Sight Translation

This list of sub-skills is not exhaustive. Time constraints within a ten-week quarter system limit the number of skills that can be addressed. Skills training that would compliment the work currently in the curriculum includes more concentrated practice on prediction skills and practice in identifying 'implied' information in spoken discourse. Additionally, a number of these sub-skills are currently only being taught from English to English or English to ASL. Further work needs to be done from ASL to ASL or ASL to English.

HISTORY OF **COURSE**

One of the earliest recollections of my foray into interpreter education (early 1980's) was observing an interpreter educator teaching a course in interpretation. His strategy is what I now call the "Sink or Swim" method of interpretation. Students,

possessing basic sign language skills upon entry to a ten-week interpreting program, were told to listen to an audio tape and begin interpreting. The panic-stricken students sat frozen in their chairs. Having never had any experience in taking course work in interpreting, I assumed this was an appropriate, albeit cruel, introduction to teaching interpretation. I eventually entered a master's degree program in Instructional Technology, taking course work that placed heavy emphasis on task analysis. This eventually led to the realization that the "Sink or Swim" method was not the most effective way to teach interpretation and that pre-interpreting skills needed to be developed in order to do this very complex task. The work of several people began to influence my thinking this time. The 1986 CIT conference, "New Dimensions in Interpreter Education: Curriculum and Instruction" had a number of presentations that addressed pre-interpreting skills. I also began looking at the work of Sylvie Lambert, a spoken language interpreter educator. These events led to my conviction that a systematic approach to teaching pre-interpreting skills was a necessary component of an interpreter preparation program. I began developing workshops and training material in 1988. In the Winter quarter of 1990, I piloted "Processing Skills Development'' as a course for the two year AAS degree at NTID. That Spring, I taught the curriculum I had developed for sign language interpretation, which was based in large part on her work with preinterpreting skills and spoken language interpretation. Ms. Lambert provided excellent feedback and suggestions for modifications. In 1992, the curriculum went through a formal instructional development process at NTID.

This course has undergone sigruficant modifications since its inception. Several of the sub-skills identified and described by Lambert have been modified to parallel more closely my understanding of the interpretation process between ASL and English. Additionally, due to the visual nature of ASL, several sub-skills, not identified by Lambert, are included in this course.

DEVELOPMENT OF COURSE MATERIALS

A variety of resources have been used during the development and delivery of this course. Eventually (1996), I developed a set of audio materials, produced at NTID, that have become students' 'audio textbook' for the quarter. Students are provided with a set of eight audio tapes that contain all of the practice materials needed for the entire course (see appendix B).

The materials consist of 16 different speakers, including students and professional colleagues, speaking on a variety of topics. Each speech was evaluated for appropriateness to the various sub-skill being addressed. A progression from anecdotal, slow paced, non-technical texts to academic, technical, faster paced texts was established for each of the sub-skills.

For additional practice material, students are required to prepare and record themselves delivering a pre-approved five-minute talk on a topic of their choice. These tapes are used as in-class practice materials.

As this course has been developed and modified, an attempt has been made to bring the task closer and closer to the interpreting process. Some of the sub-skills are enabling objectives that lead to other sub-slulls. For example, shadowing is a prerequisite to paraphrasing; visualization and listening are prerequisites to all of the later sub-skills. For the terminal objective stated in the course description, students are expected to "interpret" as the outcome of the objective. The term "interpret" is put in quotes to signify the loose translation of that term. "Interpret," in the context of this course, means that students are expected to receive a source message, modify that message in some way, and produce a target message. The source and target 'message' may be from English to English, English to ASL, ASL to ASL or a non-linguistic visual message to English.

These modifications over the years have helped students in several ways. They have a better understanding of the relationship of a particular sub-skill to its function in the actual interpreting process and are better prepared to process mformation for an interpretation as they begin the interpreting skills course sequence.

SUB-SKILLS

For each of the sub-slulls the following will be addressed:

- a description of the skill to be addressed;
- its relevance to the interpreting process;
- the progression of skill development; and
- the testing of the sub-skill.

1. Visualization

Visualization is the ability to "create and manipulate pictures in the mind" (Stauffer, 1990). Use of visualization in interpretation allows students to drop the form

of the source message while simultaneously retaining meaning in order to render an equivalent message into the target language. One of the complexities for students, whose native language is English, is learning how to take in a linear language and effectively use the three dimensional space of ASL to create a visual message. In these visualization activities, students practice visualizing spoken English texts and discuss how these visualizations would affect an interpretation into the target language of ASL. Visualization is a prerequisite skill to many of the subsequent skills introduced throughout the course.

Progression of skill development:

For this course, the following activities from Linda Stauffer's work on Visualization are used to introduce students to the concept of visualization:

How Visual Are You? Checklist,

Assessment of Clarity of Mental Imagery,

Assessment of Control of Mental Imagery, and

Visualization and the Interpreting Process.

After this introduction, texts that are highly visual in nature are used to apply the use of visualization more specifically to interpreting. Students are asked to listen to an audio tape and visualize the story as it unfolds. Class discussion ensues regarding how the visualization might or might not affect an interpretation of the selection. Students are asked how these visualizations would translate into ASL, i.e., use of space, non-manual markers to show affect, and use of classifiers. We discuss setting the scene. Where are the characters in the story? What emotions are the characters experiencing? Do we know what the characters look like? Students discuss differences in their visualizations and how these variations would impact the interpretation. The audio tape is replayed. Students 'interpret' those parts of the selection that were discussed earlier. The word 'interpret' here is used quite loosely. Students are expected to establish persons, places, and things in space. It is expected that the speaker affect will be clear non-manually. Role shifts to indicate dialogue should be included in the 'interpretation.' In fact, students do not have to sign anything but could still show visually many things that are taking place in the story. It is at this point that students begin to realize that no two interpretations are alike. They begin to realize that variations in people's visualizations will lead to differences in interpretation.

Testing:

Students' ability to use visualization is not tested. Similar to "writing across the curriculum," students are asked to "visualize across the curriculum." Again, the skill of visualization is used in many of the subsequent sub-slulls.

2. Main **Point and** *Summary*

Interpreters sometimes become so bogged down in the details and interpreting 'all of the words' that they overlook the speaker's point. Learning to recognize what the speaker is trying to communicate is an important skill in interpretation. This sub-skill is a prerequisite skill to structuring.

Main point:

Students listen to a spoken text and must give a one-sentence summation describing the point of the selection. Selections for this activity are short. However, this skill can be reinforced in all future sub-skills by asking students to identify the main point of selections they hear.

Summarizing:

Students listen to a spoken text and summarize what they hear. The texts are relatively short, however, long enough so they can not memorize and parrot back the exact words. They must remember the ideas and present them coherently. The goal of this activity is for students to retain the speaker's points without distortion.

Additionally, as part of this activity, students are asked to identify any mformation in the text that is implied but not stated explicitly. It is important that students recognize that what is implied in one language may need to be made explicit in another language and vice versa. Students must also identify the speaker's stance for each selection that they hear. For example, they are asked to identify, if possible, how the speaker feels or what s/he believes about the subject. It is important that students realize that understanding where a speaker is coming from helps LIS to predict what s/he may say. And finally, students must predict where the speaker is heading. Prediction skills, recognizing implicit vs. explicit information, and recognizing speaker stance are valuable activities in teaching students to think like an interpreter. Practicing these slulls with the various texts students are exposed to throughout the quarter is a valuable exercise as they prepare themselves for the task of interpretation.

Testing:

Tlus sub-skill is not tested. This is a prerequisite skill to structuring.

3. Auditory Shadowing

The shadowing task is used to introduce students to simultaneously receiving and sending information. It is a prerequisite skill to paraphrasing. This skill is practiced in both English (auditory shadowing) and ASL (visual shadowing). In auditory shadowing, students listen to a spoken text and simultaneously repeat what they are hearing. Students are introduced to the concept of process (lag) time, the time between the speaker's utterance and the interpreter's delivery.

Progression of skill development:

As students begin the auditory shadowing task, they are asked to remain approximately a phrase behind the speaker. The spoken texts used to develop the skill are slow and non-technical in nature. As students progress, they are encouraged to increase their process time. Additionally, the task is made more challenging through increasing the complexity of the source text and the speed of delivery.

During the practice activities for shadowing, students often practice in pairs, triads, or in front of the class. Students are told that the goal of this activity is to look and sound like the speaker. This includes matching the speaker's inflection, pacing/pausing, and natural rhythm. Additionally, students are encouraged to practice making appropriate use of eye contact as they shadow. Typically students who are starting to learn the interpreting process look at the floor or ceiling while trying to process information. Addressing this issue in this course and getting them used to making eye contact while processing information will assist them as they begin their course work in interpretation.

Testing:

Students listen to a source text and shadow the selection in spoken English. They are evaluated on the following parameters:

Message accuracy/completeness

Pacing/pausing /phrasing

Intonation/emphasis

Articulation

4. **Shadowing-visual**

In visual shadowing, students watch a signed message and simultaneously repeat the message in ASL. Given that ASL is the second language of most students, their ability to use a lag time in visual shadowing is significantly less than their ability to lag in English. Typically, even three to four signs behind the signer is a challenging

lag time. Additionally, students sometimes appear to be successfully shadowing the selection but do not comprehend the source message. This is rare in English to English shadowing.

There appear to be additional benefits to the visual shadowing task. Students often do not use appropriate pausing or phrasing in their second language. Requesting that students be very aware of the source text pacing and pausing structures and emulating them helps students to recognize sentence boundaries, which is the first step in incorporating those in their own interpretations. What is lacking in students' visual shadowing is often what they don't SEE when watching the ASL source text. Pointing out to students what they are missing helps them focus on this area in their work.

In the real world of interpreting, visual shadowing is a skill that interpreters may be called upon to do when "copy signing." Although this sub-skill in not introduced for that purpose, students appear more motivated to develop this skill when they realize they may be requested to perform the task in their 'work' lives.

Additionally, visual shadowing is a valuable tool used in this course and in subsequent interpreting courses. When model interpreting selections in class, students may shadow the instructor's interpretation. This allows students to 'try out' features of the language that may not appear in their own interpretations. This assists them in getting more comfortable using those features on their own in the future.

Progression of skill development:

Videotapes that are used for the visual shadowing task are comfortably paced and are chosen for the clarity and distinctness of sigrung style. Students view a videotape and students are asked to shadow the selection. During class discussion the following questions are addressed:

Was your shadowing successful? Why or why not?

Did you understand what you were shadowing?

What parts of the text were most difficult? Why?

Were you successful in copying the signer's pacing and pausing?

Were the non-manual components of the source text evident in your shadowing?

Were you able to emulate the signer's use of space?

After this discussion, the videotape is viewed again for comprehension. Once comprehension is ensured, students again attempt to shadow the selection. Students are

assigned a number of videotapes to practice for visual shadowing. One of these selections will be chosen for testing the visual shadowing skills.

Testing:

Students watch an ASL selection and videotape themselves visually shadowing the selection. They are evaluated using the following parameters:

Message accuracy/completeness

Non-manual behaviors

Pacing/ pausing/ smoothness

Sign production / clarity

Use of space

5. Listening and Comprehension

Listening is the most basic interpreting skill. The interpreter must listen differently from the average listener, who tunes in and out as things interest him or her. As interpreters, it is important to achieve active listening over an extended period of time. This skill area is practiced by listening to a spoken text and answering comprehension questions based on the text.

Students are encouraged to use their visualization slulls to aid in the recall of detail. This skill is practiced from English to English. This skill is practiced from ASL to written English in the language sequence courses.

Progression of skill development:

Materials vary from 5-15 minutes in length. Texts vary from slow to fast, non-technical to technical, dynamic presentation style to 'dull' presentation style. Students are reminded that active listening is important, regardless if the information is dull or interesting to them. Consumers of ow services may find exciting the very topic that we find 'dull.' Achieving active listening over a broad range of topics is the goal for this sub-skill. It is at this point that we also discuss how our real world knowledge and experience affects our ability to listen actively. It is often easier to achieve active listening to a topic that is of interest to us. It may also have the opposite effect, however. We can become so engrossed in what the speaker is saying, and our own experience or opinion related to the topic, that we might become sidetracked in our own thinking.

As students listen to various selections and answer comprehension questions about what they heard, they often report that they were able to listen actively

throughout an entire selection. It is only when they are unable to answer a specific question about a selection that they realize they let their mind wander.

Testing:

Students listen to an audio tape and answer questions about the theme, main points, details, and inferences that can be made about the selection.

6. Structuring

It is probably safe to assume that we have all experienced the phenomenon of what I call "losing sight of the forest for the trees." As interpreters, we sometimes become so involved in trying to derive meaning from the strings of words as they unfold that we overlook the overall text structure. We often become so bogged down in the vocabulary and the cute little anecdotes, and trying to get all of the infomation, that we lose sight of the overall structure of the message. As a result, the Deaf consumer gets all the details but does not understand the speaker's point or does not understand how the information ties together. As interpreters, our goal should be to get the overall picture *and* fill it in with the details!

A lecturer speaks to transmit ideas to an audience. These ideas are packaged or organized in a certain fashion to help transmit them most effectively. As the interpreter, we must figure out what the lecturer is trying to communicate. Listening for macrostructure, the general organizational framework of a lecture, gives us a structure on which to hang the details of the text. In addition, understanding the text structure/organization helps us understand the lecturer's goals, helps us make predictions about where the lecturer is heading, and helps us remember information more effectively (Lebauer, 1988).

It is important in interpretation to interpret both the macrostructure and microstructure of a text. The first step of this process is recognizing structure in the source language. In the structuring task, students are asked to listen to a spoken text and simultaneously take notes. The note taking system used can vary from individual to individual but must minimally distinguish between main points, sub-points, etc. Once the structure of the text in English is determined, discussion of how these structures are interpreted into the linguistic structure of ASL occurs. The structuring task keeps the interpreter in tune with the 'whole' of the message while simultaneously dealing with the 'parts.'

The concept of 'structuring' does not exist in Lambert's work. I created this nomenclature for the phenomenon I have seen missing in many interpreters' work and, particularly, in the work of students. Often interpreters miss the big picture and hone in on the details. Deaf people are often left to tie together the bits and pieces of information that they receive.

Promession of skills development:

We begin the structuring task by discussing general information about how lectures tend to be structured. Most lectures have a clear introduction, a body, and a conclusion. The body of the lecture can be structured in a variety of ways. We discuss common patterns of organization for academic lectures. In addition, we discuss common cohesive devices in English. We discuss vocal cues (words, pausing, rise and fall in pitch, vocal intonation) in the spoken text which signal such things as change in topic, main and sub-points, digressions, etc. Additionally, students are asked to take special note of individual speaker styles, wluch often provide insight into structure. For example, some speakers consistently use "OK" as a transition marker from topic to topic.

Students are asked to listen to a spoken text, most of which are academic in nature. Students must take notes or outline the lecture in some way. They must organize their notes in some fashion to differentiate main points and supporting detail. As a class activity, the organizational structure is then examined. Students must identify what cues led them to recognize the structure. For example, what cue led them to understand that a new topic was being introduced or that the speaker was moving from one point to the next? After the source text structure has been examined, discussion ensues regarding the delivery of this structure into the target language of ASL. Students are then asked to "interpret" the text. In this context, "interpret" means to show the structure of the text in sign language. Remind students to focus only on the structure of the text. They are not to interpret the whole text, only those parts that have structure. I model "interpret" to clarify what is expected from the students. I also model the full text and ask students specifically to observe how the structure becomes clear in the interpretation.

Up to this point students have listened to audio tapes and structured them on paper prior to attempting an interpretation. For the next activity, students will 'interpret' texts without the benefit of outlining the selection. The goal is to move

students closer to the interpreting task by recognizing text structure and simultaneously "interpreting" the structure into ASL. Students are provided with basic information about the topic. They are asked to predict the possible organizational structure of the text. Students are then asked to 'interpret,' emphasizing overall text structure.

Testing:

Students "interpret" an audio taped selection. Thirty-six items have been selected for evaluation including places in the text where cue words are used, comparison and contrasts, transition markers, etc. Students must include some type of equivalent sign or transition marker in ASL. They are scored successful or unsuccessful for each of the 36 items.

7. Abstracting

Students are required to shadow a spoken text with the goal of retaining main points, sub-points and structural cues while recognizing and deleting extraneous or redundant information. The goal of abstracting is to develop strategies for determining critical dormation, whch needs to be conveyed, and which dormation is less critical to the overall message when variables such as speed can not be controlled. This sub-skill was modified significantly from Sylvie Lambert's work.

The ability to abstract is a critical skill for students. However, it is important to emphasize to students that abstracting is never a goal in interpretation. One would abstract, or delete information, only when a constraint is placed on the interpreter. Discuss situations when interpreters may have to 'abstract' during interpretation. Examples may include when the interpreter cannot control the speed or density of information, such as interpreting audio taped or videotaped material. Some formal settings preclude the interpreter from seeking clarification. Additionally, students or novice interpreters face situations in which the speed of the text is beyond their capabilities. Identifying redundancies and tangential information is helpful in determining what may be deleted.

In the task of abstracting, students are forced to delete information. The goal for this sub-skill is to teach students how to make appropriate decisions about what is deleted. In my work with students, I often notice that if students are struggling to keep up with a lecture because of speed or density of information, they delete information at random, with no thought on how it might affect the overall message. This sub-skill attempts to give students practice in identifying priority dormation and the ability to

recognize dormation that is less integral to the overall message or goal of the speaker. This skill is practiced in English to English tasks.

Progression of skills development:

Students are introduced to the concept of abstracting through a paper and pencil activity. Students are given a handout of a lecture and asked to identify the following:

Cue words (circle)

Examples (underline)

Restatements/redundancies (double underline)

Tangential information (square)

Using the same text as the pencil and paper activity but placed on audio tape, students are asked to shadow the text. As they are shadowing, they should delete restatements and redundancies. Students must determine whether examples are critical to the overall message and determine the impact of any tangential information and delete or retain it as necessary.

Emphasize to students that this is NOT the goal of interpretation. In most situations, we can assert our needs in order to provide a full and accurate interpretation. In some situations where this is not possible, interpreters need to make good decisions about what can be deleted and what should not be deleted.

Relate to students the correlation between structuring and abstracting. The information that was structured on paper—including the main points and the sub points—is obviously an important part of the text and would not be deleted!

During practice activities for abstracting, students can often effectively provide each other with feedback. Students are divided into pairs. Using headsets to listen to the text, one student will 'abstract' the text, shadowing the text while simultaneously evaluating the dormation and deleting redundant information, digressions, etc. The partner will not hear the source text, only the 'abstracted' text, and will provide feedback on how effectively the text hung together. For example, was the text cohesive? Was too much information deleted, making the content difficult to understand? Were there redundancies or digressions within the paraphrased text that could/should have been deleted?

Testing:

Students listen to an audio taped selection. Students must shadow the text, eliminating redundancies, digressions, and extraneous information. This is the most

challenging sub-slull to evaluate because of the number of possible ways to abstract the text. Using students' 'abstracted' test tape and a written script of the selection, I highlight areas in the script that were eliminated but should have been retained as new or key dormation and highlight areas that could have been deleted as redundant or extraneous.

8. Paraphrasing

This skill involves listening to a spoken text and simultaneously rendering the same text, using different words (lexical paraphrasing) and sentence constructions (syntactic paraphrasing). The goal of this task is to retain meaning, appropriate intonation, English structure, pacing/pausing, and natural delivery. This activity allows for the information processing necessary for interpretation but removes the struggle when interpreting from one language to another. This activity is practiced from English to English.

Promession of skills development:

A sentence is written on the board. Each student is asked to retain the meaning of the sentence but communicate it in a different way. After each student has offered a new sentence, the student examples are used to explain the concept of lexical paraphrase (the words alone were changed—ne lexical item was replaced with another lexical item that has the same meaning) and syntactic paraphrase (the word order was changed around).

Next, the students are divided into pairs. The instructor reads aloud a short text. One student in the pair paraphrases the text while listening. The second student provides feedback on the success of the paraphrase Feedback should include some of the following parameters:

Message accuracy
Syntactic substitutions
Lexical substitutions
Intonation/ affect
Pacing/pausing
Grammatical structure
Processing time

Additionally, students will be evaluated on their ability to make eye contact effectively with their audience and to use natural gestures as part of the paraphrasing process. The goal is to look and sound like the original speaker.

During additional practice activities for paraphrasing, students can often effectively provide feedback to one another. The students are divided into triads. Using headsets, one student will 'paraphrase' the text. The second person in the triad listens to both the source message and the paraphrased message. This person can provide feedback on the amount of paraphrasing done, (both lexical and syntactical), the effectiveness of the process time, and the equivalence between source message and target message. The third person in the triad only hears the paraphrased text, not the source message. This person provides feedback on the text cohesiveness, naturalness of the output, English grammar, completeness of message, etc.

The paraphrasing task can be made more complex through faster paced texts, text density, and by requiring longer process time.

Testing:

Students listen to an audio tape and paraphrase the selection, recording their output on audio tape. Work is evaluated by the following parameters:

Message accuracy
Syntactic reconstruction
Lexical reconstruction
Intonation/affect
Phrasing/pacing/pausing
Grammatical structure

9. Dual Task Training

In this task, students must simultaneously listen to a spoken text and perform another mental activity, a task which forces them to divide their attention. The second activity may include counting numbers, writing numbers, or signing numbers. Students are then tested on their comprehension of the spoken text. This activity builds on the Listening and Comprehension skills developed earlier and brings the process closer to interpretation because multiple processes are happening simultaneously. This task is practiced from English to English.

Promession of skills development:

Students will listen to a spoken text. While listening, they will simultaneously count out loud from one to one hundred. (If students reach one hundred and the text is still going, they should start back at one again.) Students will then answer comprehension questions about the text they heard.

Discuss the success of the number counting process. Common problems students experience include miscounting, repeating a number, or losing track of the sequence.

This dual task is made more complex through using texts that become more dense or technical in nature. Additionally, texts with numbers and dates increase the difficulty of the task. The counting task may be made more complex by requiring students to sign the numbers. Counting backwards or counting by 2's can provide additional complexity to the task.

Testing:

Students listen to an audio tape of a selection while simultaneously writing numbers as the additional 'task.' They answer questions about the theme, main points, details, and inferences that can be made about the selection.

10. Cloze

Students shadow a spoken English text which has words deleted. While shadowing, students must fill in the missing words. They must use sufficient lag time to help them derive meaning from the text. This process helps interpreters develop the ability to use contextual (real world knowledge), linguistic (knowledge of the language) cues, and situational cues, a necessary requisite in interpretation.

Progression of skills development:

Students are introduced to the concept of cloze through a paper and pencil activity. Students are given a written speech with approximately every tenth word deleted. They must fill in the speech with words that 'cloze' the text. Background information about the speechwriter and the context in which the speech was given is provided to aid their comprehension of the text. Student answers do not have to be the exact words of the speaker. They can be synonyms that would make **sense** given the context of the speech.

The audio taped practice materials for cloze skills have spoken texts with approximately every tenth word deleted and replaced with a 'beep' sound. In the next

set of activities, students listen to an audio tape text. As they hear the beep, students must write a word that clozes the text.

In the final set of activities for cloze practice students are required to listen to a text and simultaneously shadow, filling in the blanks to cloze the text.

Testing:

Testing of cloze skills will require students to listen to an audio taped text with words deleted by a' beep.' Students must simultaneously shadow the text, filling in the blanks as they shadow. Scoring occurs by counting the number of beeps students are able to fill in with correct words, either using the exact word or a synonym that makes sense grammatically and contextually.

11. Sight Translation

Students watch a non-linguistic message such as a cartoon or a silent film and simultaneously render the meaning of the message into spoken English. Tlus task imposes a time constraint on the students similar to the time constraint imposed in simultaneous interpretation. In addition, output is evaluated for appropriate message equivalency, affect, pacing/pausing and English structure.

Progression of skills development:

The selections for sight translation are relatively short, typically from two to four minutes in length. In this activity, students progress from consecutive, quasi-simultaneous, to simultaneous interpreting. Using the non-linguistic text as the source message, the target message may be practiced in English or ASL.

Students begin the process by performing sight translation in consecutive format. They watch a source text in its entirety. They are then asked to retell the story. Discussion often revolves around from whose perspective is the story being told. For example, is this a first person or third person narrative?

In moving to quasi-simultaneous interpreting, students are asked to watch a 'chunk' of information (determined by the teacher) and provide an interpretation. At this point, students don't have to deal with the time constraints of simultaneous interpretation, nor do they benefit from knowing the whole story before they begin as they would in consecutive interpretation. They must deal with the pieces of information as they unfold but are often not sure how relevant some of the information might be to the point of the selection. Finally, students are asked to watch the selection and provide a simultaneous interpretation.

In this activity, the time constraints of simultaneous interpretation become quite evident to students. They begin to appreciate the advantages of consecutive interpretation.

Testing:

Students watch a silent cartoon and provide a spoken English "interpretation" of the selection onto audio tape. They are evaluated on the following parameters:

Message accuracy
Intonation/affect
Pacing/smoothness
Grammatical structure
Transitions

OVERALL CURRICULUM CONSIDERATIONS

Many overriding themes emerge throughout the course that are relevant to mention here.

Process time (lag)

Students practice the skill of developing a lag between the time of source input and target output in a number of the sub-skills including shadowing, abstracting, paraphrasing, clone, and sight translation. Students are continually encouraged to stretch themselves by continuing to increase their processing time. This strategy allows students to build confidence in their ability to retain information and carries over into their interpreting skills courses. Process time is not evaluated as a separate category for the various sub-skills, but it is often pointed out to students that additional processing time would enhance their abilities to render a smoother delivery, ensure greater accuracy, etc.

Enhancing **real** world knowledge

The practice materials made available to students have a range of content, from anecdotal experiences to academic or formal lectures. My goal for this course is twofold related to enhancing the students' knowledge base. With the variety of materials they are exposed to during the course, I am confident they have added to their knowledge bank. Second, by the end of this course, I expect students to understand how critical if is for them to become lifelong learners. As interpreters, we must be generalists. We must

have a little knowledge about many things. I want students leaving this course to be aware of that importance.

Assignment preparation

Students are told the topic of each of the tests. I encourage them to research the topic prior to the testing situation. In my continuous effort to get students to 'think' like an interpreter, they are reminded that knowledge of the content area will enhance their abilities to perform the test, in the same way knowledge of content enhances one's abilities to interpret.

MODELING

Because this is a transition course between the language and interpreting course sequences, modeling is an important teaching component within the curriculum. The two types of modeling for this course include:

1.) For each of the sub-skills that require "interpreting" (as it is loosely defined), modeling expectations of student performance helps students to understand the terminal objective.

2.) Modeling 'complete' interpretations of various practice materials enables students to better understand how the individual sub-skills fit into the overall interpretation process and helps them better understand the goal of interpretation.

SEQUENCING

The course schedule (See appendix C) indicates the introduction, practice, and testing of each sub-skill. The time in between the introduction of the skill and the test is the amount of time given for practicing the sub-skill. The amount of time devoted to a particular sub-skill ranges from one week for the easier sub-skills to approximately five weeks for the more challenging skills.

CONCLUSION

"Processing Skills Development'' is an excellent bridging course between language and interpreting courses. It provides a firm foundation in developing pre-interpretmg slulls. Practicing these various slulls in isolation enhances students' ability to process information successfully in the task of interpretation. However, these skills

should be practiced and reinforced throughout the interpreting course sequence. As issues with processing arise in interpreting courses, students are often referred to practicing these skills in isolation.

THANK YOU

Thank you to Jeanne Wells and Marsha Young for the invaluable assistance they provided in the instructional development process for this course. I am grateful to my colleagues at NTID who have taught this course and provided me with feedback for curricular modifications/improvement and who provided feedback for this paper. A special thank you to the interpreters-in-training and practicing interpreters who have taken this course and led me to a clearer understanding of the process of interpretation.

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Appendix A

PROCESSING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

NITP 0870-123-01, 02, 03

Course Description

This course is an introduction to the mental processing skills (pre-interpreting skills) of consecutive and simultaneous interpretation. This course provides skill development activities for isolated interpreting subtasks and practice activities for integration of these tasks in interpretation. Course content includes visualization, listening and comprehension, identifying main points and summarizing, shadowing, structuring, paraphrasing, abstracting, dual task, clone skills, and sight translation.

Course Goal

The student's ability to process mformation for an interpretation will be enhanced through the practice of isolated mental activities that are combined in the act of interpretation.

Student Objectives

After successful completion of this course the student will be able to perform these tasks:

- Shadow a spoken text while listening to a recorded message.
- Shadow a signed text while viewing a recorded message.
- Simultaneously listen to and paraphrase a spoken English text using English lexical and syntactic reconstruction while retaining appropriate meaning, grammar, cohesion, affect, and pacing.
- Given a spoken text, simultaneously listen and abstract. Retain all main ideas and supporting details. Delete redundancies, digressions, and extraneous information.
- Given a spoken text with randomly deleted lexical items, shadow the text, simultaneously cloning the message.
- Given a dual task (i.e., listening and writing/speaking), answer comprehension questions based on the listening.

- Given a spoken text, consecutively (rehearsed) interpret with a focus on providing a structural equivalent in the target language.
- Given a nonverbal visual text, (e.g. animated movie), provide a simultaneous interpretation that accurately conveys the content of the text, using appropriate English grammar, vocal intonation and pacing.

Appendix B

PROCESSING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

Daily Schedule

Session	Introduce	Reinforce	Test
1	Introduction to Visualization		
2		Visualization	
3	Main Point & Summary	Visualization	
4	Shadowing — Auditory	Main Point & Summary	
5	Shadowing — Visual Listening		
6		Shadowing — Auditory Listening	
7		Listening Shadowing — Visual	
8	Structuring		
9	Abstracting	Structuring	
10		Abstracting Structuring	
11		Abstracting Structuring	Listening Shadowing — Auditory
12	Paraphrasing	Structuring Abstracting	
13	Dual Task	Paraphrasing	
14	Cloze	Dual Task	
15		Dual Task Cloze	Structuring Shadowing — visual
16	Sight Translation	Cloze Dual Task	
17		Sight Translation Dual Task	

Session	Introduce	Reinforce	Test
18		Dual Task Cloze Sight Translation	Abstracting
19	Course Evaluation	Paraphrasing	
20			Dual Task Paraphrasing

Sight translation and cloze tests are taken during final exam week.

Appendix C

Processing Tapes Content

Tape #1—Main Point and Summary

Side A

1. Kids and Large Families
2. Math Passion
3. How to Solve Your Problems by Dreaming
4. Bug Oven
5. TV as a News Source
6. Summit
7. Children and Homework
8. Archaeology
9. Nature vs. Nurture
10. Hurricanes
11. Forger Robert Spring
12. Women's Role in the 10-11th Century

Tape #2—Listening and Comprehension

Side A

1. Southern California (6:30)
2. Clever Hans (8:00)
3. Colonial Agriculture (9:00)
4. Pine Tree Shillings (8:30)
5. Vampire of the Great Lakes (9:45)

Side B

6. Insects (7:00)
7. How to Deal with Stress
8. American Goals
9. Acid Rain

Tape #3—Structuring (Speaker: Lynn Finton)

Side A

1. Vermont (3:15)
2. Seven Ways to Healthy iving (30)
3. Experiential Education (3:30)
4. Driving a Standard Shift Car (3:00)
5. American Values in Education (2:00)
6. The Government (8:20)

Side B
7. The Population (4:30)
8. The Process of Lecture Comprehension 1A (4:00)
9. The Process of Lecture Comprehension 1B (9:30)
10. Perfectionism (11:35)

Tape #4—Shadowing

Side A
1. My Acting Experience (10:00)
2. Alcoholics Anonymous (7:40)
3. Peer Counselor Training (9:40)
4. Canning Pickles (6:30)
5. A Day in My Life (4:00)

Side B
6. Using Your Voice as a Tool (4:45)
7. Archaeological Dating Methods (7:00)
8. Happy Customers Matter (6:50)
9. Growing up in India (7:16)

Tape #5—Paraphrasing

Side A
1. A New Life (3:00)
2. The Peep Queen (3:00)
3. My Flight (5:40)
4. Collecting Post Cards (10:20)
5. How to Paper Bag Your Walls (4:00)
6. Twins (7:00)

Side B
7. The Environmental School (10:00)
8. NTID Admissions Process (8:00)
9. Culture Shock (8:31)
10. Your Actions Speak Louder (13:00)

Tape #6—Dual Task Training

Side A
1. My Trip to Denali (5:13)
2. The War Years (7:00)
3. The Post War Years (7:30)
4. Anger Management (7:30)
5. Making Paper (9:30)
6. How to Compost (7:20)
7. Walt Disney (7:20)

8. Cacti (8:00)
9. Voter Turnout in the US (8:30)
10. Near Side of the Moon (6:40)

Tape #7—Cloze Skills

Side **A**

1. Marriage Customs Around the World
2. Public Education in the U.S.
3. **A** Cultural Difference: Being on Time
4. Dreams: Making Them Work for Us
5. Language
6. Loneliness
7. Eye Witness Testimony
8. Common Law and the Jury System

Tape #&Abstracting

Side **A**

1. Voter Turnout in the U.S.
2. Developing a Workshop
3. Seven Secrets of Peak Performance
4. How to Deal with Stress
5. Library Research

IT'S A DEAF, DEAF WORLD

Barbara Ray Holcomb
National Institute for the Death
Rochester Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

"It's a Deaf, Deaf World" is a sensitivity workshop that has been developed at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf by the Communication Training Department. The activity was developed from an unpublished paper written by Susan Rose, 'Simulation and Gaming in Education," 1974 at Ohio State University.

The workshop, originally developed as a motivational activity to precede sign language instruction for staff at NTID, has been successfully conducted as a deaf awareness and sensitivity experience for groups of professionals and community people who have indicated an interest in deafness.

This workshop is a simulation game in which participants are required to communicate in a variety of situations using modes of communication that may not be their primary mode of communication. In the "Deaf, Deaf World,'' no talking is allowed. Inhabitants are required to communicate in sign language, fingerspelling or by lip movement only. Points are awarded for successful communication.

At the end of the game a debriefing session occurs. Communication problems which participants encountered are discussed. Participants hopefully will have experienced some of the problems that deaf people encounter with communication in the hearing world.

INTRODUCTION

"It's a Deaf, Deaf World" is an experiential workshop developed at the National Techrucal Institute for the Deaf from an unpublished paper written by Rose (Note 1). This workshop is called an "experiential" workshop because the participants "learn by doing," "learning occurs when changes in judgements, feelings, knowledge or slulls result for a particular person from living through an event" and "the learner is actively

involved in his own learning not just a passive recipient of the knowledge of the teacher.'' (Quinsland & Yust, Note 2).

Originally the workshop was used as a sensitivity experience at NTID for groups of new staff who were beginning basic sign language classes. The workshop proved valuable as a motivator and as an awareness tool for people who had little or no previous experience with deafness. In addition to using it as part of sign language instruction, the workshop has been successfully conducted for groups of professionals and community people who have indicated an interest in deafness.

In Appendix A you will find instructions and a score card for the general workshop theme.

PURPOSE

The purpose of the workshop is to illustrate what it might be like to live in a world where the primary mode or modes of communication are not your own. In the "Deaf, Deaf World" the tables are turned on hearing people. They may not use speech to communicate, but rather must use the mode of communication that workshop leaders use. In this workshop, participants learn that deafness itself is not the handicap. The communication system is the handicapping factor.

CONDUCTING THE WORKSHOP

A. Personnel Requirements

Workshop Leaders: Seven to ten leaders are needed to role play in various stations of the workshop. This number of leaders can accommodate 20-50 participants. If a sufficient number of deaf people are not available as leaders, a hearing person may act as a leader. The hearing person should be one who has associated with deaf people a great deal and is accepted by the deaf community. With more than 30 participants, more than one law enforcement officer is necessary. (See below for roles and responsibilities of law enforcement officer.)

Leader will assume various roles at various stations in the workshop.

Leaders can be required to use sign language only (ASL) or can be assigned different modes of communication. For example, one leader can use fingerspelling only, another signed English, another lip movement only, etc.

The roles for a general theme workshop might include an employment counselor, hospital admissions personnel, travel agent, teller, waitress / waiter, and receptionist.

A list of possible questions for workshop leaders is included in Appendix B. At least four of these stations should be utilized. An information person, law enforcement officer and classroom teacher are included in all workshop themes.

An area called "Hearing Club" is always included, but there is no leader for that area. The "Hearing Club" is set up in an undesirable area of the room (dark comer or small area with no chairs or tables). Talking is allowed, but curiously enough, few participants ever go there.

B. Role and Responsibilities of Leaders

All leaders award points to the participants except the classroom teacher. Leaders can spend up to seven minutes interviewing participants on each of their visits to each station. All questions on the scripts for leaders (Appendix B) need to be asked each time a participant visits a station.

If a participant visits the same station more than once, different questions should be asked.

1. Information Person

   Must know the rules of the game and be able to answer any questions that arise during the workshop.

2. Law Enforcement Officer

   Penalizes participants for using speech communication by deducting points on their score card. The law enforcement officer also checks to *see* if participants followed the directions on the videotaped warnings. If they did not follow directions the law enforcement officer subtracts points from their score.

3. Classroom Teacher

   This person usually teaches survival sign vocabulary so that participants learn some way to communicate with leaders. No points are awarded in this area. Lessons are limited to 15 minutes so that participants can take turns attending the lessons.

4. Teller, Waitress/Waiter, Travel Agent and Employment Counselor

   These people are responsible for interviewing and obtaining information related to their specific areas from participants.

C. Logistics

We have found that a large room (800-1000 square feet) is the optimum environment for this type of workshop. The room should be self contained with participants staying in the room for the length of the workshop.

Equipment needs include:

tables for the stations (enough tables for the number of stations used)
chairs for classroom and one or two chairs at each table, plus one chair for each participant to be used during the debriefing session.
posters to designate stations
videotape of warnings (See Appendix C)
videotape playback equipment and monitor
chalkboard and/or overhead for classroom
instruction sheet and score card for participants (See Appendix A)
questions (scripts) for leaders at various stations (See Appendix B)
vocabulary list and fingerspelling cards for classroom
paper and pencil for group leaders
plastic poker chips (several colors) for warning protection
badge to designate law enforcement officer
masking tape or thumb tacks to hang posters
PRIZES - "I Love You" products and/or books/novels relating to deafness

D. Time Limitations

This workshop has been conducted from one and one-half hours to three hours in length. We have found that the length of time used for the workshop depends on the size of the group and the receptivity of the group to this kind of activity. Workshop leaders need to determine when to end the simulation portion of the workshop and start the debriefing session depending on the group. However, the simulation portion (when all rules are in force) should continue for at least one-half hour or more to get the full impact of what it is like to have difficulty communicating and to experience a certain level of frustration. This is crucial to the success of the workshop. The debriefing session should occur immediately after the simulation portion and should continue for as long as participants have something to say. A list of possible questions for debriefing session is included in Appendix D.

E. General Scenario

Group leaders should have the room set up and ready to go at the start of the workshop. A sign announcing YOU ARE NOW ENTERING "It's a Deaf, Deaf World." NO TALKING BEYOND THIS POINT is posted at the door of the room for people to read as they are entering the room. Each person is handed an instruction sheet and score card as he or she enters. Group leaders should be sitting at their stations waiting for participants to interact with them. The competition element of this game involved involves accumulation of points. Points are awarded by all leaders (except the classroom teacher) for any form of successful communication. A communication interchange can be worth from one point to ten points. It should be noted that the awarding of points can be very subjective. One leader may give five points for successful communication using fingerspelling. Another leader may give ten points for the same communication. This discrepancy can be equated to the situation in the hearing world where a deaf person with poor speech skills may be treated very badly by some hearing people who don't want to be bothered to try to communicate while other hearing people will be very helpful and really try to communicate.

Participants should visit each station at least once. They may visit more than once if they wish.

Approximately 30-40 minutes into the game, the first videotape warning should be shown. (See Appendix C for sample scripts.) The person on videotape instructs participants to obtain a chip (of specific color) to avoid some disaster. The leaders should take heed of the warning and follow instructions, then go back to their stations and continue the game. About five minutes after the warning, the law enforcement officer should begin checking to *see* if participants have their chip as instructed in the warning. If they do not, a certain number of points should be deducted. (For example, 10, 20, or half the number of points accumulated.)

The second videotape warning should be shown approximately ten minutes after the law enforcement officer has finished checking for chips from the warning. The same procedure is followed for the second warning.

After both warnings have been shown and it is observed by the leader that most people have visited each station at least once, the simulation portion of the workshop ends.

The room should then be set up with chairs in a large circle for the discussion or debriefing portion of the workshop. Score cards should be collected and tallied if prizes are going to be awarded.

Prizes can be awarded for the high scores, the hghest and the lowest scores or any way you wish to award participants. Prizes can be awarded after the discussion.

F. Debriefing Session

The debriefing session is a very important part of the workshop. In experiential learning terms this is called "processing." Processing can be defined as "an activity which is employed for the purpose of encouraging the individual to reflect, analyze and communicate in some way than which was recently experienced.'' (Quinsland & Yust, Note **2).** In this case, processing occurs in the form of a discussion or debriefing session. At this time participants are asked to share the feelings they had during the simulation portion of the workshop. Many interesting insights usually come up at this time and the discussion leader should **try** to equate feelings that the participants had to the feelings deaf people have regarding communication. A series of suggested discussion questions can be seen in Appendix E. This is an excellent

opportunity for group leaders to discuss problems that deaf people have with television bulletins, special reports or storm warnings that are not captioned.

Areas of deaf culture including the existence of deaf clubs can be discussed.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTION SHEET

WELCOME TO IT'S A DEAF, DEAF WORLD

In an attempt to simulate some of the problems deaf and hearing-impaired people experience in the environments designed to meet the needs of hearing people only, we have established a new community known as It's a Deaf, Deaf World. Within this community, the tables are turned. You are about to enter the world of the deaf where speech communication is of little use and where formal and informal body communication is the key to success.

Your goal in this simulation game is to obtain as many points as possible by communicating effectively and enthusiastically in this Deaf World.

RULES

1. At no time during the game is speech allowed. Communication may be carried out in the form of natural gestures, writing, reading, speechreading, formal signs, and fingerspelling. (Exception: participants may communicate via speech only while they are visiting the Hearing Club.)
2. Participants who are caught using speech for communicative purposes will be fined by the Law Enforcement Officers. Fines will involve taking away points according to the judgement of law officers.
3. Participants successfully communicating ideas to area leaders (Employment Counselor's offices, St. Mary's Hospital, Globe Travel, etc.) in the game will be awarded an appropriate number of points depending upon the enthusiasm, sincerity, and clarity of communicative efforts.
4. Warnings, signals and emergency announcements must be heeded in the announced time period to avoid serious disaster of losing points.
5. Each participant must attend the Employment Counselor's Office, St. Mary's Hospital Admissions, Globe Travel Agency, Restaurant, Hotel Registration Desk, the National Bank, at least once. Additionally, points will be awarded to those participants who successfully communicate with the Law Enforcement Officers and Information Desk Personnel. No points will be awarded in the Classroom or Hearing Club areas. Participants may return to areas more than once in order to gain more points

.

Name: _____

SCORE CARD

Visit each of these areas at least once:

Globe Travel Travel	St. Mary's Hospital Admission Office	Employment Counselor's Office	Restaurant	Hotel Registration Desk	The National Bank

Law Enforcement Officers

Extra Points

TOTAL POINTS

APPENDIX B
SCRIPTS FOR LEADERS

Information Desk, The National Bank, and Restaurant

May I help you?

Do you have any questions?

(Answer appropriately when participants **ask** questions.)

Hotel Registration Desk

May I help you?

Would you like a room? For how many people?

May I have your name?

How many days do you plan to stay?

Will this be charged or cash?

Will you need any assistance with your luggage?

Would you like room service?

Employment Counselor's Office

What is your name?

What jobs have you held?

Do you have a job now?

What kind of job are you looking for?

What are your qualifications?

Tell me about your educational background.

Why did you leave your last job?

Globe Travel Agency

Where would you like to go?

How long do you want to stay?

When do you plan to leave?

Do you want hotel reservations?

How many people are traveling with you?

Do you want to rent a car?

St. Mary's Hospital Admission Personnel

What is your name?

How old are you?

What is your address?

Who is your doctor?

Do you have medical Insurance?

Have you been in this hospital before?

Are you allergic to anything?

Are you on any special diet?

Do you have any children?

Is there a history of your illness in your family?

Do you want a private room?

what	name	hello	hospital
why	job	thank you	history
who	school	good	sick
how	eat	bad	family
you	drink	fly	home
me	question	luggage	doctor
I	yes	cash	nurse
leave	no	charge	children
want	yesterday	smoking	old, age
have	today	reservation	cost
help	morning	room	dollar
white	afternoon	single	cent
blue	night	double	numbers (1-10)
red	airport	hotel	how much
chip	information	registration	how many

Fingerspelling Cards

APPENDIX C
SCRIPT FOR WARNINGS

FIRST WARNING

"Good Afternoon. I have an emergency announcement for all residents of "Deaf, Deaf World."

"This is a statewide emergency. There has been an accident at the Nuclear plant. For your safety the National Guard is evacuating this area. You must report to the emergency safety headquarters (center) at the Information Desk and pick up red chip."

"I repeat. There has been an accident at the Nuclear plant. Please report to the Emergency Safety Headquarters, at the Information Desk and pick up a red chip immediately! Thank you."

SECOND WARNING

"Good Afternoon. I have an emergency announcement for all residents of "Deaf, Deaf World."

"The National Weather Service has issued a warning for all residents in this county to be prepared for a terrible flood expected to hit this area at 12 midnight tomorrow. Rains from Hurricane Robert are expected to cause the worst flood of this century. Please report to the Emergency Flood Headquarters at the Information Desk to receive instructions for your safety and to pick up a white chip."

"I repeat. The National Weather Service has issued a warning for all residents to be prepared for a terrible flood. Please report to the Emergency Flood Headquarters at the Information Desk and pick up a white chip immediately!"

"Thank you."

Appendix D

SUGGESTED DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR PARTICIPANTS

What were your feelings when you first walked in and learned you couldn't talk?

Do you think deaf persons experience the same type of frustration in real life?

Did your feelings change during the workshop?

Could you understand the special messages-emergency warning and/or bulletin? If you could not understand how did you feel?... What were you thinking?... What did you do?... Why?

What kinds of situations cause communication difficulties for you? How could some of these difficulties be solved?

What are some real life situations in whch you would expect deaf people to have difficulty communicating? How could some of these difficulties be solved?

How did you feel about the number of points the leaders gave you?

Discuss areas of deaf culture including the existence of deaf clubs (draw the analogy of the "hearing club" in the workshop).

For more dormation regarding this workshop, please contact the author:

Barbara Ray Holcomb
National Technical Institute for the Deaf at
Rochester Institute of Technology
52 Lomb Memorial Drive
Rochester, New York 14623

Phone: (716) 475-6271
Fax: (716) 475-6500
E-mail: BR''CM@RIT.EDU

INTERPRETING PROPERTY CONCEPTS

William P. Isham, Ph. D.
Department of Linguistics
University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, NM, USA

ABSTRACT

In English, properties of objects are typically conveyed via adjectives (e.g., "the smart woman," "that wood is soft"). Not all languages use adjectives, however: some languages express property concepts using nouns, while others use verbs. This paper describes a research project that investigated how property concepts are conveyed in American Sign Language (ASL). The results demonstrate that the lexical category (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) of a property concept word depends to a great degree on its semantic class (dimension, color, physical property, etc.). Some property words are employed as adjectives; others may be conveyed only by treating the property words as verbs. This impacts our ability to interpret into ASL, for we cannot rely on the rules of English to predict where to place such signs in the target-language sentence. Following the description of the research and its results, strategies will be reviewed on how to predict the lexical category of a property concept from its semantic class, as well as how clauses containing them should be structured syntactically.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reports a recent study on the linguistics of American Sign Language (ASL), and then discusses its implications for practitioners of interpretation. First, some terms need defining, beginning with those in the title.

Concepts are language-free representations of knowledge items in the world; that is, knowledge about the world is stored in the mind by concepts, and such storage does not involve dormation about any particular language. For example, when we hear or see the word *cat,* knowledge about a four-legged furry animal becomes active for speakers of English. That knowledge is contained withm our concept of cats; the word has only activated the concept. We could also activate the same concept by saying *chat* to speakers of French. For an English-French bilingual, it could be argued that either *cat* or *chat* would trigger the same concept withm a single mind. Therefore, words serve as pointers that activate a concept, while the concept itself is language free.

Concepts can be either concrete or abstract, of course, and are not limited to knowledge of objects, or the nouns that point to them. We have a concept of *dignity*, an abstract thing; we also have a concept of what it means *to walk*, a concept triggered by a verb. We also have concepts about "properties."

Properties are those characteristics, attributes or traits that can be used to further describe things in the world. Tables can be hard, people can be lazy, dignity can be noble, and so on. Property concepts (PCs), then, are those language-free representations of characteristics that can be attributed to objects in the world.

The study described here investigated how property concepts are conveyed in ASL. More specifically, signs that refer to PCs were examined for "word class" (a.k.a. "lexical category" or "part of speech"). Word classes are categories in which words are grouped by how they behave in sentence structure (syntactically), and what they mean (semantically). Classes include: nouns (a syntactic notion) which refer to objects (a semantic notion); verbs (syntax) refer to actions, processes, or states (semantics); and so on.

The plan is this: after reviewing how English handles PCs, and establishing that other languages may do it differently, I will describe the study, review the data that resulted from it, and end by discussing the implications of these results for practicing interpreters.

PROPERTY CONCEPTS IN ENGLISH

English typically employs the word class adjective to express property concepts. Adjectives add more information to, or "modify," nouns. The information added is typically a property.

There are several ways that English sentences can be structured to include an adjective. The first is to place the adjective directly before the noun it will modify; this is called the "attributive" position. The underlined words in the following examples are all adjectives, and each attributes its property to the object named immediately after:

The hard table resisted scratching.

The lazy man watched TV all day.

The fast car won the race.

The smart woman couldn't make up her mind.

While this use of an adjective may seem basic, it is not the most frequent manner that adjectives are actually used in everyday conversation (Thompson, 1988). It is more common for English speakers to place adjectives in the "predicate."

Most definitions of predicate leave something to be desired, for one invariably can find an exception. For our purposes, it will suffice to say that the predicate is the main verb phrase (VP) of a sentence. Instead of using the adjective attributively as in *the witty girl*. . . we can move the adjective to the end of the sentence, place the verb "to be" before it, and thereby predicate the adjective, resulting in The *girl* is *witty*. Now the adjective is part of the VP. Predicating the adjectives from the examples above, we have:

The table is hard.

The man is lazy.

The car is fast.

The woman is smart.

We can also combine the attributive and predicating positions, with sentences like:

The table has a hard surface.

Here, the adjective is placed just before the noun it is modifying (attribution), but both are in the main verb phrase (predication). These latter two ways of using adjectives are by far the most common in English discourse (Thompson, 1988), likely because they function to introduce a property, that is, they are used to mention the property for the first time in conversation. Once we have established *the man* is *lazy,* for example, we are more likely to use the adjective attributively later in the discourse, as in *that lazy guy just sat and watched TV all day!*

There are other ways to use adjectives; another will be described later. For now, however, the above review will serve as a contrast to other languages.

PROPERTY CONCEPTS IN OTHER LANGUAGES

Most speakers of English are surprised to learn that many of the world's languages do not have adjectives. This was first established by (Dixon, 1977) in a classic paper entitled "Where have all the adjectives gone?" Dixon examined 17 languages, and found that one could categorize languages by the manner in which property concepts were expressed.

The first category of languages are those that, like English, have a large adjective word class. Cherokee and Dyirbal, a language of Australia, are examples.

Other languages, however, either have no adjective class at all, or else they have a small adjective class containing relatively few words as members. These languages handle the majority of their PCs in one of *three* ways. Some languages, like Finnish, Modern Hebrew and many African languages, employ nouns to convey PCs. Another group of languages, including Mandarin Chinese, Thai, Navajo, and Yurok, use verbs for their PCs, and a fourth category of languages divides its PCs into both nouns and verbs. This group includes Japanese, Hausa from the Niger-Congo family, Chinook, and Samoan. For these languages, which property concept words are nouns and which are verbs can often be determined by their semantic category (more below).

Speakers of English may wonder how property concepts could possibly be nouns or verbs. A complete explanation would involve a longer discussion about linguistics than we have time or need for. Instead, I will attempt to describe the matter using English words and showing how sentences might be structured if PC words were nouns or verbs, and not adjectives. By doing so, however, it must be stressed that I am not claiming that this is exactly how the languages named above do it; rather, I am giving an example of what such a language might do in structural terms.

For those languages that use nouns for their PCs, imagine that we do not have an adjective for "lazy," but instead we are limited to the noun "laziness." In order to attribute this property to things, we must use this term as nouns are used. Therefore, we do not accept, in our imaginary language, sentences like:

"The laziness man watched TV all day."

because putting the two underlined nouns next to each other feels wrong somehow.

Instead, we would typically position our PC noun so that it is acceptable to our (unconscious) knowledge of the "rules" of our language. One possibility would be to relate the PC noun to the object being modified by showing possession of the property (Schachter, 1985), giving us something like:

"The man has laziness. He watched TV all day."

In this way, the PC is expressed using a noun.

Now imagine that our language uses verbs for its PCs, rather than nouns or adjectives. Languages that do so typically use a type of verb known as "stative verb," or to be more specific, a subclass of stative verbs.

To explain, verbs denote either actions *(to hit),* processes *(to become),* or states *(to know)* (although some linguists view action and process verbs as a single category: see

Croft, 1991). "Dynamic" verbs includes actions and processes, while "stative" verbs express states, that is, conditions of life or states of being (Schachter, 1985). In turn, stative verbs can be sorted into two subclasses: simple statives like to *know* and what I'll call (for lack of a better term) "property" statives. In (actual) English, we don't have a subset of verbs that are themselves property statives; instead, we position the "to be" verb (or "copula") in front of the adjective, as in to *be kind*. The examples of predicated adjectives given above were such phrases: to say the woman is smart is to make a claim about the woman's "state of being."

Linguists commonly call such constructions "predicate adjectives'' (Croft, 1991; Hopper & Thompson, 1984; Schachter, 1985). Tlus term is undesirable, however, because the term means different things at different times. For example, when referring to English, it denotes a verb phrase and not a lexical item. If asked to categorize smart in the woman is smart, all would deem it an adjective. "Predicate adjective," then, refers to the verb phrase is smart, that is, the copula and the adjective that has been predicated.

When discussing other languages, however, "predicate adjective" now refers to a single lexical item. In a languages such as Samoan, Mandarin Chinese, or Thai, there is a subclass of stative verbs in which adding a copula is unnecessary, for the "to-be-ness" is already contained within the word itself. Samoan, for example, has a verb lelei (Dixon, 1977); a single word that, per force, we would need three words to translate: "to be kind" In this way, Samoan expresses this property concept with a type of stative verb. Samoan speakers can begin a sentence with their noun phrase (NP) for That man, and then simply add lelei—or perhaps a variant that has been inflected of conjugate—to form an acceptable sentence meaning that man is kind. Structurally, however, it would equate to "That man is-kind," with the underlined portion being a single lexical item. It is this kind of non-English stative verb that I will call a "Property Verb."

Clearly, we will need to distinguish between these two meanings of "predicate adjective," because the goal of the study is to determine whether ASL predicates adjectives as English does, or uses property verbs as Samoan does.

So languages vary in their manner of expressing property concepts and it is not mandatory for languages to have an adjective word class. All languages must, however, have the capability of talking about properties, and so I now turn to the major focus of this paper: how property concepts are conveyed in ASL.

THE STUDY: DOES ASL HAVE ADJECTIVES?

Some researchers have assumed that ASL must have adjectives (e.g. Padden & Perlmutter, 1987). Others, such as Klima et al (1979) appear to recognize that certain signs do not behave as adjectives would, but nevertheless refuse to name any specific lexical category. However, a few have stated that at least some of these signs are verbs (e.g., Baker & Cokely, 1980), and interestingly enough, one such article was written with an audience of interpreters in mind.

The goal of the paper by Colonomos (1984) was not to study property concepts or word classes per se. Rather, she was cautioning students of interpretation (and others) that English glosses in "sign language" dictionaries and ASL textbooks were often misleading, both semantically and syntactically. As an example, Colonomos stated that the sign usually glossed BEAUTIFUL should instead be glossed TO-BE–BEAUTIFUL, to denote that it is a property verb (although Colonomos used the term "predicate adjective": see the discussion above).

My own observation tended to confirm this: words[iii] about properties were often used structurally as verbs, although some property concepts did appear to be used as adjectives. In conversation with other ASL researchers (e.g., Marina McIntire, personal communication, July 1995), I discovered that many others had also come to the same conclusion. Still, there was no published study that took up the issue directly, and I decided to do so.

Does ASL have adjectives, and if so, to the same degree as English? If not, do ASL PCs pattern after nouns, verbs, or both? My working hypothesis was that ASL typically employed property verbs to convey PCs, but that ASL did have a (probably small) class of adjectives. If the hypothesis is correct, discovering which property concept words could be used as adjectives would become one of the research goals.

One more defirution is necessary before continuing. By "category," I refer to a set of objects grouped together by some commonality. This does not mean, however, that membership involves only a yes-no decision (as in "is a sparrow a member of the bird category: yes or no?"). Within categories, some members will be better examples of that category than others (as in "Is a penguin a member of the bird category? Yes, but a sparrow is a better example.")

This view of categories was introduced by Eleanor Rosch (1973, 1978) with experiments in cognitive psychology. Deciding membership within a category appears

to occur as if the human mind were comparing the possible member against some kind of template, called a "prototype," that best represents that category. In this way, category membership involves internal structure, that is, members within a category will not have equal weight, but are scaled according to how "good" an example they are. This explains why it seems intuitive to consider a penguin a rather marginal member of the bird category: Rosch might say, "a sparrow is a birdier bird."

The implication for what follows is this: although our teachers of English grammar taught us that the category noun, for example, contains "people, places, or hngs," such a definition is unsatisfactory for two reasons. First, instead of using semantic notions (such as "people, places, or things"), membership within lexical categories will be determined by how a word "behaves" in sentence structure. Secondly, we do not expect categories to have clear-cut boundaries. Instead, signs will differ in the degree to which they appear as one category over another.

METHOD

The Corpus

Two professionally produced videotapes of ASL narrations were transcribed (Bienvenu, 1994; Schemenauer, 1989).Each tape consisted of a Deaf person relating their life story, with a single, unmoving camera pointing at the speaker. The narrators, one male and one female, are both native users of ASL in the strictest sense of the term: both have Deaf parents.

While both tapes were part of a series intended for ASL students to practice their comprehension, the signers did not discuss the nature of ASL and so no metalanguage was used. Each tape was over 30 minutes in length.

There is no single standardized notation system for transcribing ASL. This is probably due to the difficulty inherent in representing a visual-gestural language in which the words move within a three dimensional space. Therefore, researchers tend to notate only those features of ASL that are relevant to the question at hand (Janzen, 1998). For this study, the transcriptions consisted of English glosses for each manual sign used, with additional symbols to represent relevant non-manual grammatical signals that appeared concurrently with the signs. C o m a s were placed between signs to indicate the location of a detectable pause, since pauses often indicate a syntactic boundary (Grosjean & Lane, 1981).

Signs related to descriptive property concepts were then located and transferred to listings in a form designed for coding. Not included were finger spelled words, quantifiers, or classifiers. Following Thompson (1988), phrases in which nouns were used as modifiers—such as *summer* school—were also excluded.

Coding

Each PC word was then categorized both semantically and syntactically. As mentioned previously, Dixon (1977) had found that the word classes of properties tended to group around semantic categories. He used seven: Age (including words like *old* and *new*); Color *(red, green);* Dimension *(big, long);* Value (*good, bud);* Human Propensity *(jealous, happy, generous*); Physical Property *(hard, heavy,* smooth); and Speed (*fast, slow*).

These categories were adopted for this study, with one modification and two additions. Instead of the Value category, the term "Evaluative" was employed to include any sign in which the speaker was expressing a judgment about something, as in good, *interesting, different,* and *wrong.* The two added categories were Position, which included signs about relative distance in time and space, and a category labeled "D&H" because it included only two signs, DEAF and HEARING. The motivation for adding this category will be addressed during the discussion.

For the syntactic coding, words were grouped into the four major word classes of noun, verb, adjective, and adverb.[5] Several tests were used in categorizing the signs into word classes, Multiple criteria had to converge for a sign to be deemed an Adjective: a) the property sign had to appear either adjacent to the noun it modified or appear in a sequence of property and/or degree words adjacent to the noun; b) appear in the same phrase as the modified noun (NP or VP); c) did not appear concurrently with a relative marker (more below); and/or d) was not inflected for aspect or other inflections typically found in verbs. Adverbs were categorized similarly, except the property word must have modified a verb or clause. If a property sign failed these tests for adjectives and adverbs, the sign was then submitted to five tests listed by Thompson (1988) for determining whether were "noun-like or verb-like" (p. 181). Space prevents going into detail here; however, Thompson's tests appear in the appendix, and her paper is readily available for those interested. Also, both Croft (1991) and Bhat (1994) provide extensive discussions on lexical categorization.

As the syntactic coding was the point of the study, it was crucial that the categorization proceeded in an objective manner, without any experimenter bias. A few signs presented difficulty in this regard. Thompson's tests were either irrelevant to the case, or it was impossible to answer the questions posed by the tests without being subjective. Such cases were therefore not included.

PC words were then tallied by crossing semantic and syntactic categories.

RESULTS **AND** DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the tallies and percentages from the transcript of one videotape; Table 2 displays the other. Table 3 is the data from both transcripts combined. This allows one to *see* that the pattern appearing in Table 3 is evident in Tables 1 and 2: the pattern of results was not due to one signer more than the other.

The following discussion refers to Table 3 (although all three tables can be read in the same way). Semantic Categories are listed across the top of the page, and the word classes are listed in the column on the left. In each cell, the simple count of occurrences is presented within parentheses. The total number of tokens (i.e., PC signs that appeared in the corpus) for each Semantic Category is found at the bottom of the table: this is simply the sum of the counts for that column. For example, the first category is 'Age' (signs like YOUNG or NEW); there were nine Age signs altogether, four of these were used as adjectives.

TABLE 1
PC Tokens from Transcript #1
Counts and Percentages Grouped by Semantic and Syntactic Category

% (N)	AGE	COLOR	D/H	DIMEN.	EVAL.	HUMAN PROPEN.	PHYS. PROP.	POSITION	SPEED	TOTALS
ADJ.	(2)	(3)	69% (31)	(4)	13% (8)	3% (1)	(3)	(7)		35% (59)
ADV.					12% (7)				(1)	5% (8)
NOUN			20% (9)					(3)		7% (12)
VERB	(3)		11% (5)	(1)	75% (45)	97% (32)	(2)	(1)		53% (89)
TOTAL	(5)	(3)	(45)	(5)	(60)	(33)	(5)	(11)	(1)	(168)

TABLE 2
PC Tokens from Transcript #2
C nts an Percentages Grouped by Semantic and Syntac c Category

% (N)	AGE	COLOR	D/H	DIMEN.	EVAL.	HUMAN PROPEN.	PHYS. PROP.	POSITION	SPEED	TOTALS
ADJ.	(2)	(2)	43% (53)		6% (12)	2% (2)	(1)	65% (24)		21% (96)
ADV.				(1)	5% (10)		(1)	19% (7)		4% (19)
NOUN			37% (45)		0.5% (1)			3% (1)		10% (47)
VERB	(2)		20% (24)	(2)	88% (176)	98% (88)	(1)	13% (5)	(2)	65% (300)
TOTAL	(4)	(2)	(122)	(3)	(199)	(99)	(3)	(37)	(2)	(462)

TABLE 3
PC Tokens from Transcript #1 + #2
Counts and Percentages Grouped by Semantic and Syntactic Category

% (N)	AGE	COLOR	D/H	DIMEN.	EVAL.	HUMAN PROPEN.	PHYS. PROP.	POSITION	SPEED	TOTALS
ADJ.	(4)	(5)	50% (84)	(4)	8% (20)	2% (3)	(4)	65% (31)		35% (155)
ADV.				(1)	7% (17)		(1)	15% (7)	(1)	5% (27)
NOUN			32% (54)		0.3% (1)			8% (4)		7% (59)
VERB	(5)		17% (29)	(3)	85% (221)	98% (120)	(3)	12% (6)	(2)	53% (389)
TOTAL	(9)	(5)	(167)	(8)	(259)	(123)	(8)	(48)	(3)	(630)

If there were a sufficient number of tokens, the percent Occurrence out of all tokens for that category is listed for each word class. For example, there were a total of 48 tokens in the Position category (signs such as FIRST and FAR), 65% of which were adjectives, 15% were adverbs, 8% were nouns, and 12% were verbs. In this way, the sum of the percentages listed below each semantic category should equal 100, any differencebeing accounted for by rounding error.

Let's look first at the totals listed in the right-most column, which show both the tallies and percentages for each word class, counting across semantic categories (and thus ignoring them). There were 630 property concept words in the corpus, and it is clear that they are dispersed over all of the word classes. PC words were most frequently used as property verbs, fully 53% of all the PC tokens. The next most frequent Occurrence was as an Adjective, at 35%. 7% and 5% of the PC words were used as nouns and adverbs, respectively.

It would appear that the workmg hypothesis was at least partially correct: property concepts are often used as stative, property verbs. This is true for more than half of the tokens. Nonetheless, they also appear as other lexical categories, leading to the conclusion that ASL should be grouped with those languages, like Japanese, that divide their PC words among several categories. This conclusion arises from looking solely at the four word classes in the right-most column, disregarding the semantic categories. This does not mean that the semantic categories were meaningless for an examination of ASL. The distribution of PC words differed from one category to another.

The findings for categories in which there were few tokens will not be discussed here. To make a claim about the Age category, for example, would be an iffy business, at best. In the following sections, the distributions for those categories in which there were sufficient tokens to calculate meaningful percentages—say more than 30 or so—will be described, with some sample sentences from the corpus. The transcriptions presented below[6] include only those components necessary to understand their structure, and a possible translation is provided in italics.

Human Propensity

The semantic category that had the least variation was humpropensity (HP): 98% of all HP words were verbs. Given the productiveness of human languaan ge and the flexibility that comes from it, this is as close to 100% as one could expect to find. Clearly,

HP concepts, typically glossed with English adjectives such as PROUD, ANGRY, INEPT are not adjectives at all, but property verbs. In the examples below, I will therefore follow the suggestion made by Colonomos (1984) to gloss these signs as TO-BE-PROUD, TO-BE-ANGRY, and TO-BE-INEPT. This keeps the glosses consistent with their lexical category.

Quite a few of these signs appeared in a simple structure, containing only a subject noun and the HP sign, as in:

1.) ME TO-BE-PROUD "*I was proud.*"

2.) ME TO-BE-ANGRY "*I was angry.*"

Some HP words could be used as complex verbs. Complex verbs accept an entire clause as its complement, as in the following example, in which TO-BE-FAMOUS takes on an embedded clause:

touic

3.) *MY* INSTITUTE TO-BE-FAMOUS HAVE VISITOR

"My *residential school for the deaf was famous for having visitors.*"

This is another piece of evidence that HP words are verbs, as adjectives cannot take clauses as complements.

Human Propensity signs appeared in an adjectival position only three times (and never as a noun or an adverb). Example:

4.) MY INSTITUTE HAVE MANY TO-BE-SMART DEAF

"My *residential school had* many *smart deaf people.*"

Here, the sign DEAF is a noun, with TO-BE-SMART being used as an adjective that modifies it. We know this because, in addition to its placement next to the noun, it follows the quantifier MANY (a type of adjective). Thus, the example is similar in structure to the phrase *many happy people.* It is important to note that this is not evidence that this particular sign is always used as an adjective; it is common to see this sign functioning as a property verb, in sentences like:

topic

5.) *MY* FATHER, TO-BE-SMART

"My *father is smart.*"

Hence, example 4 shows how this normally stative verb was nevertheless used as an adjective. For this reason, its gloss appears in its verb form, with TO-BE left intact.

Evaluatives

Like HP concepts, Evaluatives (good, wrong, different, etc.) were used as verbs in the great majority of cases (85%), with the remaining occurrences divided more or less equally between adjectival and adverbial uses (8% and 7%, respectively). In its prototypical use as a property verb, the structure is identical to that of most HP sentences. In this example, the signer is relating an experience in which his name had been written incorrectly on the schoolroom blackboard, and says:

topic

6.) MY NAME, TO-BE-WRONG "*My name is incorrect.*"

This structure of an NP, followed by a single property concept sign occurred frequently throughout the corpus. This structure mirrors the use of the Samoan verb *lelei*, as was explained in the introduction. The property of "wrongness" is conveyed by a property verb.

Evaluative concept words were used as adjectives 8% of the time, as in the following two examples:

7.) ME THINK TO-BE-GOOD IDEA "*I thought is was a good idea.*"

8.) ME HAVE QUOTE TO-BE-PERFECT R-E-C-0-R-D

"*I had a perfect record.*"

Example 8 is interesting because of the sign QUOTE, which is not required for the sentence to be grammatical syntactically or comprehensible semantically. Why did the signer include it? This sign appeared more than once, was used by both signers, and seems to indicate an upcoming code-switch into English-based signing. Note also that the English noun record was fingerspelled. This is an example of "nonce" or "spontaneous" borrowing (Grosjean, 1982) meaning it was borrowed from English "for the moment." To be consistent with borrowing an English noun, the signer borrows the syntax of English as well: the verb (TO-BE-PERFECT) is placed in the attributive position as if it were an adjective.

At 7%, evaluative concepts appeared as adverbs almost as frequently as they did as adjectives. In these cases, the property word modified a verb. One example contained within it the same evaluative (TO-BE-EASY) being used to modify both stative and dynamic verbs:

9.) US-TWO SAME-AS, TO-BE-EASY TO-BE-SENSITIVE, TO-BE-EASY TO-CRY

"Both of us are alike in that we are both very sensitive and cry easily."

The sign TO-BE-SENSITIVE is a human propensity concept, and so we can be confident that it is a property verb (see above). The sign TO-CRY, however, does not refer to a state of being, but one denoting a particular action. Nevertheless, TO-BE-EASY was used to modify both.

An evaluative concept word was used only once as a noun, but context makes it clear that once again the sentence was intended to be English rather than ASL. In ASL, the signer can "role shift" to become, as it were, a character in narrative discourse. This allows the signer to use direct address, so that the first person pronoun ME does not refer to the signer but to the role he or she has adopted (Baker & Cokely, 1980; Liddell, 1980; Roy, 1989).

In this example, the signer is relating an experience teaching ASL to hearing students. During a role shft, the signer assumes the role of a hearing student, and asks a question in the same manner that the hearing student did:

10.) HOW KNOW TO-BE-DIFFERENT BETWEEN A-I-R-P-L-A-N-E AND F-L-Y-I-N-G?

"How can you tell the difference between 'airplane' or 'flying'?"

Here, the property verb TO-BE-DIFFERENT is being used as the English noun difference. The role shft signals that the signer is imitating a hearing, non-native signer. There is another clue that this sentence is intended to model English structure: the use of the preposition BETWEEN. Prepositions exist in ASL, but they are used much less frequently than in English and are thought to occur only under certain conditions. None of those conditions (emphasis, contrastive stress, or the absence of an appropriate classifier: see Baker & Cokely, 1980) are extant in tlus case. It is doubtful that a native ASL signer would use the sign BETWEEN when asking this question.

The fact that only one evaluative concept appeared as a noun in the corpus, and that it involved a role shift to portray a hearing, English-speaking student of ASL, indicates that Evaluative concept words are never used as nouns in ASL.

Position

Position concepts express relative location in time or space. This category includes ordinals as well as position concepts such as *near* and *far.* They appeared most

frequently as adjectives (65%), with their use as adverbs (15%), verbs (12%), and nouns (8%) clustered together at a much lower frequency.

The majority of numeric tokens in the corpus referred to time, and the single most common concept related to being "first" in some way. There are multiple signs in ASL that express "firstness," their selection being dependent mostly upon semantic context (see Bienvenu, 1989). Only two forms appeared in the corpus. In one, the sign is made with one hand, the forearm is held parallel to the floor so the index finger is pointing forward, and then the forearm and wrist is twisted a single time. This sign will be glossed FIRST". The second is produced with both hands, with the index finger of the dominant hand extended; that hand then moves through space to make contact with the thumb of the other. This sign is glossed FIRST^{b}.

As adjectives, they appeared in phrases such as FIRST^{a} D-A-Y and FIRST" TIME. The next two examples show how position words were structured as an adverb and a noun, respectively:

11.) ME TO-SUPPORT DEAF FIRST" *"I support Deaf people first."*

12.) ME TO-IMPRESSUPON-HEAD, FIRST^{b} ME LEARN

"I will l neverforget it: it was the first thing I learned."

In sentence 11, FIRST" is an adverb modifying the entire previous clause; the signer will support Deaf people before supporting other groups. Example 12 is a bit more difficult to understand from the transcription alone: one might analyze FIRST^{b} as an adverb modifying the clause ME LEARN, much as in the previous example. Viewing the sentence in context leads to a different conclusion. The signer has just finished relating a story about the first lesson learned during the first day of school. Sentence 12 is a remark made to conclude the tale. FIRST^{b} is a pronoun—a subset of the noun class (Croft, 1991)—and as such, replaces that first lesson, and is used as an argument (or object) of the verb TO-LEARN. Therefore, this structure is rendered as "first thing" in the above English translation.

There is one more observation to be made about Position signs: it may be that numeric signs can be distributed throughout the four word classes, but descriptive position signs are restricted to the property verb class. Further research would be needed before these claims could be made with any surety, as this corpus contained only few tokens of descriptive position concepts. Nevertheless, these appeared only as verbs, as in:

topic

13.) T-E-X-A-S, TO-BE-FAR *"Texas is far away (from here)."*

DEAF and HEARING (D&H)

As was mentioned previously, a semantic category was a-eated that contained only two member signs, DEAF and HEARING. This was done because both signs are laden with cultural connotations, making it difficult to assign them to one of the other categories: neither physical property nor human propensity seemed appropriate. In addition, there was reason to expect that the correspondence between semantic and syntactic categories would be weaker with these signs. Lucas (1995) had found that the sign DEAF crossed word classes; it appeared as a noun, a verb, and an adjective.

We have already Seen this occur in other categories, but there is a difference: while both evaluative and position words also appear in more than one class, it is also evident that there is a prototypical case, with tokens appearing as other parts of speech being the exceptions to the rule. In the data obtained by Lucas, however, tokens appear in sufficient quantity in multiple word classes that arguments in support of a prototypical case are weakened.

The reason may be that the concepts *deaf* and *hearing* play a crucial role in the culture of Deaf people and so are used with great frequency. It is well established that the meaning of the sign has more to do with group identity and cultural values than it does a physiological condition. Its counterpart, HEARING, plays a similarly important role in the Deaf Community. These signs establish "in-group, out-group" relations within a community that views itself as a linguistic minority suffering from oppression (Lane, 1984; Padden & Humphries, 1988).

The claim that these signs occur with unusual frequency is supported in the present data: they appeared 167 times in the corpus. Only the Evaluative category produced a higher number of tokens, and this category (as well as every other) included scores of signs, while D&H had only two.

Even with only two members, DEAF and HEARING were indeed the most dispersed across lexical category. The signs DEAF and HEARING were most frequently used attributively as adjectives (84 out of 167 occurrences, or 50% of the time). In this pattern, they were usually part of a common two-word phrase; so common, in fact, that they might be thought of as collocations, that is, words that tend to co-occur with each

other (Lucas, 1995). DEAF PARENTS, DEAF WORLD and DEAF SCHOOL are typical examples.

DEAF and HEARING were used as nouns 32% of the time. It is interesting to note that the noun phrase DEAF PEOPLE, in which DEAF is being used as an adjective, never occurred in the corpus; this may indicate that the sign, when used unmarked in a nominal position, always refers to people. Here are two examples:

14.) ME KNOWHOWDEAF FEEL *"I know how Deaf people feel."*

15.) **ME** SUPPORT DEAF FIRST *"I support Deaf people first."*

topic

16.) **ME** LECTURE, DEAF, TO-CLAP

"After I gave my lecture, Deaf people applauded."

The sign HEARING behaved similarly:

topic

17.) HEARING, PEA-BRAIN *"Hearing people are such dimwits!"*

The signs DEAF and HEARING were used as property verbs; this occurred in 17% of the D&H cases. These sentences were structured as we have seen before:

topic

18.) *MY* PARENTS, TO-BE-DEAF "My *parents are deaf."*

IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERPRETERS

Learning to interpret well between ASL and English is complicated by the existence of English-based signing. We begin our development of interpreting skill with interference from our knowledge of English, which is, after all, the native language for many of us. The fact that we have the option to transliterate allows this mental interference to manifest itself physically. To improve as an interpreter is, in part, a process of overcoming this interference.

As in any language pair, there is bound to be overlap in the grammars of ASL and English, and so knowing which grammatical features are English and which are ASL is often confusing for students of ASL or interpretation. We cannot work at eliminating source-language interference until we have identified it as such.

Knowing ASL grammar is therefore a crucial part of good interpreting, but by "knowing" I don't necessarily mean a conscious knowledge. A completely internalized,

assimilated, "gut feeling'' for the languages we work with will serve us better than the ability to explain their grammars. Nevertheless, internalizing a feature of grammar often begins with conscious awareness of what needs to be internalized.

This study has examined a linguistic feature for which there is only partial overlap between English and ASL: property concept words are not handled in exactly the same manner. When interpreting between English and ASL, it will oft times be necessary to restructure our target-language sentence to reflect this difference. Going from ASL into English is a simple situation because the property word in English will virtually always be an adjective. Going from English to ASL is somewhat more complex. When we hear an adjective in English-especially when it appears just prior to the noun it modifies—we will need to consider whether the equivalent property word in ASL should be used as an adjective, a property verb, a noun, or an adverb.

This study has shown that determining the concept's semantic category will often serve as an excellent predictor of its word class. If the concept belongs to the human propensity or evaluative categories, treat the PC as a property verb. Word class boundaries are somewhat fuzzier for the other categories, but this is not necessarily bad news. It also means that the interpreter has more options. If a sign may be used as an adjective, it can be handled like English; these signs reflect a feature in which ASL and English do, in fact, overlap. Note, however, the fact that a sign may be used as an adjective does not mean that it *has* to be. The challenge for us will be to expand the number of ways we can use such signs. The ability to use the sign DEAF, for example, as a noun or a verb is an indicator of greater fluency in the language; during interpreting, it indicates less interference from English as well.

The first step to greater flexibility in sentence structure will be to understand what those structures are, that is, to be able to recognize whether a sign or word is being used as a noun, as an adjective, and so forth. It is hoped that study of this article will be helpful in this regard. Next we need to incorporate various sentence structures into our own idiolects (that is, into our own individual usage of the language). As we practice them, we will need to look to our colleagues in the Deaf Community for confirmation of their acceptability in individual cases, and in individual contexts.

We can also practice transformations of syntactic structure; this is after all the essence of interpreting. Below I provide two structural transformations when interpreting from English to ASL. These are quite basic, but mastering them should

pave the way to more complex cases. For these examples, I will focus on evaluative and human propensity concepts, for these will be property verbs and a transformation mandatory. Once slull has been developed here, the next step would be to practice employing them where they are acceptable but not required, such as with position and dimension signs, or with the signs DEAF and HEARING. These signs may be used as adjectives, but they may also be used as verbs or nouns. The next time you find yourself signing DEAF PEOPLE. . . stop and wonder whether the sign PEOPLE was necessary at all. If you know how (and when) to use DEAF as a noun, it often won't be.

STRATEGY A

Recall that Thompson (1988) found that in English discourse, adjectives appear most frequently in the predicate, either in a stative verb phrase, as in

19.) "That man is famous."

or attributively, modifying a noun in the predicate:

20.) 'That man is a famous actor."

Example 19 requires no major transformation, for this is how ASL structures its Human Property concepts: all we need do is to refer to the man, drop our brow raise, and sign TO-BE-FAMOUS. If because of context, we already know that he is an actor, this could be appropriate for sentence 20 as well. If not, we could express that claim first, and then add the property, leading to something like:[7]

topic

21.) MAN INDEXrt, HIMSELFrt TO-ACT
(INDEXrt) TO-BE-FAMOUS

This strategy will provide the framework for tackling what initially looks like a more complex situation (but really isn't): this is when the adjective is being used attributively in the subject noun phrase, as in "The smart woman couldn't make up her mind." Because we now know that TO-BE-SMART is a property verb, we cannot place it directly prior to the ASL noun, as TO-BE-SMART WOMAN would be ungrammatical. We need to use this sign in our verb phrase, and we can do so by first making the simple claim that she is smart, and then continue on to express her difficulty in making the decision:

topic

22) WOMAN INDEX, TO-BE-SMART,
(INDEXwoman) TO-CONSIDER, TO-DECIDE, CAN'T

Note that in sentences 21 and 22, the same strategy is being used: We separate an English statement into two ASL statements, in order to place the PC word in a verb phrase.

STRATEGY B

The other strategy allows the PC verb to be embedded into the subject noun phrase, so that a single ASL sentence is produced. To do this, it is necessary to understand relative clauses.

Consider the following English sentence: "The woman who is smart couldn't make up her mind." The underlined phrase "who is smart" is called a (restrictive) relative clause: its purpose is to refer to a particular object (in this case, the woman) more precisely. The relative clause is part of the subject noun phrase (NP). The main verb phrase (VP) consists of the words "couldn't make up her mind."

By definition, a clause must have both a NP and a VP. In the example of the relative clause, the VP ("is smart") is apparent; the NP is found in the word "who." This is known as a relative pronoun, and takes the place of the subject noun "woman."'

ASL also employs relative clauses. There is a specific non-manual marker made on the face and held for the duration of the relative clause (i.e., brows raise plus eye squint). This marker delimits which signs belong to the relative clause. For those readers who want to learn more about relative clauses in ASL, a videotape by Bienvenu and Colonomos (1991) is an excellent introduction to production and usage, and Coulter (1980) discusses their linguistic structure.

Compare the following sentences:

touic ves-no q

23.) S-U-S-A-N, TO-KNOW
"Do you know Susan?"

touic rel. cl.

24.) SU-SA-N, TO-KNOW, TO-BE-SMART
"Susan —you know who I mean, right?—is smart?"

Sentence *23* is a simple yes-no question, and forms a complete sentence: **"Susan"** is the *NP,* and "to know" is its VP. Example **24** begins with the Same two signs, but because TO-KNOW is marked as a relative clause, those two signs do not form a complete sentence: SU-S-A-N and TO-KNOW, instead complete a more complex NP. **A** VP is still needed, which in the example is TO-BE-SMART. The proposition being expressed is that "Susan is smart," the relative clause is a way to double check with our interlocutor (that is, the person we are speaking to) to ensure that he or she is on track. If we were to sign only the first two signs of sentence **24,** and then stop, the person we were talking to would probably respond with something like: "Yes? What about her?"

This means that when, for whatever reason, we feel the need to keep the property concept in the subject noun phrase, we can do so my embedding it into a relative clause; in fact, this will be necessary if the PC is a verb. Thus, the translation of the original English sentence ("The smart woman couldn't make up her mind.") might look something like this:

topic rel. cl.

25.) WOMAN, TO-BE-SMART, TO-CONSIDER, TO-DECIDE CAN'T

Readers who wish to practice these structures actively are encouraged to practice Examples 22 and 25 side by side, as they convey the same information in different ways. This should help cement your understanding of their syntactic structure.

Recall that some PC words cross word classes; they may be used as verbs, adjectives, or some other class. The sign DEAF is one example. At times, we may want to use the sign as an adjective and simply place it in front of the noun. At other times, we may want to use it as a verb, and then we must decide whether to use Strategy **A** (form a separate stative sentence), or Strategy B (embed the PC verb into the NP with a relative clause marker). Mastering both strategies would allow the interpreter to use both within a single sentence, as in:

topic

26.) DEAF COMMUNITY INDEX-plural-lf,

topic rel. clause

CHILDREN-rt THEMSELVES TO-BE-DEAF-rt,

SHOULD TO-JOIN-lf, TO-INTERACT-WITH-lf

"Children who are Deaf should participate and interact with the Deaf community."

In the first use of the sign DEAF, it is an adjective modifying COMMUNITY, so no relative marker is necessary and in fact, would be ungrammatical. In its second use, it is being employed as a verb, and if it is attached to a noun phrase, as is the case here, then the relative marker becomes mandatory.'

A couple of cautionary notes: the above strategies do not represent an exhaustive list of the possible ways in which property concepts can be structured in ASL. Like any other natural language, there will be an infinite number of ways of getting across an idea. Rather, it is hoped that the student of interpretation-especially those who, like myself, are non-native users of ASL—will be able to use the above examples in order to understand and practice the different ways English and ASL may structure their sentences.

Second, mastering the use of these structures will involve not only practice in producing them, but knowing when they are appropriate in the context of the discourse. This paper does not address this issue: I simply point out that producing a property concept sign as a property verb within a relative clause (and doing so perfectly!) may still be incorrect if it does not fit within the context. I can say this much: embedding a property into a relative clause will most likely be incorrect if the property is being introduced into the discourse for the first time. Rather, relative clauses would typically be used only after the property has been established previously.

The issue of usage in discourse is one of the least understood aspects of ASL. It is therefore also one of the most important reasons why we need to continually surround ourselves by native signers in order to learn these things, even if only by osmosis.

SUMMARY

Tlus study has shown that property concepts are handled in a variety of ways in American Sign Language: syntactically speaking, they may be used as adjectives, verbs, adverbs, or even nouns. Thus, ASL provides more flexibility in conveying the properties of things than English does. One of the marks of a fluent signer—and a good interpreter—will be the ability to express PCs in a number of ways, that is, to break through the limitations placed on us when our native language is English.

The semantic category of the concept will often be a good predictor of how the sign is to be used syntactically, and two manners in which ASL sentences may be structured in response to an English adjective have been introduced. It is hoped that

this research will assist interpreters in their understanding of ASL grammar, but more importantly, will lead to better interpretations in the future. This paper is not enough for this to happen, however, as it does not address issues of when to use one structure over another. For that, we will need to continue to participate in—and contribute to—the Deaf community.

ENDNOTES

[1] I thank the talented interpreters, friends, and colleagues who performed the arduous task of transcribing the videotapes: Bonnie-Lyn Barker, Yoshiko Calvert (née Chino), and Renée Robicheaux. Thanks also to Robert Hahn and, most especially, Melissa Axelrod for their help with earlier drafts. Any errors are mine alone.

[2] "Rules" as loosely defined. Debate continues whether knowing a language necessarily involves knowing rules, and if it does, how those rules should be characterized. Here, I mean no more than the knowledge of our language that makes phrases like "the laziness man" feel odd to us.

[3] By convention, capitalized words are English glosses and refer to individual signs.

[4] The nouns "word" and "sign" are used interchangeably in this paper.

[5] A category "Other" had been included originally, but this turned out to be unnecessary, as all descriptive PC words fell into the first four groups.

[6] A few notes about reading the transcriptions: Non-manual signals, such as the brow raises and head tilts that combine to form topics, questions and the like, are noted by placing words above an overbar. The length of the overbar denotes the starting and ending points of the non-manual signal. *Also*, fingerspelled words are shown with a hyphen between each letter (e.g., W-O-R-D).

[7] Remember that transcriptions do not include many aspects of a signed sentence. For this section of the paper, readers who wish to sign the transcribed sentences will likely need to add non-manual opponents-such as body shifts, head nods, and the like—to make them feel natural. Do not modify the signs or their order, however, as this may lose the point the example is intended to make.

[8] Note that this is an examples of a predicate ("is smart") in the subject NP, and so we have expanded our former definition of predicates to include embedded VPs.

[9] This also presents a problem in glossing. For the sake of clarity, the first gloss DEAF appears by itself to indicate that it is functioning as an adjective, while the second instance is glossed TO-BE-DEAF to show that it is acting as a stative verb. Both glosses refer to the same sign.

APPENDIX

Tests used to categorize property concept words (PCs) into the word class Noun or Verb, from Thompson, 1988, p. 181.

I. Do PCs have nominal inflection?
   - **A.** If yes, more like nouns
   - B. If no, more like verbs

II. In the predicate role, how are PCs different from nouns?
   - **A.** If few or no differences, more like nouns
   - B. If not similar, more like verbs

III. In the predicate role, how are PCs different from nouns?
   - A. If not similar, more like nouns
   - B. If few or no differences, more like verbs

IV. In the attributive role, how is the PC attached to the noun?
   - A. If attached as other nouns are, more like nouns
   - B. If attached as verbs are, more like verbs

V. Can the PC be used anaphorically?
   - A. If yes, more like nouns
   - B. If another noun, pronoun or relative marker is required, more like verbs

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YOU CAN'T TEACH INTERPRETING AT A DISTANCE! (AND OTHER MYTHS OF A FADING CENTURY)

Leilani Johnson, Project Director
Educational Interpreting Certificate Project
Front Range Community College
Denver, Colorado
Elizabeth A. Winston, Curriculum Consultant
Educational Linguistics Research Center
Loveland, Colorado

INTRODUCTION

Most previous interpreter education, whether at the general level or aimed at specific audiences, has required that interpreters and prospective interpreters come to it—be it for a weekend workshop or a two-year full-time program. The Educational Interpreting Certificate Project (EICP) is a unique educational experience that changes the rules. This innovative project has taken the education of interpreters into the field, providing intensive academic and skill development opportunities to working educational interpreters. It is no longer necessary for these interpreters to quit their jobs and leave their homes in order to find the knowledge and training they need to provide improved services to their clients. Instead, the education comes to them.

The EICP is designed for working adults as a professional development program through departments of education. It has adopted current approaches in adult education, cutting edge technology, and the expertise of an international faculty to make interpreter education accessible to a wider audience. The curriculum takes a three-pronged approach:

- Academic content is taught through a combination of written, audio, visual, and web-based materials and makes use of telephone, videoconferencing, and internet technologies throughout the academic year;
- Intensive skill development is provided during a three-week face-to-face meeting each summer;
- Mentoring is provided during the academic year by video, writing, voicemail, and web interactions.

As a basis of the curriculum for educational interpreters, the EICP has adapted the recently published national curriculum, the Professional Development Endorsement

System (PDES), creating comprehensive, self-contained one- and two-credit hour modules for many of the courses. These self-contained modules are taught by subject matter experts, skills specialists, and language coaches to provide an intensive interpreting education for educational interpreters. Participants who successfully satisfy EICP exit competencies receive a Vocational Certificate in Educational Interpreting approved by Colorado's State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education.

BACKGROUND

Educational interpreters are in great demand throughout the United States; yet there is no fully developed and proven model demonstrating an effective method of providing either school-based or work-based post-secondary education to individuals functioning as interpreters in classrooms.

Since the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children (Public Law 94-142, 1975; re-authorized as IDEA, 1990) the need for educational interpreters has continued to escalate. Prior to 1975, most deaf and hard of hearing children were educated in state residential schools. During the past two decades, public school programs have increasingly assumed the role of educating deaf and hard of hearing duldren. Rittenhouse, Rahn, and Morreau (1989) have pointed out that in 1973 only about 10% of children with hearing losses were even partially mainstreamed. Five years later, 37% of these students were at least partially mainstreamed (Jordan, Gustason, & Rosen, 1979). The number increased to one-half by 1984 (Schildroth & Karchmer, 1986). Most recently, Schildroth and Hotto (1993) report that 69% of children who are deaf or hard of hearing are placed in local public schools. This trend towards mainstreaming and inclusion has made the need for educational interpreters particularly acute. Public school administrators frequently struggle to find competent interpreters and often must hire individuals who are under-prepared for the task. Several researchers have documented the lack of adequate preparation for individuals functioning as interpreters in classrooms (Gustason, 1985; Stedt, 1992; Jones, Clark, & Soltz, 1997; Yarger, 1997).

Educational interpreters serve as the communication link between the classroom teacher, the student(s) who has a hearing loss and the hearing peers in the mainstream classroom. They commonly serve in other capacities as well, e.g., tutor, sign language instructor. Educational interpreting is a complex task. It requires an in-depth

understanding of interpreting theory; proficiency in American Sign Language, English influenced signing systems, and other communication modes; specialized technical vocabulary; knowledge of essential educational principles and practices, including curriculum designs and tutoring strategies; familiarity with human development theories; and an appreciation of the roles and responsibilities of interpreters in educational settings. At present, opportunities to acquire this fundamental framework are unavailable for the vast majority of individuals seeking to serve as educational interpreters.

There are currently over 100 post-secondary interpreter preparation programs in the United States with offerings spanning vocational certificates through a Master's degree; generally the focus of these programs is basic interpreter preparation rather than the specialized field of educational interpreting. "The majority (69%) of interpreting programs do not even have a course in educational interpreting and less than one-fourth have a course in tutoring" (Stedt, 1992, p. 87). Schrag (1991, Director, Office Special Education Program, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, U.S. Department of Education) noted that only two college programs in the United States offered specialized education interpreting programs. Besides, it is rare for currently employed educational interpreters, particularly in rural areas, to have attended any type of interpreter preparation program.

At present, educational interpreters attend an occasional workshop, interpreting course, or short-term seminars and conferences (i.e., one-week summer institutes) when available. Aside from these sporadic efforts, there has been no systematic, sequenced approach to these offerings, nor any vehicle for the accumulation of credit toward professional credentialing or continued post-secondary advancement.

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETING CERTIFICATE PROJECT **(EICP)**

The EICP offers a sequenced, structured curriculum focused on the needs of educational interpreters who are currently working with deaf or hard of hearing students in K-12. The following sections describe the make-up of the participants, the curriculum, the underlying competencies for educational interpreters, and the distance technology used for delivery of the program.

Participants

Students

The Educational Interpreting Certificate Project (EICP), is supported by partners including post-secondary institutions and K-12 organizations in Colorado, Montana and Wyoming (See Appendix D). **A** selected cohort of 40 educational interpreters in Montana and Wyoming are currently receiving this sequenced program of materials and support. Successful completion of the EICP will result in a Vocational Certificate in Educational Interpreting, equaling 20 college credits from Front Range Community College.

Montana and Wyoming were selected as sites for this project for several key reasons. First, both states have long histories of seeking solutions to the training problems of educational interpreting. Second, at the time the pilot began, there was no interpreter preparation program in either state. Third, the Montana Office of Public Instruction had identified educational interpreter training as a high priority and committed state funding. Similarly, Tim Sanger, Director of Outreach for the Wyoming Department of Education, stated, "Wyoming has no interpreter training program of its own. As a matter of fact, little has been done to enhance the slulls of educational interpreters...Much more is needed..." WDE also allocated funds for the EICP.

The need for qualified educational interpreters in Montana and Wyoming is significant. The child count for December, 1995 indicated that almost three-quarters (72%) of the students who are deaf, hard of hearing, or have hearing loss as a secondary disabling condition are being educated in the public schools of Montana. Wyoming has **41** deaf, hard of hearing, or hearing loss children scattered throughout the state's school system who receive interpreting services. Montana and Wyoming currently have the equivalent of 35 and 21 full time interpreters in public schools. There are also six teachers of the deaf dispersed throughout Montana. Wyoming has 17 hearing impaired teachers located at 13 sites and three outreach consultants for services to students who are deaf or hard of hearing.

Entry into the EICP was determined by several criteria. Applicants had to be working in K-12 settings with deaf or hard of hearing students, and had to achieve a minimum score of 2.0 on a modified version of the EIPA (the EICP screening test). In order to successfully complete the program and receive the Certificate of Completion, they must pass all of their courses with a 2.0 GPA and must achieve a score of 3.5 or

better on the **exit** EICP screening. This score demonstrates that the student is able to perform at minimum entry level for the grade and language combination for which they are tested (e.g., elementary school spoken English to ASL or PSE or SEE). The initial project did not evaluate for voice to sign skills; this is being added to the revised program currently being offered in other states.

Staffing

The EICP is managed by the project director with expertise in both interpreter and distance education, and the faculty and staff have been drawn from an international pool, bringing a wide base of experience and expertise to the project. In addition there is a curriculum coordinator to oversee the cohesiveness of the modules within the curriculum, a group of skills specialists who focus on mentoring and skill development, and language coaches who focus on continuing sign language development. During the summer there is an assistant to the project director, helping to organize the various activities, courses, and computer training. See Appendix C for a listing of these participants.

EICP Curriculum

The EICP curriculum is a modified version of the Professional Development Endorsement Svstem (PDES). After a review of existing approaches to educating educational interpreters, this curriculum was determined to be the most appropriate for the project. It is aimed at the specific population being served, and it was intended to be modularized, making it easily adaptable to the needs of the project. The PDES is a curriculum developed during a five-year period by the National Interpreter Education Training Project through funds provided by the Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA), U. S. Department of Education, which was disseminated in January 1996. It was an effort to address the widespread concern about educational interpreting (Report from National Task Force on Educational Interpreting, 1991). Based on this report and other studies, specific knowledge and skills have been identified for appropriate interpreting services in the classroom. (Model Standards for the Certification of Educational Interpreters for Deaf Students and Suggested Options for Routes to Certification, 1993). The PDES modules outline learning objectives in support of these desired knowledge and skill areas along with suggested activities and potential resources.

The PDES contains theoretical foundations and skill development modules for both educational and rehabilitation settings. In 1990, when Northwestern Connecticut Community College was awarded a national grant from the Rehabilitation Services Administration, they were charged with the task of providing techrucal assistance to programs and schools hiring and/or training persons to work as interpreters in educational and rehabilitation settings. Toward this end the Professional Development Endorsement Svstem was developed to provide a framework for sequential education. . ." (Pimental Personal Communication, June, 1996). This curriculum was reviewed and refined by interpreter educators and educational interpreting practitioners from the ten RSA federal regions. For the purposes of this project, only 15 modules for educational interpreting involving sign language interpreting were adopted. These address human development theories, hstory of deaf education, the principles and practices in the classroom, specialized interpreting slulls and terminology necessary in the educational domain, and an internship.

However, the PDES was not a perfect fit for the EICP. Because it was developed with a traditional student in mind and designed for traditional classroom delivery, some modifications were required. In addition, because the PDES recognized the need for educational interpreters to be well-educated and slullful interpreters, it was intended to be offered to interpreters who had successfully completed training as interpreters. It does not include modules covering the basic theories of interpreting, the RID Code of Ethics, basic interpreting skills, Deaf culture, and other foundational mformation. The EICP project has added modules to address some of these gaps, and modified others to fill them.

In addition, the PDES curriculum does not focus as intensively as was needed by the target audience on certain essential issues: tutoring, skill development of basic interpreting skills, specific slull development in sign-to-voice interpreting, and on-going mentoring throughout the entire program. The EICP has added this information and skill development focus to its curriculum. In addition, it has added a sign language development component to enhance the sign language skills of participants. A table showing the revised curriculum for the EICP project is found below. Brief descriptions of each course are found in Appendix B of this paper.

Educational Interpreting Certificate Project
Schedule Of Courses

Year 1- Fall 1996 EICP Entry Screening	Spring 1997 EDI 121: Overview of Sign Language & Systems EDI 101: Interpreting Theory	Summer 1997 EDI 122: Discourse Analysis EDI 131: Diagnostic Lab I
Year 2 - Fall 1997 EDI 111: Child Language & Development EDI 113: US Public & Deaf Education EDI 132: Skill Development Lab I	Spring 1998 EDI 112: Language, Learning & Deaf Children EDI 114: Overview of Educational Interpreting EDI 133: Skill Development Lab II	Summer 1998 EDI 231: Educational Interpreting: Content Areas EDI 232: Educational Interpreting Non-Content Areas
Year 3 - Fall 1998 EDI 211: Curriculum Methods & Materials EDI 123: Communication Assessment Techniques EDI 297 Internship	Spring 1999 EDI 213: Non-Interpreting Tasks EDI 212: Tutoring Techniques EDI 297 cont.: Internship	Summer 1999 EDI 214: Professional Educational Interpreter EDI 233: Diagnostic Lab II EICP Exit Screening

Educational Interpreting Competencies

Beyond the modification of the PDES curriculum, the EICP has needed to develop a more comprehensive set of competencies to define the educational needs of this audience. The competencies describe in detail the areas of competency needed for success as an educational interpreter. These competencies were compiled from the PDES curriculum, the RID/CED Model Competencies, and the CIT National Education Standards; in addition, they incorporated input from a DACUM process (Designing a Curriculum, Ohio State University) which included working educational interpreters and input from regional interpreter educators. They delineate the competencies needed by educational interpreters, detailing the areas of competence and specific details included within those competencies. They cover the following areas:

1. Basic Interpreting (General Knowledge, Interpreting, Language Proficiency);
2. Educational Interpreting (Education, Development, Role and Ethics, Language Analysis, Slulls);
3. Educational Tutoring;
4. Educational Aiding.

The EICP addresses the competencies in the Educational Interpreting and Tutoring sections, as well as some of the competencies listed under Basic Interpreting and Aiding. The competencies provide a detailed road map to educating educational interpreters. The sample below demonstrates the detail for some skills competencies that are specific to educational interpreting. (An abbreviated version of Section B. Education Competencies, is found in Appendix A of this paper. A full version of all the competencies is available at the EICP web site.)

SAMPLE COMPETENCIES

Educational Interpreting Skills

Assess each sewing for interpretability

1.0 Assessing Visual Accessibility in Classrooms—The student should

- 1.1 Analyze classroom settings and activities for visual accessibility.
- 1.2 Assess the impact of interpreting on the visual accessibility in these settings and activities.
- 1.3 Propose suggestions, solutions, and alternatives for providing visual accessibility for deaf students in education.

2.0 Assessing Child Language for Interpreting — The student should

- 2.1 Analyze student language use using a variety of specific cases, usually gleaned from videotape samples.
- 3.2 Discuss the differences between language levels in sign language, spoken language, and written English.

3.0 Assessing Discourse factors in the Classroom — The student should

- 3.1 Analyze interpretability of various educational settings.
- 3.3 Propose solutions for areas of conflict.

4.0 Assessing Communication factors in the classroom - The student should

4.1 Analyze specific classroom settings for communication factors that can impact interpretability and accessibility.

4.2 Propose solutions for improving accessibility in these situations.

Delivery Using Existing **and** Emerging Technologies

Educational interpreters who have limited or no opportunities for professional growth are able to access state-of-the-art information via technology without compromising jobs or families. The Western Interstate Cooperative for Higher Education (New Pathways to a Degree: Technolop Opens the College, Western Interstate Cooperative for Higher Education, 1994) has conducted rigorous research studies which clearly demonstrate that, properly executed, distance learning is, at least, as effective as traditional pedagogical approaches. Distance education is rapidly becoming a proven approach for the delivery of quality education and training. Evidence continues to support the effectiveness, cost-efficiency and expediency of distance education, particularly using telemediated technologies.

In New Pathways, Johnstone, Zuniga & Markwood, it is reported: ". . . Student-to-student interactions in these technology-assisted courses are of high quality; and faculty-to-student interactions are frequently of very high quality. . . both faculty and students agree that computer conferencing allows more immediate responses to students on their questions and their course work. . . . Faculty feel that they actually spend more time with students because of the intimate one-on-one quality which e-mail creates. . . . Faculty in several projects observed that computer conferencing and e-mail enabled more interaction between faculty and individual students than common in typical on-campus situations. . . . Students feel good about this kind of attention from instructors and thus they feel good about the technology which enables it."

The three-pronged approach of the EICP curriculum is delivered primarily at a distance and incorporates a variety of technologies. The academic content, and the ongoing mentoring portions are both delivered at a distance, and clearly rely on technology. The intensive skill development portion, while delivered on-site, is also highly technology-dependent. The first step in providing this program at a distance was to adapt the courses and curriculum to a distance delivery system. Each module of the PDES was adapted and expanded by the faculty and staff to meet the needs of this new

approach. These modules are not simply courses that have been printed out and mailed. Effective distance education requires a new perspective on learning and teaching, and new approaches to preparing teaching materials. They need to guide the student to their own ways of learning, providing them with materials and support for them at home rather than in the classroom environment. The adapted modules reflect this approach.

Distance delivery of academic content.

Throughout the academic year, knowledge-based courses are delivered through a variety of approaches. The central component of these courses is currently a self-contained "box" containing a course workbook, video and audio tapes, readings, and other information specific to each course. These modules are mailed to students, and students begin the course on the date indicated. Each module contains a roadmap that details the course beginning and end dates, the homework and reading assignments, the dates of any videoconferences, etc.

Sample: Course Roadmap

Use this as your "map" while traveling on your distance learning journey. All the information you need to complete the course is here in one location. Use the last column to check off each item as you complete it. See the next page for details on each assignment.

Dates next to the lesson title show the start and end dates for the lesson. Dates next to activities show specific dates for those items.

Topic	Dates	Activities	Done!
1. History K-12 Educational Interpreting	1/12 - 1/18 1/18	View Videotape, Part 1 with handout (Reading 1) Reading 2: Jones, pp. 17-41 & 124-135 Voicemail Introduction due	☐
2. Who you are: Qualifications of Educational Interpreters in K - 12 Public Schools	1/19 - 1/25	View Videotape, Part 2 (with Reading 3) Reading 4: Exceptional Child Article: Interpreting and Inclusion	☐
3. National Task Force and State Guidelines for K - 12 Educational Interpreters	1/26 - 2/1	Reading 5: Task Force Report Reading 6: Kansas State Guidelines for Educational Interpreters	☐

Each course also consists of a series of teacher insights about the content and readings, readings, and detailed assignments. When needed, faculty can include videotapes related to specific topics (e.g. a presentation demonstrating a particular activity). They can also add audiotapes to add to the readings, giving further insights to complement the written materials. Each "boxed" module is further supported by distance technologies.

Voicemail conferencing

For the duration of each course, students and faculty are able to maintain constant and effective contact via voice mail. This system provides an 800 number that everyone can call at any time, in order to leave messages for peers, ask questions of faculty, and "chat" asynchronously with colleagues. The teacher can create discussion groups for students workmg on specific assignments, can make announcements and mini-lectures whenever needed, and can respond to individual questions from students. Students can access each other and the teacher, either through their assigned groups or through personal voicemail messages. Students and teachers alike found this

system to be invaluable to the learning environment. This more personal contact helped everyone become more comfortable with the distance learning environment and helped alleviate the sense of isolation that often accompanies distance learning.

Voicemail conferencing continues to be effective and popular in courses, but there are two distinct disadvantages to consider. It is somewhat costly to maintain, and it ends when the project does. Students will not be able to maintain their contacts and continue the collegial relationships they have established during the project. Thus, the project is moving toward e-mail rather than voicemail as a means of interaction.

Videoconferencing

Most courses also include videoconferences. These conferences are scheduled during the course, and the students attend the conferences at designated sites within their states. Currently there are five sites in Montana and four in Wyoming. The videoconferences are approximately three hours long, and focus on topics specific to the course content. The faculty are able to choose the broadcast site. For example, some faculty broadcast from their home institutions (NTID, New York), others choose to fly to Colorado, Montana or Wyoming to broadcast. Thus, both students and faculty are able to benefit from distance technology. It is not necessary for all students to drive to a single location, and faculty do not need to fly to a specific location (unless they want to!). Videoconferencing provides a more personal interaction between students and faculty. They are able to see and hear each other, talk to each other, hold group discussions, and generally develop a sense of the group.

Videoconferencing is also a costly and technology-intensive means of contact. It requires that some students travel to attend, even though there are sites across the two states. It requires a sophsticated network of transmission for all sites to be effectively interconnected. It requires a long lead-time for setting dates and times, and is not flexible -it cannot be postponed due to weather or technical difficulties.. It is essential to have alternative plans to compensate for techrucal complications. Despite these disadvantages, the value of the videoconferences makes the effort and expense reasonable to the project.

Web-conferencing

The EICP is moving into Web-based courses. These courses will eventually replace the "boxed" modules, with the written content being posted to the Web rather

than being mailed to each student. There are many advantages of this move to the Web. For students, it means that they have instant access to all the written materials, and more importantly, they are able to post their own assignments without worrying about the slowness of the mail. It allows faculty and mentors to provide more immediate feedback on assignments, and allows everyone to interact via email. This technology also has the advantage of leaving students with a means of continuing communication after the project ends. An additional advantage is the savings in mailing costs and voicemail for the project.

The major disadvantage of this move to the Web is that not every student has personal access to the Web. Although all schools have this access, the interpreters working there are not always provided adequate access. The project is just beginning the move to the Web this fall. During the transition, students will have the support of the Web and will have the continued support of the voicemail system.

On-site Skills Development

The second prong of the curriculum is the intensive skill development portion. Although this segment occurs on-site in Great Falls, Montana, it still makes use of technology. Students spend much of their on-site time developing analysis and interpreting skills. They also meet with mentors, building their skills, receiving individualized feedback and skills assessment. Technology is incorporated in the mundane ways that we all use—video examples, videotaping, and slulls assessment from student videotape. In addition to this, however, students are provided with hands-on experience in the computer technologes they need to function effectively throughout the academic year. They receive instruction in use of e-mail, use of voicemail, and use of Web technologies so they can access their up-coming courses.

The on-site portion is a valuable segment of the EICP. Although proportionally short in terms of time spent, it provides the opportunity for students and faculty to meet and interact personally. It provides an opportunity for students to experience the distance technologies with personal assistance before having to deal with it on their own at home; and it provides a time for them to interact, bond, and find the support they need for continuing in their often isolated interpreting settings.

Along with the advantages, there are some disadvantages to this on-site segment. Of course, the expense for the project is tremendous. Bringing together the faculty, staff, and students in a single location, finding facilities to accommodate both

the housing and teaching needs of the project are major undertakings. Students must leave their homes and families for this time, and spend an intensive three weeks studying, practicing, and building their slulls. Likewise, faculty must be on-site for the full three weeks. However, the benefits outweigh all of these; the personal and professional relationships built during this time are invaluable for the students. An additional advantage for the students is that their state education representatives visit for two days every summer. They have the opportunity to meet and interact with individuals who can change the conditions of mainstreaming and educational interpreting in their states.

Mentoring

The third component of the curriculum is the on-going mentoring followed by internship. Mentoring begins in the fall of the first year, and is offered for two semesters. The following year the mentorship is incorporated into the Internship, again being offered for two semesters. Students are introduced to the notion of distance mentoring during their summer face-to-face, but the mentorship is delivered totally at a distance. Students receive their texts, prepare them, collaborate with teachers and peers, tape themselves, analyze their skills, and receive feedback, all at a distance. During the first year, distance mentorship was supported by two major technologes — videotape and voicemail. Students tape prepared translations. While they prepare, they have access to their mentors and peers through voicemail. They discuss the text structures, their proposed translations, as well as their fears and triumphs. Once taped, they prepare a written analysis of their skills, then send both to their mentor. The mentor prepares detailed feedback, mailing it back to the student. While waiting for the mail, mentors provide immediate feedback on voicemail, helping students understand where to work and what areas to focus on for the next assignment. This interaction has been highly successful. During the second year, a final Internship occurs. This is currently being offered, and many changes have been instituted. The course has been moved to the Web, so the interaction is on computers rather than voicemail. Feedback is still mailed as well, with mentors providing their own feedback on video, along with examples and suggestions. In addition, students are provided with model interpretations of the texts the are working on. This approach to distance mentoring has proven to be both effective and popular with participants.

CONCLUSION

The EICP is an innovative project designed to serve educational interpreters who are currently working in schools with students. These interpreters have not had the training and education they need to successfully provide access for these students. And, leaving their settings for education would be futile—the students would still be mainstreamed in their settings, and the "interpreting" positions would be filled with less qualified people. The result: even less access than ever for students who are Deaf and Hard of Hearing. This audience is typical of the educational interpreting across the country. The EICP serves a dual population by offering an education at a distance—it serves the people working as interpreters in educational settings, and it serves the deaf and hard of hearing students who are in the classrooms.

But, beyond serving this dual audience, the EICP illustrates something more. It illustrates that distance education is an effectivemeans of providing interpreter education. It is possible to teach interpreting at a distance. There is no contention that distance courses provide all the answers; certainly the on-site segment proves that personal interaction adds a valuable dimension to the educational experience. It provides an opportunity for students and faculty to build professional relationships. These relationships enhance the distance interactions, making the distance interactions easier to manage. Without them, the distance interactions might well remain more impersonal and less appealing; with them, both students and faculty look forward to the on-going distance interactions, with little notice of the distance dimension (other than the occasional frustration with the mail service!).

The distance technologies incorporated into the EICP are always changing. As technology provides new and innovative ways to interact at a distance, they will be incorporated. Some of the up-coming technologies being considered are videoconferencing from home computers, computer-assisted sign language enhancement courses, and on-line resources for continuing education. It is no longer true that we have to be present for students to learn—they learn for themselves, and distance delivery methods provide one means of enhancing their learning. We can teach interpreting at a distance—or, to be more precise, students can and do learn interpreting at a distance!

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APPENDIX A

COMPETENCIES FOR EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETING

These competencies are beyond the general competencies listed above as General Interpreting Competencies.

To qualify as an educational interpreter, the interpreter must demonstrate skills and knowledge for each of the competencies listed below. Specific types of information and skills relevant to each competency are listed in the expanded version of this document.

Demonstrating Competency: An individual may demonstrate competency in these areas by:

1. documented coursework (grade of B or better); documentation must include course outline and explanation of how the course satisfies the targeted competencies.
2. Individual interview combining skill and knowledge.
3. Grade of 90% on written test.

EDUCATION

I. Understanding of Education-US Public and Deaf Education (history, philosophies)

1.0 History of US Public
2.0 Roles and Responsibilities of Schools
3.0 Schools as Social Institutions
4.0 Educational Philosophies
5.0 History of US Deaf Education
6.0 Importance of Residential Schools for the Deaf
7.0 Movement toward Mainstreaming and Inclusion

11. General and Deaf Education-curriculum and methodologies

1.0 Models of Instruction in Education
2.0 General Trends in Instruction in Education
3.0 General Curriculum Trends
4.0 Classroom Procedures
5.0 Geographic Variables

6.0 Learning and Teaching Styles
7.0 Curriculum Styles
8.0 Methods/Materials for Core Subjects
9.0 Implications for Interpreters

DEVELOPMENT

I. Understanding Development-Language, Cognition, Human: Hearing and Deaf

1.0 Developmental Tasks of School-Age Children
2.0 Psychosocial Stages of Development
3.0 Cognitive Stages of Development
4.0 Moral Stages of Development
5.0 Implications for Interpreting

II. Language learning and Deaf children

1.0 Communication, Language, and Cognition in Education
2.0 Language Development: Acquisition vs. Learning
3.0 Signed Language vs. Sign Language
4.0 Social Aspects of Language Acquisition
5.0 Academic Aspects of Language Acquisition
6.0 Language Choice in Education
7.0 Implications for Interpreting

111. Communication Assessment

1.0 Characteristics of Language and Communication in Education
2.0 Language of Teachers
3.0 Language of Students

ROLE AND ETHICS

I. Educational Interpreting

1.0 History of Educational Interpreting
2.0 Interpreters in Education
3.0 Typical roles and responsibilities
4.0 Issues for educational interpreters

5.0 Ethics for educational interpreters
6.0 Educational Interpreting-Professional Development
7.0 Interpersonal Skills for Educational Interpreters

LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

I. Classroom Discourse

1.0 Review of Discourse Analysis
2.0 Social Contexts in Education
3.0 Linguistic Contexts in Education
4.0 Academic Contexts in Education
5.0 Cultural contexts in Education
6.0 Physical Contexts in Education
7.0 Interpreting Educational Discourse

11. Interpretability in the classroom

1.0 Visual Accessibility in Classrooms
2.0 Child language for interpreting
3.0 Discourse factors in the Classroom
4.0 Communication factors in the classroom
5.0 Implications for Interpreting in Education

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETING-SKILLS

I. Assess each setting for interpretability

1.0 Assessing Visual Accessibility in Classrooms
2.0 Assessing Child Language for Interpreting
3.0 Assessing Discourse factors in the Classroom
4.0 Assessing Communication factors in the classroom

II. Skills development: Analysis, Feedback, Assessment

(minimum 120 hours: All slulls development in this section assumes prior knowledge in interpreting techruques and added knowledge of discourse analysis outlined here for educational interpreters.)

1.0 Diagnostic Assessment Overview
2.0 Analysis of Source Text
3.0 Production of Target Text
4.0 Analysis of Target Text
5.0 Giving and Receiving Feedback
6.0 Skills Development Practice

III. Internship

1.0 Roles and Responsibilities of Interns
2.0 Roles and Responsibilities of On-Site Mentor
3.0 Roles and Responsibilities of EICP Supervisor
4.0 Internship Placement

APPENDIX B

Course Descriptions-EICP

EDI 101 Interpreting Theory

Tlus course provides an introduction to the art and profession of interpreting for deaf and hearing persons, and is designed for those students who already have some knowledge of/training in sign language. Topics will include professional requirements, knowledge of environmental conditions, and theories of interpretation.

EDI 111 Overview of Child and Language Development

The purpose of this course is to provide an overview of cogrutive, psychosocial, and language development factors of students from infancy through young adulthood. Various developmental theories will be presented, and the growth and development of both hearing and deaf children will be discussed.

EDI 112 Language Learning and Deaf Children

Tlus course is designed to provide in-depth mformation on natural first language acquisition and use, second language learning, and both as they relate to deaf children. The course will also cover the impact of first language acquisition on second language learning, the cultural ramifications of diglossia in the classroom, and the implications for interpreters.

EDI 113 Overview of US Public and Deaf Education

The purpose of this course is to provide an overview of public education and deaf education practices in the United States, includes philosophies and purposes of education; selected legislation related to education; schools as society; areas of emphasis; school organization; issues and social problems; financial considerations; and accountability. The education of deaf children will be considered from a sociocultural view and in relation to public school education.

EDI 114 Overview of Educational Interpreting

Tlus course is designed to provide students with an understanding of the history of special education and the education of deaf children, as well as the changes in laws, regulations, and trends that have resulted in the mainstreaming of deaf duldren in

public schools. Students will also become aware of the ethics, roles, and responsibilities of interpreting as a team member in the classroom.

EDI 121 Overview **of** Sign Language, Language & Sign Systems Used by Deaf Students

This course is an exploration and review of the communication modes and languages used in public school settings, with a focus on those used by deaf children. Class activities will include a study of how those systems overlap, ways to develop flexibility in using different modes and languages, and the implications for interpreters. Sessions will focus on exposure to and an understanding of different styles of signed messages.

EDI 122 Introduction to Discourse Analysis

This course focuses on the conversational exchanges in English and ASL, including structure of exchanges, initiation and response, language use and underlying meanings, conversational roles, the use of nonverbal and paralinguistic aspects, hguistic structure, and prepositional analysis. *Also* included will be the application of discourse analysis techniques to classroom discourse and to the task of interpreting in educational settings.

EDI **123** Communication Assessment Technique for Educational Interpreters

This course focuses on techniques used to informally assess the language used by deaf students, hearing students, and teachers, and the communication events that occur in educational settings.

EDI **131** Diagnostic Interpreting/Transliterating Lab I

One-to-one lab sessions will give students the opportunity to assess their skills as educational interpreters and discuss ways to more effectively interpret/transliterate in targeted school classes and activities. Use of a particular sign system, mode or language will be determined by individual students and assessed by an instructor/language specialist with an appropriate background. Interpreted selections will be assessed by the student and the instructor, followed by discussion of individualized professional development activities.

EDI 132 & 133 Skill Development Lab I & II

These labs are designed to provide students individual assistance with interpreting skills identified in the Diagnostic Lab 1. Students will work with a mentor at a distance using a variety of technologes to demonstrate progress, receive feedback and continue to improve their competencies as a sign language interpreter.

EDI 211 Curriculum Methods and Materials: Grades K-12

This course provides an introduction to typical instructional methods and materials used in US public schools. Subtopics will include models of teaching, learning styles, domains of learning, curriculum areas and scope of academic subjects, classroom procedures and management, and specific materials for core courses in elementary, middle, and secondary classes.

EDI 212 Tutoring Techniques

The purpose of this course is to address the challenges faced by educational interpreters in providing effective tutoring for students who are deaf and hard of hearing. Issues addressed include the role of the interpreter as tutor; academic challenges experiences by students who are deaf and hard of hearing; effective strategies for daily tutoring; and building collaborative relationships.

EDI 213 Non-Interpreting Tasks: Grades K-12

This course surveys the types and procedures of non-interpreting tasks performed by interpreters in school setting, including reinforcement of class materials, vocabulary review, study skills, materials preparation, providing an introduction to the Deaf community, informal instruction of sign language, and supervisory duties (lunch, bus, hall, etc.). *Also* to be discussed are the ethical considerations related to the acceptance and performance of additional duties.

EDI 214 The Professional Educational Interpreter

This course is designed to be taught as a seminar providing the opportunity for discussion of ethical, procedural, and communication issues. Additional topics include professionalism in the work place, professional development activities, ways to effectively integrate the role of the interpreter into the educational system, and current issues in the field of educational interpreting.

EDI 231 Educational Interpreting: Content Areas: Grades K-12

In this lab-based course, participants will practice interpreting the subjects taught in public school classes. Included with practice interpreting and transliterating in ASL and various other systems will be discussion of the class goals, instructional style, interpreter roles and ethics, language or mode choice, and analysis of the classroom for accessibility and appropriateness for interpreting. This course is primarily a skills development course.

EDI 232 Educational Interpreting: Non-content Areas, Grades K-12

The goal of this lab-based course is to provide students with the practice of analyzing a variety of non-content area settings for interpretability (as discussed in Communication Assessment), to identify factors that are unique to any given setting, and to practice interpreting and feedback techniques for these settings. This course is primarily a skills development course.

EDI 233 Diagnostic Interpreting/Transliterating Lab I1

This course focuses on self-assessment and skills development in either interpreting or transliterating. Class sessions will include videotaping of simulated interpreting assignments with follow-up group an individual diagnosis of the extent that the interpreted message was successfully communicated. Through these activities, participants will have the opportunity to explore the strengths and weaknesses of their interpreting and the ability to participant in subsequent modules.

EDI 297 Internship: Educational Interpreting

This course is designed to provide an internship experience in the various duties and responsibilities which the educational interpreter encounters on the job. This internship is a cooperative enterprise involving the instructor, the intern, and the educational institution. The internship is intended to provide maximum opportunities for practical experience in educational interpreting settings. Students who are employed in educational settings may elect to the employment setting for the internship. Mentors from both within the setting and from EICP will provide all necessary supervision.

APPENDIX C

FACULTY AND STAFF

PROJECT DIRECTOR

Leilani Johnson
Front Range Community College
Denver, Colorado

CURRICULUM CONSULTANT

Elizabeth **A.** Winston
Educational Linguistics Research Center
Loveland, Colorado

FACULTY

Cynthia Herbst
Los Angeles Pierce Co. CC
Woodland Hills, California

Bernhardt Jones
Front Range Community College
Denver, Colorado

Christine Monikowski
NTID, Rochester Inst. of Tech.
Rochester, New York

Marty Taylor
Interpreting Consolidated
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Carmel Yarger
Bloomsburg University
Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania

INTERPRETING SKILLS SUPPORT

Lindsey Antle
Pikes Peak Community College
Colorado Springs, Colorado

Patricia Clark
University of Rochester
Rochester, New York

Tim Chevalier
Interpreting Services
Del Rapids, South Dakota

Dennis Davino
S.E.E. Center for the Advancement
of Deaf Children
Los Alamitos, California

Patrice Stephenson
S.E.E.Ctr. for the Advancement
of Deaf Children
Los Alamitos, California

Anna Witter-Merithew
Central Piedmont Community College
Charlotte, North Carolina

LANGUAGE COACHES

Montana School for the Deaf and Blind

Cecelia Eide
Larry Eide
Alice Guilbert
Darald Guilbert
Flo Ellen Hippe
Vernon Hippe
Ruth Johnson
Ronald Jones
Beverly LeMieux
Brenda LeMieux
Robert LeMieux
Sandi Schaefer
Leslie David Sherrard
Suzette Sherrard
Betty Van Tighem
David Wise
Doris Wise
Gladys Younggren
Darwin Younggren

STAFF

Melody Domph
Columbia Falls, Montana

Charlene Benson
Front Range Community College
Denver, Colorado

APPENDIX D
PARTNERS

- FRONT RANGE COMMUNITY COLLEGE
- MONTANA OFFICE OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
- WYOMING DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
- PIKES PEAK COMMUNITY COLLEGE
- MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY-GREAT FALLS
- UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING
- MONTANA SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND BLIND
- WYOMING SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF
- EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS RESEARCH CENTER
- WESTERN COOPERATIVE FOR EDUCATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATIONS
- MOUNTAIN PLAINS REGIONAL RESOURCE CENTER, UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
- RSA REGION VIII INTERPRETER TRADING PROJECT, FRONT RANGE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

CURRICULUM TO TRAIN INTERPRETERS FOR INDIVIDUALS WHO ARE DEAF-BLIND

Sharon Doyle King
Northwestern Connecticut Community-Technical College
Winsted, CT

GRANT

The grant project exists under the Department of Education, Rehabilitative Services Administration (RSA) and was awarded to NCCC in 1995. It is a five-year grant project and will conclude in September of the year 2000.

The author of this grant project is Albert T. Pimentel, who presently serves as the Headmaster of the New York School for the Deaf in White Plains, New York. The current director is Mark J. Myers, and Elaine Ducharme serves as the Grant Consumer Facilitator. The grant also supports two full-time educational assistants. I recently vacated the grant coordinator position which will soon be refilled.

I should also mention the grant maintains an excellent advisory committee including interpreter educators who specialize in Deaf-Blind interpreting, Deaf-Blind consumers, the immediate past president of the American Association of the Deaf-Blind (AADB), and three directors of RSA regional grant projects.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #1-CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The project was constructed around eight objectives. The first six relate to curriculum development. The first and main objective is to produce a comprehensive curriculum to train interpreters to develop the specialized skill in interpreting for Deaf-Blind individuals. Although many interpreters are trained in excellent interpreter training programs, these programs tend to focus on Deaf-sighted adults. To adequately serve members of the Deaf-Blind community requires additional focus, training, experience, and knowledge.

The curriculum development process began with a gathering of considerable data, including books, videotapes, and research papers that referenced interpreting for Deaf-Blind individuals. This data were then clustered into approximately ten categories. The information was then refined, merging concepts where appropriate, and draft outlines for six modules (or workshops) plus an internship were constructed. The grant

advisory committee reviewed and revised this grant material every step of the way. With the revision process and in consultation with several professionals in the field, the modules were expanded and modified into a total of nine modules.

Each module is at least 15 teaching hours in length. These will accommodate a weekend workshop format if need be. One module, "Interpreting Strategies," is designed for 30 hours. Each module includes an outline and detailed hour-by-hour lesson plans with suggested materials and activities and can potentially provide a total of 175 continuing education hours.

Modular System-Beginning Level

The module system is structured in a three-level training scale. The beginning level or "core" requires participants to possess at least an ASL III sign proficiency. It includes two, 15-hour modules with opportunities for practical experience.

The first module, "Introduction to Working and Socializing with Deaf-Blind People," focuses on the Deaf-Blind community and their cultural tendencies. This module introduces participants to the world of deaf-blindness—the various roles and relationships—and provides the sensitivity training immediately needed by those interacting with people who are Deaf-Blind.

The second module, "Communication and Mobility," provides sighted guide techniques and a basic introduction to the various communication methods potentially used by Deaf-Blind persons.

After completion of these two modules, persons could function effectively as community Support Service Providers or SSPs. Community SSPs, who are not yet fully trained as interpreters, often assist Deaf-Blind persons with shopping and other errands, providing sighted guiding and basic communication assistance.

Modular System-Intermediate Level

The Intermediate Level is for working interpreters who have little training or experience in worlung with Deaf-Blind individuals. This level consists of three modules. The first is entitled "Causes of Deaf-blindness and Implications for Interpreting.'' Included in this module are basic etiology, the psycho-emotional aspects of becoming or living with deaf-blindness, and what interpreters can do to relay empathy and understanding.

The second module in this level is "Interpreting Strategies." The focus is the linguistic modifications for tactual and low-vision interpreting. Another important feature is training in incorporating environmental aspects into the interpreting process.

"Roles and Responsibilities" completes the intermediate level. Discussions in this module will surround ethics, cross-cultural considerations, developing boundaries, and available resources.

Modular System-Advanced Level

Finally, the Advanced Level consists of four modules beginning with "Advanced Interpreting Strategies." This module delves deeper into linguistic modifications, such as condensing and editing, utilizing pre- and post-assignment information, back-channeling, and transferring non-manual grammatical signals in a tactual mode.

Next is "Dynamics of Large Groups and Conferences." Often, interpreting with individuals who are Deaf-Blind dictates a ratio of two–to-one (teaming). Transmission of dormation from one Deaf-Blind person to another may need to be processed through two interpreters. Depending on sight-lines, relay and/or voice interpreters may be necessary in a large group. Participating in a multi-interpreter coordinated event requires understanding the process, attitude of cooperation, and flexibility.

The third module is "Social and Political Advocacy." Outside of actual interpreting time, interpreters working with individuals who are Deaf-Blind can advocate for the Deaf-Blind Community by sharing dormation, linking and re-linking communities, and being supportive of political or social actions which enhance the lives of Deaf-Blind people.

The last and final module is an internship consisting of forty hours divided up by working with three different Deaf-Blind clients for ten hours each and meeting with the module supervisor for feedback sessions a total of 10 hours. Interpreters will be directed to potential opportunities for experience and growth in working with members of the Deaf-Blind community.

Curriculum Completion

Most of the modules have completed outlines and lesson plans. The last few are expected to be completed by the end of the year. All modules will then go through a final editing phase.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #Z-COLLEGE COURSES

Several of the other grant objectives well complement this curriculum. The second grant objective refers to combining information from several of the nine modules to create a three-credit college course that we hope will be incorporated into existing interpreter training programs. A survey of ITPs across the country was conducted to gather information regarding experience, perceptions, and indications of the potential demand for this type of college course work. Of the 41 responses received, 34 programs indicated strong interest in utilizing this material in their training.

For instructors working in ITP programs, a manual or videotape may be created with suggestions on how to incorporate information about deaf-blindness into their current curriculum. Some suggestions can be as simple as using stimulus material that talks about deaf-blindness or shows Deaf-Blind people.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #3-VIDEOTAPES

The third grant objective is to develop several videotapes that can be utilized as support material for the written curriculum modules. One video recently completed describes and demonstrates the various communication methods potentially used by Deaf-Blind consumers. A second video depicts the interpreting modifications necessary for different tactual and close-vision interpreting as compared to interpreting for sighted-Deaf people. Several other videotapes still being constructed relate to technology and various devices used by Deaf-Blind people; optic and audiological signs and terminology; and interpreting services/process from the perspective of Deaf-Blind individuals and hearing consumers.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #4-INSTRUCTOR'S MANUAL

The fourth objective is the development of an instructor's manual for persons implementing the modular curriculum. It will include suggestions for use of the materials, logistics, and required qualifications.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #5-TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The fifth objective is for the national project to provide techrucal assistance, or information sharing, on deaf-blindness to the 10 regional RSA grant projects, the other

national grant project housed at El Paso Community College, and any other interested party.

GRANT OBJECTIVE #6-INTERPRETER DIRECTORY

Objective number six is the development of a directory of interpreters and SSPs skilled in working with Deaf-Blind individuals. This is not to be in competition with the registry maintained by the National RID. Its focus is to provide Deaf-Blind people who may be traveling or moving to a new place with a list of possible interpreters or SSPs who have the specialized skill they seek. An application form has been developed, and distribution of this form has begun. Potential participants' names are being recruited from the Deaf-Blind List Serve (DBL), National TLUD, Organizations of and for Deaf-Blind People, and the regional Helen Keller Offices.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

In every part of this grant project, we have made an effort to include the perspective of Deaf-Blind consumers. One project that reflects this effort was an interview project that was conducted in eight locations across the United States. Eight interviewers were contracted, each of them to interview ten Deaf-Blind consumers of interpreting services and ten interpreters / SSPs who work with Deaf-Blind consumers.

Information gathered assisted in the compilation and revision of curriculum materials by assuring that the curriculum covered the skill and knowledge needed and desired for working with individuals who are Deaf-Blind.

A second project was sponsoring the development of a written documentary of the Deaf-Blind experience. The Lighthouse for the Blind in Seattle, Washington, was contracted to coordinate interviews, observations, interpreters, and reporters for this project. The result is a detailed document and videotape that will serve as a supplement to the module curriculum.

CONCLUSION

This has been an exciting grant project. The goal is to produce materials as comprehensive and useful as possible. The main thrust is to respond adequately to the Deaf-Blind community's request for better qualified interpreters to meet their needs.

Northwestern Connecticut Community Technical College
National Interpreter Education Project

Questions for Interpreter Educators to consider:

1. What would you consider to be the three most important slulls or practical information an interpreter must possess to be effective when working with deaf-blind consumers?

2. What information should be included in the directory of interpreters who are skilled in working with individuals who are deaf-blind?

3. If you would like to be included in our mailing list to receive mformation on the final curriculum package, please list your name, address, and e-mail address below.

THE EFFECT OF SIGN LANGUAGE INTERPRETERS ON AUDIENCE PERCEPTION OF DEAF SPEAKERS CREDIBILITY

Shelley Lawrence

INTRODUCTION

Speech credibility, an audience's perception of the believability, plausibility and trustworthiness of a speech, is a combination of content, speaker and delivery. Speaker credibility is also dynamic; it is influenced by topic, setting, audience and time. An audience's value of what is true changes which additionally influences perception of credibility. Together, these aspects of speech, speaker, and audience create an atmosphere of credibility.

Credibility research, measured by constructing pairs of bi-polar adjectives for subjects to rate after listening to a speech, has shown that presentation style, voice quality and delivery influence audience perception of a-edibility (Berlo et al., 1969; Schweitzer and Ginsberg, 1966). However, in situations where there are audiences comprised of members of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, is the speaker's credibility perceived to be the same by the different audience members? When interpreters are used, how do they affect the audience's perception of speaker credibility? Specifically, how do Sign Language interpreters affect the perception of Deaf speaker credibility?

While there is abundant research documenting the effects of a speaker on an audience, the interpreter process and the assessment of message reception and comprehension from interpreters, few studies focus on the effects of interpreted messages on the audience's perception of a speaker.

Cokely's (1983) pilot study explored how Sign Language interpreters conveyed the metanotative qualities, "the non-content characteristics that influence a person's overall impressions of the speaker'' (p. 16), of an English speaker to Deaf audiences. He found Deaf raters judged the speaker more positively than did the hearing raters and posited that this discrepancy was because the Sign Language interpreters did not use pausing and non-manual signals appropriately and thus, did not accurately convey the speaker's pauses and hesitations. Although research on interpreter credibility is almost non-existent, Carroll (1995) reports the belief that in court, a witness' credibility is more

difficult to judge when interpreters are used. Wu (1995) found that in translated evidence for court, linguistic and sociocultural factors left out of translations influenced credibility of written evidence. So, while there is some evidence that interpreters/translators do impact credibility perception, there is little research to guide us in understanding how or in which parameters credibility perception is impacted.

In an attempt to further understand an interpreter's influence on a speaker's credibility, two studies were undertaken; one quantitative, one qualitative. Together, the two studies give us the beginning of a database to better understand the effects of Sign Language interpreters on the perception of speaker credibility.

METHODS

The Survey

Three different audiences of college students (N=77), a Deaf-no-interpreter group (N=28), a hearing group who listened to a female interpreter (N=25), and a hearing group who listened to a male interpreter (N=26) watched a Deaf speaker on videotape. On a six-point bi-polar Likert scale, participants rated the speaker on overall credibility and on seventeen dimensions of credibility. The results were analyzed using a Chi-square analysis.

Survey instrument

The survey instrument was developed by collapsing several existing instruments used in other credibility studies, as well as Cokely's metanotative study (Cokely, 1983; Berlo et al., 1969; McGinnis, 1968; Whitehead, 1968; and Haiman, 1949). A list of twenty-four bi-polar adjective pairs were selected and piloted in a graduate speech communication seminar. The final survey instrument thus contained seventeen attributes represented as bi-polar adjectives. (See Appendix A.)

Constructs

From the seventeen attributes, three constructs, Content, Personality, Delivery, were determined by two Deaf and three hearing colleagues. This was done to analyze the overall impact of interpreters on the perception of credibility and to determine if specific constructs were more or less heavily influenced than others. The seventeen attributes were clustered with 80.77% reliability. The breakdown of attributes by construct is seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Attributes Seen by Constructs

Content	Personality	Delivery
Familiarity with topic	Enthusiasm	Convincibility
Organization	Friendliness	Pacing
Experienced	Sincerity	Understandability
Competence	Honesty	Fluency
	Interesting	Confidence
	Open-Mindedness	Clarity
		Flow of Delivery

Studv Two: The Interviews

Of the seventy-six raters who completed the survey, twenty-nine indicated a willingness to be interviewed; four who listened to the male interpreter, seven who listened to the female interpreter, and eighteen Deaf raters. Seven interviews were conducted; two from each of the hearing groups; three from the Deaf group. The interviews were taped, transcribed and coded and ranged from forty minutes to an hour and a half.

Interview Questions

Interview questions were both open-ended and specific to the Deaf speaker on the videotape. (See Appendix B). Questions were divided into general issues of credibility, questions about the presentation itself, and survey related questions. Additionally, questions related to participants' personal experiences and culture were explored.

RESULTS

Studv *One:* Survev Data

Overall Credibilitv

Using a Chi-square analysis, the overall mean credibility rating of the speaker on a six-point scale (with a score of one representing low credibility and a six representing high credibility) was 4.46. Significant variation among the three groups of raters can be seen in Table **2.**

Table 2: Overall Credibility Rating

Total group (N=76)	**4.46**
Deaf (N=28)	4.14
Hearing, female interpreter (N=24)	4.75
Hearing, male interpreter (N=24)	4.46
Hearing male + female interpreter (N=48)	4.60

Attributes

Of the seventeen attributes describing credibility, six showed statistical significance at the .05 level or better between the three groups (Deaf-no-interpreter, hearing-female interpreter, and hearing-male interpreter). Those attributes were enthusiasm, convincibility, understandability, fluency, confidence, and open-mindedness. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Chi-square Analysis of Credibility

Attributes	Likelihood Ratio	Pearson Value
Enthusiasm	**.013***	**.035***
Friendliness	.310	.439
Convincibility	**.048***	.081
Familiarity with Topic	.155	.186
Organization	.153	.392
Pacing	.757	.778
Understandability	**.0096***	**.017***
Fluency	**.041***	.125
Sincerity	.070	.745
Honesty	.598	.717
Confidence	**.029***	.143
Experience	.108	.210
Interest	.636	.651
Clarity	.542	.633
Competency	.157	.230
Open-mindedness	**.047***	.149
Delivery	.332	.363

*Statistically Significant

Constructs

The seventeen attributes were clustered into three constructs: Content, Personality, and Delivery. Table **4** below shows, by construct, whch attributes were significant at least at the .05 level. Those in bold print were significant to the Deaf audience; those shaded and in bold print were sigruficant to the audience who listened to the female interpreter. None of the attributes in this study positively influenced by the male interpreter.

Table 4: Significant Attributes Seen by Constructs

Content	Personality	Delivery
Familiarity with topic	**Enthusiasm**	**Convincibility**
Organization	Friendliness	Pacing
Experienced	Sincerity	**Understandability**
Competence	Honesty	**Fluency**
	Interesting	**Confidence**
	Open-Mindedness	Clarity
		Flow of Deliverv

Content. The survey showed there were no significant differences in the attributes of familiarity with the topic, organization, experience, and competency, when viewed by the three groups. Interpreters, male or female, did not influence the perception of the content of the speech.

Personality. The attributes of enthusiasm and open-mindedness were effected. The audience hearing the female interpreter perceived the speaker as more enthusiastic than the audience hearing the male interpreter at a sigruficantly higher rate (hearing female, 80%; hearing male, 44%; and Deaf-no-interpreter, 61.5%). The results of the enthusiasm trait can be seen in Table 5. The Deaf-no-interpreter group, as seen in Table 6, saw the speaker as more open-minded than the hearing groups (Deaf-no-interpreter, 60%; hearing female, 44%; and hearing male, 38.5%). The use of interpreters did not impact participants in this survey significantly on the other dimensions of personality.

Table 5: Enthusiasm

	Enthusiastic				Apathetic		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deaf N=26	(5) 19.2	(11) 42.3	(4) 15.4	(3) 11.5	(2) 7.7	(1) 3.8	
female interp N=25	(11) 44.0	(10) 40.0	(1) 4.0	(3) 12.0			
male interp N=25	(7) 28.0	(4) 16.0	(5) 20.0	(1) 4.0	(7) 28.0	(1) 4.0	

	Narrow-minded				Open-minded		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deaf N=28		(1) 3.6	(1) 3.6	(4) 14.3	(5) 17.9	(10) 35.7	(7) 25.0
female interp N=25		(10) 8.0		(7) 28.8	(5) 20.0	(6) 24.0	(5) 20.0
male *interp*		2)	(2)	(1)		(4)	(6)

Delivery. The area of greatest impact was Delivery. Four attributes showed significant differences: understandability, convincibility, fluency, and confidence. The results are presented in Tables 7-10. The Deaf-no-interpreter group elicited more favorable ratings in understandability than did the hearing groups (Deaf-no-interpreter, 79%; hearing male, 60%; and hearing female, 36%). However, the female interpreter increased the audience's perception of convincibility, fluency and confidence of this particular Deaf presenter.

	Easy to Understand				Hard to Understand		
	1	2	3	(4	(5	(6	(7
Deaf N=28	(12) 42.9	(10) 35.7	(4) 14.3	(1) **3.6**	(1) 3.6		
female interp N=25	(4) 16.0	(5) 20.0	(4) 16.0	(8) 32.0		(1) 4.0	(3) 12.0
male interp N=25	(5) 20.0	(10) 40.0	(3) 12.0	(3) 12.0	(3) 12.0	(1) 4.0	

Table 8: Convincibility

	Unconvincing					Convincing	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deaf N=28		(2) 7.1	(1) 3.6	(7) 25.0	(7) 25.0	(5) 17.9	(6) 21.4
female interp N=25	(1) 4.0			(2) 8.0	(2) 8.0	(11) 44.0	(9) 36.0
male interp N=25	(1) 4.0	(1) 4.0	(4) 16.0	(2) 8.0	(5) 20.0	(5) 20.0	(7) 28.0

Table 9: Fluency

	Fluent			Hesitant			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deaf N=28	(3) 10.7	(15) 53.6	(3) 10.7	(3) 10.7	(2) 7.1	(2) 7.1	
female interp N=25	(9) 36.0	(11) 44.0		(2) 8.0	(1) 4.0	(1) 4.0	(1) 4.0
male interp N=25	(9) 42.9	(7) 28.0	(3) 12.0		(5) 20.0	(1) 4.0	

Table **10:** Confidence

	Unsure			Confident			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deaf N=28			(7) 25.0	(1) 3.6	(3) 10.7	(7) 25.0	(10) 35.7
female interp N=25		(2) 8.0		(2) 8.0		(6) 24.0	(15) 60.0
male interp N=26	(1) 3.8	(1) 3.8	(4) 15.4	(3) 11.5	(3) 11.5	(6) 23.1	(8) 30.8

Study 2: Interviews

Shared Percations of Credibility

Judged by intensity and frequency of repetition of themes, the results from the interviews support the findings in the quantitative study in four attributes: enthusiasm, fluency, confidence, and understandability. In addition, three attributes of credibility not listed on the survey form were noted by both Deaf and hearing interviewees: speaker's reputation, subject knowledge, and the use of visual aids.

Differences in Perception of Credibility

There are five areas where the qualitative and quantitative data show contrast. These include convincibility, open-mindedness, honesty, flow of delivery, **and** organization. Convincibility and open-mindedness, while distinguishing speaker credibility on the survey, were hardly mentioned in the interviews. Flow of delivery

and organization, on the other hand, did not show a significant difference in the statistical analysis but, as aspects of aedibility, were discussed throughout the interviews by Deaf and hearing informants alike. Organization, in particular, appeared with regularity in the hearing informants descriptions of credibility but only once in the Deaf interviews.

One of the Deaf informants believed there are different organizational patterns between Deaf and "hearing" presentations. While watching the videotape, he remarked that the signer's speech was presented in a "hearing way." When asked how he might change it, his response was: "rearrange the speech!" He clarified his point by giving an example of two presenters, one hearing and one Deaf, both of whom lecture on the same topic yet have different organizational styles. He further explained that the Deaf lecturer seems to be is rooted in making a connection, while the hearing lecturer seems to attempt to establish a theoretical framework from whch examples can be understood.

Two of the Deaf informants also noted the "hearing-ness" of the stimulus signer. In fact, two of the Deaf informants thought the list of survey credibility attributes lacked one describing the style of presentation. They recommended including an attribute for either "Deaf-like / hearing-like" or "English-like / American Sign Language (ASL)-like" suggesting the Deaf audiences' awareness of an organizational difference between cultural groups.

Presentation style also seemed to be an important attribute of credibility. Both the hearing and the Deaf groups mentioned presentation style, yet descriptions of style noted by the groups were distinct. Four additional attributes were mentioned in the Deaf interviews but did not surface with intensity in the hearing interviews. They were 1) rapport, connection and engagement with audience; 2) use of stories and examples; and 3) eye contact, and 4) body movement and facial expression. These attributes are subsumed under the umbrella of presentation style.

Hearing View of Presentation Style

In interviews with hearing informants the importance of presentation style was discussed as a combination of delivery, content, and appearance. Other factors specified by hearing informants included eye contact with the audience, tone of voice, pace, subject knowledge, structure, and inviting the audience in.

Hearing people expect confidence, clarity, organized content and fluidity in a presentation style. These judgments were often based on appearance, manner of speaking, and how presenters carried themselves.

Deaf View of Presentation Style

The Deaf style of presentation seemed to be significantly more focused on making a connection with the audience. While connection is mentioned in some of the hearing interviews, the frequency and different ways of stressing connection is without parallel in the Deaf interviews. Connection is made in a variety of ways: with eye contact, with sharing of personal stories, and with anecdotal stories which can become the focus of the talk itself.

Rapport and connection. Of the four hearing mformants, two thought rapport and connection were important and mentioned it a total of twenty-one times. This is in striking contrast to the three Deaf informants who mentioned it a total of ninety-four times; one informant alone totaled forty-eight times. One Deaf informant thought Deaf credibility had a lot to do with rapport and getting the audience involved. He said if Deaf people have been 'reached' " . . . then that is all that matters." Deaf presenters also expect audiences to respond and be involved. One informant explained, "the [Deaf] speaker expects us to interact . . . If there is no response, the speaker will stop." He doesn't believe this is true of hearing presenters.

Use of Stories and Examples is seen as a way to connect. In the interviews with the Deaf informants, stories and the use of examples were forty-one times. Not surprisingly, all of the Deaf informants wove stories into their explanations in the course of their interviews. In contrast, none of the hearing interviewees mentioned the use of examples. The hearing interviewees however, mentioned that examples were sometimes helpful but one did not like tangents caused by "rabbit trails" and side stories.

Eye Contact. The use of eye contact was mentioned nine times by all four hearing informants but forty-five times by the three Deaf informants. When watching the Deaf presenter on videotape, one Deaf informant stopped it when the signer clasped her hands and looked away. The informant noted, "When she pauses, she disconnects the engaging process."

Facial expression and body movement. Deaf mformants spoke of facial expressions as a way of evaluating the credibility of Deaf speakers (and interpreters). Both Deaf and

hearing interviewees mentioned facial expression with almost equal frequency but almost half the time it was noted by the hearing group, it was done in a derogatory way. For example: One hearing informant noted, "What I'm seeing in her visual is a pulling down of her mouth that makes it difficult for me to watch her." Another said " . . . everything is very open-faced and big-mouthed," and later noted the "child-like, attention-getting faces."

Last, each person interviewed talked about body movement / body language as a part of credibility and agreed that confidence yielded natural gestures and movement.

Impact of Interpreters on Credibility of Deaf Speakers

Still further differences on credibility judgment were noted on the impact of interpreters: 1) the interpreting process itself, 2) the visual modality, 3) confusion over whom to rate, and 4) judging credibility.

1) There are misconceptions among hearing raters about the interpreting process. The mental processes requisite in perceiving, understanding, and expressing ideas between two languages result in gaps between speakers' utterances and interpreters' translations. This gap, perceived as a lack of synchrony, caused hearing mformants to react strongly to the speaker, eroding trust. Some thought the interpreter couldn't keep up with the signer; all noted the emotional content shown on the signer's face was not heard from the interpreter until several sentences later.

2) While at times the novelty of American Sign Language was captivating, the interpretation of its features was often negative since expression in ASL is so different from spoken languages. This was noted in comments about facial expressions and physical movement.

3) The hearing interviewees experienced difficulty separating the Deaf presenter from the interpreter, or the "voice." The hearing, non-signing audience had no access to the message without the interpreter and while they tried to separate the two, all of the hearing raters at times, integrated the interpreter's voice into their assessment of the Deaf presenter's credibility.

4) One Deaf informant stated people often make judgments on what they hear; Deaf people on what they see. She felt, "a hearing person is more comfortable when [a] Deaf person is more like him / herself." She went on to say that I. King Jordon, the president of Gallaudet University who was deafened in his 20's, " . . . is considered

"normal" according to Fearing culture's] definition" because his mannerisms, speech and organization is more like theirs.

DISCUSSION

CULTURAL ISSUE

Of the seventeen original attributes rated by all three groups, eleven traits were perceived similarly. There was no meaningful difference between the hearing and Deaf audiences' perception of organization, interest, familiarity with the topic, friendliness, honesty, pacing, clarity, experience, delivery, sincerity, and competency. The remaining six traits appear to break down along cultural lines; two of the traits receiving highest ratings by the Deaf-no-interpreter group and four traits received hghest ratings from the interpreted groups. While the data seem to suggest a cultural difference, that information cannot be implied from the survey alone. These implications, however, are explored in the discussion of the interviews.

Cultural Implications of Rating Speaker Credibility

Situating differences among the seven informants within the context of Deaf and American culture allows us to understand how the perceptions of Deaf speaker's credibility was formed.

Lustig and Koester (1996) share several definitions of culture that view it as learned and passed down through generations, including the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values, and norms that exist to guide people's behaviors **(p.** 33). That means culture determines and frames our perceptions of and experiences in the world including perceptions of credibility.

Members of Deaf and hearing culture have standards and expectations of what constitutes speaker credibility. As reported in the results, there are many shared features of credibility and some shared expectations about presentation style. Clear differences also exist. For example, establishing a connection is much more a priority for a Deaf audience than it is for a hearing audience. In fact, if a speaker doesn't connect with his or her Deaf audience, their credibility is diminished. A hearing audience has clear expectations of organization and content. Speeches that follow a familiar format are more likely to be considered credible than those that do not.

Cultural Similarities of Speaker Credibility

While the survey identified six significantly different attributes of credibility, the interview data identified important aspects of credibility for each group and in some instances, suggest why those aspects are important. Four aspects of credibility overlapped Deaf and hearing audiences. Both audiences agreed that flow of delivery, fluency, confidence, and enthusiasm were important when judging speaker credibility. Also significant to both groups was the speaker's reputation, subject knowledge, and the incorporation of visual aids into a presentation.

For members of both cultures, having an established reputation, either personal or professional, being prepared as evidenced by subject knowledge, and having visual support (e.g.: overheads, slides, artifacts, etc.) for a presentation, sets up a speaker as credible.

Cultural Differences in Speaker Credibility

In the results, both the Deaf and hearing groups felt that presentation style was an integral part of credibility, but they differed in what they felt constituted a credible presentation style. Hearing informants found that confidence, appearance, clarity, presence, fluency, content, and delivery made for a credible presentation. In contrast, Deaf informants focused on making a connection with their audience.

From the interviews, we know that the use of stories and examples are of great importance to Deaf people. Using them may be a function of the collectivist nature of Deaf culture. It may also be attributed, in part, to the discourse style used by Deaf people. Theresa Smith, in her doctoral dissertation Deaf People in Context, explores the unique styles of Deaf discourse. Some specific features include constructed dialogue[1], greater focus on description and elaboration in Deaf narratives, "One Deaf. . . stories'" and kernel stories which are used to begin formal lectures and whose function is to manifest or illustrate major points of a lecture[3].

1 This refers to the creation of dialogue that is either real and recreated or an imagined dialogue. reported action, emotion, and behavior when a signer assumes the posture and actions of a character (Metzger, pp. 255-257).

2 Identified by Anna Witter-Merithew, these stories tell cautionary tales, success stories or folktales about "famous" (but often unidentified) Deaf leaden.

3 Chapter thirteen goes into much detail and description of discourse styles unique to Deaf discourse including numerous examples but is far too detailed to be reported here.

Smith goes on to say that non-verbal communication, the use of eye gaze and other facial expressions give meaningful information (pp. 194-232). The use of stories, elaboration, constructed exhibited throughout my interviews with Deaf informants.

Since these features do not exist in English / hearing discourse, a Deaf audience would not experience most of the above mentioned features in an English presentation. Likewise, a hearing audience would be inundated with them in a Deaf presentation. This suggests that different styles might elicit different reactions based upon expectations of credible presentations and quite possibly, effect intercultural judgments of credibility.

Deaf People's Rating of the Signer

The Deaf raters judged the Deaf presenter lower on overall credibility than both groups of hearing raters. By presenting the information in the way she did, the signer did not seem to conform to the Deaf ideals of credibility.

- The opening did not follow a Deaf pattern; her introduction was not personal.
- The opening was content oriented causing the Deaf informants to wonder if she was hearing or Deaf.
- Articulation and sign clarity did not measure up to standards of a good presenter.
- Her facial expression was more "monotone" than expected.
- Her enthusiasm and eye contact were low.
- She used mannerisms that Deaf informants thought "disconnected" her from the audience.
- After she warmed up however, she gained more credibility by using examples, improved her fluency, and stayed connected via mannerisms and eye contact.

Furthermore, for Deaf audiences as seen in the Deaf interviews and the literature, there is strong sentiment that delivery is often more important than content. Deaf presentations are often seen as anecdotal whereas hearing presentations are often filled with facts.

Hearing People's Ratings of the Signer

The hearing raters judging the Deaf speaker had different issues to contend with. Two of their issues centered on the mechanics of receiving the message: who to judge and the lack of synchrony between the speaker and the signer. The difference of modality and the lack of familiarity with a visual mode of communication also had an effect. The style of the speech, identified as more story-like by two hearing informants, made a difference as did the fact that the signer was Deaf, perhaps evoking a sense of compassion when judging a-edibility was noted. A discussion of these factors follows.

The interviews suggest hearing raters were sometimes rating the signer and sometimes the interpreter. While all raters were given the instructions, "rate the Deaf speaker," confusion was noted by all of the hearing informants. It was however, intermittent. Informants commented they found some attributes easier to rate the signer on (e.g. friendliness), while others were interpreter dependent (e.g., understandability). Still other attributes were hard to rate because the raters were unsure of whom to rate (e.g., pace: was the rater evaluating the pace of the interpreter or the signer?).

All of the hearing informants referenced the strong impact of interpreters on their perception of the speaker. They all noted the lack of synchrony between the signer and the interpreter in two areas: timing and affect. Often what they saw and heard was not congruent. There were times the signer was talkmg but the interpreters were not speaking. Other times, they saw one affect but heard something that appeared to contradict it. Delays are the result of the lag time; that is, the time it takes for the interpreter to perceive the mformation, process it and finally, express it in the target language (English, in this case).

A related issue is the interpretation of facial expression. Steward and Bennett (1991) state American non-verbal behavior " . . . is ancillary to verbal communication" (p. 59). Facial expressions are seen as complimentary rather than communicative in American speech and are generally unnoticed until there is perceived dissonance. The overt facial expressions of the signer and the lack of expression in the interpreter's voice was such a case. For the hearing raters, this caused concern, if not confusion. The trust in the interpreter was eroded when what the hearing, non-signer perceived as emotion was not captured in the interpretation. Despite the fact the hearing audience found facial expression disruptive, it did not appear to have an impact on their rating of the speaker.

The perceived style of the speech, however, was a contributing factor to how the speaker was rated. Two hearing informants felt the signer was telling a story rather than giving information. They felt stories aren't rated on credibility; a storyteller merely tells his or her version of a story. If this is the case, then this could account for the higher rating. In contrast, the Deaf raters felt the signer was too content oriented and did not share her story or give them anything to relate to until the end of her presentation.

Another possible explanation of the difference between the Deaf and hearing ratings can be found in the "sympathy factor." Deaf people are seen more often as a disability group than as a linguistic and cultural minority. Two comments in journal entries of people I did not interview but whose entries were copied and given to me with their permission led me to suspect this. One commented, "It must be *so* hard for them to get by." A second journal entry by another student said, " . . . I think [her] disability does make it a little harder to be totally objective. . . We've all be (sic) taught. . . to be patient or more lenient with others who are different / disabled." While these comments do not overtly state sympathy, it can be argued that it underlies these comments. This suggests a lower or looser standard being used by the hearing raters than by the Deaf raters to judge the credibility of the Deaf presenter.

CONCLUSIONS

When speaking to pluralistic audiences where different expectations of credibility exist, presenters need to be aware that content, structure, organization, delivery, and speaking style yield differing perceptions to different audiences.

Using interpreters often causes confusion for audiences separating the interpreter from the speaker. Understanding the interpreting process and how it may affect the perception of credibility is important for speakers planning to use interpreters. The interpreter's style may have an impact over and beyond the message of the presentation.

LIMITATIONS

The scope of this study is limited in two respects. First, it is a small study. For a clearer understanding of interpreters' effect on speaker credibility, it bears repeating with a larger, more diverse population of raters, a variety of speakers, and many

different interpreters. It might also be beneficial to include interpreters and populations of other spoken languages.

Second, this study used skilled interpreters who, for the purposes of this project, viewed the text several times. They were comfortable with the information on the stimulus tape and their accuracy was later verified. In the real world of interpreting, this does not occur. When interpreters of varying skill levels perform the task of interpreting public address they do not preview the presentation prior to interpreting it. What then is the effect of credibility perception for interpreters in a normal work setting? It is hoped that this study serves to stimulate the interest in further research into the effects of interpreters in intercultural settings.

IMPLICATIONS

Although this is a small study needing replication, it nonetheless contributes to an understanding of credibility. Based on what has been learned about the effects of interpreters on perception of credibility, important implications in three significant areas have surfaced.

1) Both Deaf and hearing presenters are the potential beneficiaries of this study. If credibility is, in part, culturally determined, it suggests presenters could benefit from knowing their audience's cultural expectations of credibility.

2) Second, in light of the present research, there are potentially significant changes that interpreter education programs could address. Since interpreters do impact the perception of speaker credibility, it Seems wise to shift some energies to include discourse style, presentation style and aspects of connection in our education of new interpreters and the continuing education of workmg interpreters. The results also suggest important modifications to the preparation and training of hearing presenters who speak to pluralistic, multi-cultural audiences.

3) Interpreter referral agencies can benefit from the study results. Whereas often their primary goal is to fill jobs, perhaps a different, more comprehensive assessment of interpreter skill is in order. If accuracy is not the only criteria for a good interpretation, modification of current practices is needed by rethinking how jobs get filled.

This study scratches the surface of and finds significant effects that interpreters have on perceptions of speaker credibility suggesting the need for further research. Other areas for future research include the following: 1) gender congruity between

interpreters and speakers and its effect on the perception of Deaf speaker credibility; 2) the effects of interpreters on Deaf people's perception of hearing speakers' credibility; and ***3)*** because the current study interviewed informants prior to running statistical analysis of the survey, questions regarding meaningful differences could not be probed (e.g., gender). Future research could correct this, and by doing so, broaden our understanding of interpreter's effect on perception of credibility. Finally, expanded research and replication of the present study are necessary prior to implementing new policy based on this study alone.

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APPENDIX A

Code _____

In response to the Deaf speaker on the video-tape, please respond to the following:
I think this speaker is: (circle the number that best describes how you feel)

	very			neutral			very	
enthusiastic	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	apathetic
unfriendly	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	friendly
unconvincing	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	convincing
very familiar with topic	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	unfamiliar with topic
disorganized	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	organized
slow paced	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	fast paced
easy to understand	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	hard to understand
fluent	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	hesitant
insincere	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	sincere
honest	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	dishonest
unsure	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	confident
experienced	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	inexperienced
boring	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	interesting
clear	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	unclear
competent	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	incompetent
narrow-minded	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	open-minded
choppy delivery	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	smooth delivery

Are you interested in being interviewed?
(I expect it to take 30-60 minutes) ____ yes ____ no

Name _____
Phone number_____
Best time to call_____

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX B

Thesis Interview questions

Background: Not much is known about credibility in this situation. The survey is limited in its ability to tell me what really makes us decide the matter of credibility. I am trying to flesh out the numbers and get a better picture of what it is.

General issues of credibility:

1. Think about a person who you see as credible.
   How would you describe/define this person?
   What does he or she do when speaking that makes you believe him or her, be swayed by what he or she says?

   Probe/follow-up as necessary:
   can you give examples?

2. What do you look for/listen for in a speaker?
   What kinds of things increase or decrease your opinion of the speaker?

   probe/follow-up:
   Style?
   Delivery?
   What he or she is saying or how it is said?

Video-tape stimulus itself

Watching the video-tape (be sure to select the one that the subject saw)

3. Describe your reactions, feelings while watching the video.
   What do you notice? What jumps out at you?

   Probe/follow-up:

4. Check the interviewee's rating form...are there any inconsistencies? Any answer that you might want to follow up on?

   Probe/follow-up:

(HEARING)

- Was there a sense of dissonance you felt while watching the tape? If so, can you describe it? How would you explain it to another person?
- Were there issues that came up for you? Can you describe them?
- Were you aware of a "shift" that occurred while watching?
- Might this "shift" occu under other circumstances?

- Do you think there are different standards of credibility in the Deaf community?

Probe/follow-up any of the above questions as necessary.

(DEAF)

- Is there anything you do when you speak to an audience that would increase or decrease your perceived credibility?
- When watching a Deaf speaker and a hearing speaker who can sign, do you have different approaches to judge their credibility?
- What about a hearing speaker who can sign and one who needs an interpreter. Do you judge their credibility differently?
- A Deaf speaker and a hearing speaker who needs an interpreter?
- Do you think there are different standards of credibility within the hearing community?
- How do you think hearing people judge a Deaf speaker's credibility?

Probefollow-up any of the above questions as necessary.

Survey related questions

5. Did you have any problems while answering the survey?
   Can you describe them?

   Probe/follow-up:

6. Are there any other attributes that you might have added to the survey that address the topic of credibility during **speech** delivery?

   Probe/follow-up:

7. Is there anything you wish to add or explain or elaborate on that I did not ask you about?

I want to thank you for your time and for considering these questions for me. Your comments will bring us a long way in trying to understand the complex issues of credibility, cross-cultural credibility and perhaps, if interpreters do have an impact on perceived credibility of speakers and if so, under what conditions.

EFFECTIVE IN-SERVICE FOR RURAL AND REMOTE EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETERS

Elisa Maroney
John Freeburg
Sandra Gish

ABSTRACT

In spite of the increase of interpreter education programs nationwide, there continues to be a shortage of qualified educational interpreters throughout the country. The lack of these specialists is most dramatic in rural and remote areas and appears to be related to the following:

1) the lack of regularly offered, high quality sign language classes to ensure that individuals acquire the necessary language proficiency to be eligible for interpreter education;
2) the absence of a local, pre-service, interpreter education program; and
3) the lack of a designated lead interpreter assigned and prepared to provide mentoring, on-going evaluation, and support.

Thus, rural and remote area educational interpreters are often hired with Little, if any, pre-service training.

In light of these needs, the Summer Interpreter Education Program (SIEP) was developed and implemented at Western Oregon University. This presentation will describe the SIEP, which is a model for the delivery of educational interpreter education that has been effective in increasing the number of qualified classroom interpreters in areas of sparse population in the Northwest.

The SIEP has several program objectives, the first of which seeks to increase the number of individuals in rural and remote areas whose level of basic sign communication is sufficient to qualify them for participation in interpreter education, either in-service or pre-service. To accomplish this, the SIEP offers advanced training in American Sign Language (ASL) pedagogy for currently employed ASL educators. In areas where sign language is not currently taught, individuals are recruited, primarily from the local deaf community, to participate in sign language teacher education.

The second SIEP objective is to offer continuing education opportunities for beginning-level interpreters who wish to continue their development toward becoming fully qualified interpreters. Recruitment and publicity strateges focus on rural and

remote participants. Summer classes are conducted in two three-week modules, allowing students to attend for up to six weeks each summer.

The third program objective is to prepare lead interpreters to become interpreter resource specialists and mentors. These participants are trained to offer individualized evaluation, training, and support to staff interpreters in their respective school districts throughout the school year.

In addition to offering the above three educational components, strategies for the delivery of instruction to rural and remote locations, utilizing existing distance learning technology, have been investigated and implemented successfully.

In this presentation, the Summer Interpreter Education Program objectives and their implementation will be described. Their application and relevance to areas other than the Northwest will also be discussed.

INTRODUCTION

For U.S. citizens who are deaf, the civil right to interpreting services was first guaranteed by the passage of the Rehabilitation Act of 1974 (Section 504). This legislation assured people who are deaf that communication barriers to publicly supported human services would be removed. The passage of PL 94-142, and its reauthorization **(IDEA)** encouraged the mainstreaming of deaf students, creating a demand for interpreters in regular classroom settings. Caccamise et al. (1981) determined that the number of interpreters employed full-time in the public schools had increased 300% from 1977 to 1980 in some states, reflecting the trend toward placement of deaf and hard of hearing students into integrated settings. The majority of all possible full-time interpreting positions is now in instructional settings, and the demand for educational interpreting services continues to exceed the supply (Seal, 1998; Stuckless et al., 1989). However, unlike the objective, "conduit model" role of the social services interpreter, public schools began to require interpreting professionals who could serve not only as a communication bridge between the deaf student and the regular classroom teacher, but also as a teaching assistant trained in the techniques of mentoring and able to serve other classroom support functions with students who are deaf and hard of hearing. In many school districts, educational interpreters now participate on Individual Education Program (IEP) planning teams, making

contributions on such issues as the design of barrier-free communication environments and student sign communication proficiency.

The 1980's and 1990's have brought an explosion of information that has dramatically altered the approach to preparing trained interpreters. Linguists, beginning in the 1960's, documented the features that distinguish American Sign Language (ASL) as a distinct language and identified a contact variety of ASL and English (Valli & Lucas, 1995; Fromkin, 1992; Lucas, 1986; Stokoe, Casterline, & Croneberg, 1965). Sociologists have begun to describe many deaf people as members of a unique cultural minority (Turner, 1994; Padden & Humphries, 1988); and interpreting and other support services are being investigated and challenged for their role in the successful inclusion of students who are deaf and hard of hearing (Seal, 1998; Winston, 1995; Patrie, 1994). Within the last 20 years, the field of interpreter education has expanded to include first- and second-language acquisition research, bicultural and bilingual studies, interpreter theory, and specialized interpreting. Interpreters and educators have become increasingly aware of the complexities of the interpreting process (Cokely, 1992), and employers now face higher levels of accountability for the qualifications of the interpreters that they hire (Seal, 1998).

The legal requirement of school districts to meet the classroom access needs of students who are deaf and hard of hearing has led to much closer scrutiny of the support services provided in mainstream settings (DuBow, 1992; Tousignant, 1988). In general, the field of interpreter education has responded by placing greater emphasis on better prepared interpreters (Patrie, 1994). Though school districts are required by law to meet the classroom access needs of the deaf and hard of hearing student population, few educational interpreters have any formal training for working in educational settings with deaf children. Interpreter education programs are not traditionally oriented to formally prepare educational interpreters (Hurwitz, 1991). Clearly, then, since the pre-service programs have not been graduating a sufficient number of educational interpreters, in-service programs will have to fill this void for those who are now employed (Jones, 1994).

Without quality support services, the concept of integration into the "least restrictive environment" falls short of its intended goal (DuBow et al. 1982). For the student who is deaf, these services often include the provision of an educational interpreter who has a critically important function in the student's education (Davila,

1989). The educational interpreter must be skilled not only in sign communication, but also in the application of teacher/aide techniques and principles proven effective with students who are deaf and hard of hearing.

THE NEED FOR QUALIFIED EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETERS

In this section, the need for sufficient numbers of qualified educational interpreters in Oregon, the Pacific Northwest, and throughout the country, will be addressed.

THE NEED FOR RURAL AND REMOTE INTERPRETER EDUCATION

In the Oregon Department of Education's State Plan, an annual survey is conducted to assess the level of personnel support required to meet special education staffing needs in the public schools (Comprehensive System of Personnel Development—CSPD). These data are collected with the assistance of the Oregon Cooperative Personnel Planning Council (CPPC), which is made up of department heads from each of the Oregon teacher education programs that are engaged in the preparation of professionals to serve students who have special needs. The 1993-94 results of that survey demonstrated that there was a need for thirteen additional classroom interpreters, not including those who might be needed for those who are 0-5 years of age.

To determine the demand for educational interpreters in Oregon for the years of 1995-1996 through 1997-1998, a special personnel needs study was conducted in September 1994 by the staff of the Regional Resource Center on Deafness (RRCD) at Western Oregon University (Western). A questionnaire was sent to the directors of six Oregon Regional Programs serving deaf and hard of hearing children, inquiring as to their program's need for trained educational interpreters. All coordinators responded. The total number of interpreter vacancies that was anticipated for 1995-1996 was 22, for 1996-1997, 20, and for 1997-1998, 23. The total number of interpreters employed in Oregon at the time of this survey was 123, of which only 15 held any recognized certification.

The supervisor of state supported educational programs for students who are deaf and hard of hearing indicated that a pool of 125 interpreters will be necessary to meet statewide needs and that over 25% of Oregon's current educational interpreter

positions are in rural programs. Comments from Alaska, Idaho, and Washmgton state department of education administrators and Oregon Regional Program administrators attested to the need for educational interpreters in rural areas in their respective states, especially in rural and remote areas.

Despite effective interpreter education efforts, rural special education directors have been unable to attract sufficient numbers of graduates to fill positions outside of the Northwest's major cities. These administrators reported that for some deaf students who use sign language as their primary means of communication, not even the services of a marginally qualified interpreter are available. The need for qualified educational interpreters is not unique to the rural and remote areas of the Northwest, but is common throughout the United States (Jones, 1994).

THE NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT IN THE QUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETING PERSONNEL

Educational interpreters face far different demands from those faced by interpreters working with deaf adults who usually do not require services beyond interpreting itself (Moores, 1984). The National Task Force on Educational Interpreting reported that:

> . . . interpreters at the elementary and secondary level must possess knowledge and skills in tutoring school subjects, providing general classroom assistance, conducting sign language instruction for groups of students and school staff members, and in educational planning. (Stuckless et al. 1989)

Also, educational interpreters provide a vehicle for hearing and deaf students to interact (Solow, 1981). Unlike the "interpreter-as-machine" model that marked the early years of educational interpreting, today's educational interpreters function as bilingual and bicultural mediators (Witter-Merithew, 1986) who foster the academic, personal-social, and communication development of deaf and hard of hearing students (Tousignant, 1988). Under the supervision of the classroom teacher, they have a significant role in communication facilitation, evaluation, planning, reporting, tutoring, material adaptation, record keeping, parent involvement, and in-service training of some school personnel (Brazeau, 1991). The educational interpreter provides an important language

model for the deaf student and is expected to provide services in a wide variety of content areas within the school's overall curriculum (Gustason and Sanderson, 1993).

The President's Commission on Education of the Deaf described classroom interpreting as follows:

> . . . the most stress-inducing setting after legal and voice interpreting, although classroom interpreting could include elements of voice. An educational interpreter must not only be skilled in the general competencies of most interpreting situations (i.e., fluency in at least two languages, appreciation of two different cultures, ability to concentrate for long periods of time, and demonstration of good judgment), but must also consider the varying cognitive and linguistic development levels of the students; the differing sign and oral systems used for interpreting; the appropriateness of performing other duties; an awareness of the shifting of responsibility along the age continuum between student and interpreter; and the need to work cooperatively with teachers, administration, parents, and students. (Bowe, 1988)

Dr. I. King Jordan, President, Gallaudet University, stated in his opening address to the first national conference on educational interpreting: "I believe that there is no issue in our field at this time that is more important than educational interpreting. There must be a sufficient availability of high quality interpreters for the education of this nation's children." (Jordan, 1991)

THE EMERGENCE OF A MODEL FOR EDUCATING RURAL AND REMOTE EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETERS

The Summer Interpreter Education Program (SIEP) concept represents the culmination of planning with the Oregon Department of Education (ODE) and Regional Program officials who initiated a direct request to Western to develop an effective strategy for improving the quantity and quality of interpreters in rural and remote settings.

Western has served, since 1960, as the primary center in the Northwest for the preparation of qualified professionals who serve people who are deaf and hard of hearing. The Regional Resource Center on Deafness, a section of the Division of Special Education and Rehabilitation, offers master's degree programs that prepare teachers

and counselors to work with deaf and hard of hearing populations; a four year Bachelor of Science degree program in American Sign Language / English Interpretation; and a four-week institute, which is offered twice yearly for rehabilitation professionals, orienting them to work with deaf and hard of hearing populations. The RRCD also houses the Northwest Outreach Center (for deaf and hard of hearing post-secondary students) and the Rehabilitation Services Administration **(RSA)** Region X Interpreter Education Center. Finally, Teaching Research at Western conducts numerous studies related to the education and rehabilitation needs of disabled youth, and has conducted several investigations into the transition problems faced by deaf and hard of hearing young adults (Bullis, Bull, Johnson & Peters, 1994).

For the purpose of providing uniform, high-quality support services to Oregon's mainstreamed students with disabilities, the state is divided into regional programs. Early in 1992, the directors of these Regional Programs and the ODE official responsible for statewide programming for students who are deaf and hard of hearing met with the Western interpreter education staff. The purpose of that meeting was to discuss causes and potential solutions to the state's severe shortage of educational sign language interpreters in rural and remote areas. They determined that shortages are most acute in population centers of fewer than 50,000 where no certificate or degree interpreter education programs exist. In those areas, individuals are being hired to attempt the interpreting task often possessing sign communication skills gained from only one or two sign language classes, and often with no formal instruction on theories, practice, or professional aspects of interpretation. Further, they are often unable to benefit from workshops on the science and art of interpretation as they have not fully mastered basic sign language skills.

Clearly, the lack of high quality sign language classes offered in these areas compounds the problem for school districts. Local individuals who might have the potential for this field are frustrated by the lack of preparatory classes in their community, which would qualify them for in-service or certificate-level interpreter education.

An approach for alleviating the shortage of rural and remote educational interpreters was agreed upon. This approach includes the following:

- professional seminars for rural and remote sign language instructors;
- summer college courses for rural, entry-level interpreters;

- selection of school district and Regional Program lead interpreters to be prepared as Interpreter Resource Specialists / Mentors.

The program that was developed was titled the Summer Interpreter Education Program.

Given that the shortage of qualified, educational interpreters in rural and remote areas is not unique to Oregon, it was further agreed that any refined program of rural training delivery could serve as a model to be replicated on the national level.

RECRUITING RURAL AND REMOTE PARTICIPANTS FOR THE SIEP

Identification of rural and remote educational interpreters is not an easy task. Many of these positions carry other job titles, such as aide or sign language assistant. In an attempt to reach as many as possible of the individuals worlung in the capacity of educational interpreter, professionally designed and printed brochures were mailed to a comprehensive, computerized list of education and related human service organizations to insure complete program publicity throughout Alaska, Idaho, Oregon and Washington. **A** letter accompanying a supply of brochures requests that announcements of the availability of this program be placed in newsletters and training bulletins of the respective organizations and that brochures be distributed. The list of program information recipients is exhaustive, but a sample includes the following:

- all special education directors in Alaska, Idaho, Oregon and Washington;
- departments of education and health in each state;
- governor's commission on employment of the handicapped in each state;
- all regional and local education programs for the deaf (K-12);
- post-secondary education and training programs;
- residential schools for the deaf;
- chapters of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, the National Association of the Deaf, and the Alexander Graham Bell Association;
- affirmative action offices in each state;
- state commissions for deaf and hard of hearing;
- sign language classes offered throughout Alaska, Idaho, Oregon and Washington; and
- internet bulletin boards.

Advertisements describing the program were also placed in selected professional journals, as well (e.g., American Annals of the Deaf, Exceptional Children, NAD Broadcaster, state RID and NAD newsletters).

CURRICULUM AND EXPECTED PARTICIPANT COMPETENCIES

The SIEP curriculum incorporates the research of a number of interpreter education program curricula, including that of Gallaudet University, the National Technical Institute for the Deaf (NTID), and California State University, Northridge (CSUN). Developers of the curriculum also relied upon the Report of the National Task Force on Educational Interpreting (Stuckless et al., 1989), the Oregon Department of Education Report (Brazeau, 1991), the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT)/Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (IUD) "Endorsement of Interpreter Preparation Programs" (1990), the CED/RID "Model Standards for Certification of Educational Interpreters" (Gustason and Sanderson, 1993), the CIT Educational Standards (Winston, 1996), and current research on curriculum design and interpreter education curricula (Baker-Shenk, 1990; Resnick & Hoza, 1990; Brooke, 1988).

The SIEP curriculum was originally designed by Western's Coordinator of Interpreter Education, Sandra Gish, who, through the CIT Board of Directors, contributed to the CED/RID " Model Standards for Certification of Educational Interpreters" (Gustason & Sanderson, 1991) and to the CIT/RID "Endorsement of Interpreter Preparation Programs." The curriculum has been further developed and revised by the SIEP coordinator and faculty.

ASL INSTRUCTION CLASSES: CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION

Students applying to any interpreter education activity must demonstrate communication abilities in both spoken English and American Sign Language. For students and working interpreters in rural and remote areas, accessibility to high quality ASL instruction remains a critical issue. Without a base of knowledge in American Sign Language, students cannot qualify for the initial entry into the interpreter education system, and deaf and hard of hearing students in rural areas remain chronically underserved.

Working with current ASL instructors, interpreters, and members of the Deaf community, program staff identified individuals who teach ASL or who have expressed

an interest and a commitment to providing ASL instruction in their regions. These working instructors and potential instructors have completed coursework at Western during the summer program and returned to their respective regions to offer classes, workshops, and individual instruction in American Sign Language to potential interpreting students. This instruction has prepared students for entry into the interpreter education system and has broadened the pool of qualified applicants to provide interpreting services.

In Year One, participants in the ASL instruction class are introduced to the grammatical features of ASL and the ways in which language and culture interact. Year Two focuses on current approaches to second language instruction and on the models, methods, and curriculum available for teaching American Sign Language. Year Three concentrates on language proficiency, assessment and diagnostic strategies, and guides students toward identifying the various means by which ASL students can improve their language skills. An outline of years one, two, and three of the ASL instruction coursework follows. (For detailed syllabi, see the Appendix.)

YEAR ONE

Title	Credit	Brief Description
Teaching ASL I: Linguistics	2	Introduces students to the linguistic features of American Sign Language as a base for second language instruction. Students study ASL on the levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse. Includes a comparison of visual-gestural and vocal-auditory languages and the implications for teaching ASL to hearing students.

YEAR TWO

Teaching ASL II: Second Language Instruction	2	Focuses on theories of second language acquisition, the relationshp of language to culture, strategies for second language instruction, and current approaches to ASL teaching. Students analyze current curriculum and develop

		teaching strategies based upon a study of several language teaching methodologies.

YEAR THREE

Teaching ASL III: Second Language Assessment	2	Focuses on the functions of assessment in language learning and use and factors involved in designing assessment instruments, current approaches to language assessment, available instruments for the assessment of ASL skills, and diagnostic strategies designed to guide students toward more effective language learning.

Upon completion of coursework, ASL instructors are expected to:

1) describe ASL in terms of phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, and discourse;
2) describe non-manual grammatical markers in ASL;
3) identify the characteristics of each register in ASL;
4) identify the major theoretical approaches to teaching second languages;
5) identify current approaches to teadung ASL and their relationshp to second language learning theory;
6) discuss language interference, language transfer, and interlanguage as they relate to teaching ASL;
7) discuss the relationship of language to culture;
8) describe how ASL reflects and reveals American Deaf Culture;
9) describe how to incorporate cultural information into ASL instruction;
10) identify texts, newsletters, articles, videotape, and other materials that can contribute to students' continuing education; and
11) prepare curricula, instructional materials, and activities for teaching ASL.

Each year twelve to fifteen individuals completing the ASL instruction coursework possess a basic understanding of the techniques and resources necessary to teach ASL courses effectively in their local communities. As local students complete sign language classes in their communities, more individuals become eligible to enter the interpreter education system, ultimately becoming eligible for employment by the local school district.

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETING CLASSES: CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION

The SIEP is designed especially for rural students who have limited access to entry-level interpreter education and for working interpreters who lack current interpreter knowledge, theory, and skill. Through classes that recruit interpreters into the education process, the SIEP provides advanced language study, beginning interpreter education coursework, and theoretical information unavailable in rural settings and work environments. The SIEP was designed as an entry point to interpreter education. In general, the goal of the SIEP is to produce individuals who

1) recognize the continuum of educational opportunities available to interpreting students;
2) work collectively with fellow students and colleagues;
3) learn independently;
4) appreciate the diversity that exists in American culture;
5) recognize the purpose of education;
6) draw appropriately from the data in the various areas of human learning;
7) utilize appropriate media to enhance learning possibilities; and
8) designate learning and service delivery goals that are meaningful and realistic.

Today's educational interpreters must be prepared to meet the needs of a variety of consumers: those who were born within a Deaf family structure and who have acquired American Sign Language as a first language; those who have experienced progressive hearing loss, are late-deafened, or who are hard of hearing; and those who were born deaf within a hearing family structure and who communicate primarily through a form of visual English, either spoken or signed. Today's educational interpreters work in a variety of educational environments, covering the entire life span, from preschools, elementary, and secondary programs to vocational and academic post-secondary settings and beyond. Interpreters play a vital role in the ways in which deaf children and adults interface with basic education, job transition programs, and adult learning.

The educational interpreting coursework was designed taking into consideration the variety of consumers with whom educational interpreters work and environments in which they work. The educational interpreting course content incorporates the following instructional components: fluency in American Sign Language and spoken

English; linguistic analysis of American Sign Language and spoken English; the role of Deaf history, Deaf culture, and cultural diversity in American society; the theory and process of interpreting; sociolinguistic aspects of interpretation; management of the interpreting process; consecutive and simultaneous interpretation; the ethical implications of interpreting and transliterating; language acquisition, learning, and assessment as they apply to deaf and hard of hearing children; the roles and functions of educational interpreters and transliterators; discourse norms for discussing specific content areas that occur in educational settings; educational collaboration; and interpreting in educational settings.

Coursework is distributed over two consecutive summers of two, three-week sessions. Students may complete two, three-week sessions per summer and complete all coursework within the two-summer design, or they may extend their learning schedule over several summers. The first session of Year One focuses on American Sign Language fluency, the acquisition of bicultural sensitivity, and an understanding of the process and profession of interpreting. The second session introduces students to a comparative/contrastive study of ASL and English, and students begin to study the production aspects of interpreting through the performance of consecutive interpretations. Year Two continues to reinforce language development, while theory coursework focuses on ethical and professional decision making in educational settings. Students begin to produce simultaneous interpretations with both recorded material and live speakers. Contact with professional interpreters, deaf consumers, and deaf and hard of hearing children is included in the coursework.

Students who complete the full series of courses will have earned 24 credits in language development and interpreter education. This number corresponds with the number of credits that Western's B.S. degree in interpreting recognizes at the Freshman and Sophomore levels. Students whose long-term goal is higher education in the field of interpreting may apply and have applied these credits toward an Associate's or a Bachelor's degree program. Students may complete Freshman and Sophomore liberal arts requirements at a regional institution during the academic year while attending Western's summer program. As a result, at the end of two years, those students would be eligible to continue their degree studies at the Junior and Senior levels as full- or part-time students in a Bachelor's degree program. The coursework for years one and two for educational interpreters is outlined below. (For detailed syllabi, see the Appendix.)

YEAR ONE

Session I (First 3 Weeks)

Title	Credit	Brief Description
ASL Enhancement for Experienced Signers	**3**	Focuses on receptive and expressive development in the use of ASL, including sentence types, advanced vocabulary, grammatical structures, non-manual grammatical markers, conversational behaviors, and cultural appropriateness.
Introduction to the Process of Interpreting	**3**	Introduces students to the profession and the process of interpreting, including historical and contemporary perspectives of interpreting, specialized interpreting techruques, including oral and cued speech transliterating, deaf-blind interpreting, and bilingual/ bicultural interpreting and strateges to accurately receive, analyze, understand, compose, and produce interpreted messages.

Session II (Second 3 Weeks)

Interpreting Practice I	**3**	Introduces students to the production aspects of interpretation. Students analyze texts linguistically and functionally, focusing on register, style, affect, and meaning. Introduces pre-interpreting exercises, group translations of ASL and English texts and consecutively-interpreted dialogues and monologues. Students are introduced to team interpreting.
Introduction to Comparative Linguistics	**3**	Students will use a comparative / contrastive approach to the study of English and ASL, and will focus on grammatically-acceptable ASL productions. Students will be introduced to the hguistic and culturally-based communication issues that influence the interpreting process.

YEAR TWO

Session I (First 3 Weeks)

ASL Enhancement for Fluent Signers	**3**	Focuses on the development of advanced ASL communication slulls, including complex sentence types, inflection, and registers. The emphasis is on grammatical sophistication and production fluency. Includes cultural values and beliefs that impact communication and appropriate bilingual/bicultural interaction.
Introduction to the Professional Aspects of Interpreting	**3**	Introduces students to ethics and professional practices of interpreting and transliterating, group theory, legal aspects, problem solving, conflict resolution, and educational theory, child placement procedure, and a collaborative approach to service delivery in educational settings.

Session I I (Second 3 Weeks)

Introduction to Discourse Analysis	*3*	Focuses on the specialized discourse and vocabulary of specific content areas that appear in educational settings, including mathematics, science and computers. Includes sociolinguistic factors that influence communication, strateges for analyzing discourse and the discourse varieties of ethnic minorities.
Interpreting Practice II	**3**	Concentrates on production aspects of spontaneous interpreting. Students incorporate hguistic and functional analyses into consecutive and simultaneous interpretations. Students work with recorded material and with guest speakers. Emphasis is on accuracy and fluency. Students are introduced to relay interpreting and oral transliterating.

Upon completion of coursework in American Sign Language, Deaf Culture and Bilingual / Bicultural Communication, students are expected to

1) demonstrate receptive and expressive skills in the use of American Sign Language (ASL) and English;
2) discuss the ways in which current research reveals information regarding ASL and English (spoken and signed) in contact;

3) compare and contrast ASL and English in respect to phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, and discourse;
4) discuss language acquisition and language learning as it relates to deaf children, deaf adults, and interpreters;
5) discuss the relationship between d t u r e and language;
6) describe the values, traditions and norms of the Deaf community;
7) discuss the relationships between deaf and hearing people in a variety of contexts; and
8) demonstrate appropriate cultural behavior as hearing, third culture participants.

Upon completion of coursework in Interpreting, students are expected to

1) describe the interpreting process;
2) discuss the interpreting process in relationship to their own strengths and weaknesses as interpreters;
3) discuss the impact of languages, cultures, communication styles, register, affect, and metanotative qualities on the interpretmg process;
4) identify current process management and information management strategies;
5) demonstrate appropriate process management and information management strategies as part of the interpreting process; and
6) consecutively and simultaneously interpret grammatically-acceptable and message-equivalent communications between deaf and hearing people.

Upon completion of coursework in Educational Interpreting, students are expected to

1) describe the languages and communication systems used in educational settings;
2) discuss the use of American Sign Language by deaf students;
3) discuss the rationale for the selection of various Manually Coded English system with deaf students;
4) discuss Bilingual/Bicultural education strategies and their application in the education of deaf students;

5) define the role of each member of the educational service delivery team;
6) describe the role of the educational interpreter as a member of the service delivery team;
7) describe the IEP process and the educational interpreter's role in that process;
8) discuss the critical issues surrounding the creation of technical signs for educational purposes;
9) discuss ethical issues that relate to educational interpreting;
10) consecutively and simultaneously interpret educational content; and
11) incorporate appropriate specialized vocabulary and discourse norms for specific content areas.

Upon completion of coursework in Professional Aspects, students are expected to

1) identify and define terms related to the interpreting profession;
2) discuss the history, growth, and change in the field of interpreting;
3) describe the skills and steps required for professional certification;
4) discuss the variety of settings in which interpreters operate and the requirements and skills necessary in each;
5) assess specific interpreting assignments and explain situation-specific factors which must be taken into consideration before, during, and after the assignment;
6) demonstrate health-conscious professional practices, including techniques for the prevention of repetitive motion injuries;
7) describe and discuss personal, societal and professional values and the ways in which they are expressed through personal and professional ethics;
8) define and discuss personal, societal, political and professional issues as they relate to professional decision making;
9) demonstrate an understanding of laws and institutional policies as they relate to interpreters; and
10) demonstrate effective group process, ethical decision-making, and professional problem-solving slulls.

Each year the SIEP program has upgraded the knowledge and slulls of approximately 40 interpreters providing services in educational settings, specifically in rural areas, thereby improving the quality of services that these interpreters provide. The number of participants for the sessions targeting educational interpreters has been approximately 30 per 3-week session. Of highest selection priority has been workmg, under-trained interpreters representing rural and remote areas of the Pacific Northwest. Upon completion of the summer coursework, these beginning interpreters have embarked upon a professional development path that not only improves their performance in the classroom but also qualifies them to continue their interpreter education through formal coursework and in-service training.

LEAD INTERPRETER/MENTOR CLASSES: CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION

Students who have attended the SIEP interpreting classes range in experience from those who have had no formal coursework or interpreting experience, through those who have interpreting experience, but no formal training, to those whose training did not include current theories and knowledge. Summer intensive coursework can guide these students toward new insights and slull in the interpreting process, but students will continue to need support, guidance, and further education throughout the school year. This aspect of the overall program was designed to prepare professional interpreters to function as resource specialists and mentors to the interpreters and interpreting students in their region. Courses are constructed so that students may gain state-of-the-art information about interpretation, transliteration, language use, and assessment.

Most of the Regional Programs have identified a staff member to serve as a lead interpreter. These mentors complete their coursework at Western during the summer program and return to their regions to offer workshops, individual instruction, interpreting performance evaluation, and professional leadership. They can facilitate access to aid utilization of SIEP and other available resources by recommending texts, articles, videotapes and audio tapes that can enhance interpreters' continuing education.

Year One focuses on the process of interpretation and guides students toward developing materials that are applicable in their ongoing work with interpreters and interpreting students. Year Two focuses on language assessment and interpreting

performance evaluation; students will develop or adapt evaluation materials to meet the assessment and diagnostic needs of their region. In Year Three, students analyze ASL, Signed English, and Bilingual/Bicultural models of interpretation. Of prime importance during the third year of study is the use of current research to guide the professional interpretation decisions that are necessary for effective service delivery. The coursework for years one, two, and three are outlined below. (For detailed syllabi, see the Appendix.)

YEAR ONE

Title	Credit	Brief Description
Preparation for Mentorship I	2	Prepares experienced interpreters with skills and knowledge to become mentors and resources for less experienced or entry-level interpreters. Focuses on theoretical models of mentorship and interpretation; materials available for skill and knowledge upgrading, and the tasks of interpretation. Students will explore the implications of language acquisition/learning on teaching, tutoring and modeling for working interpreters and interpreting students.

YEAR TWO

Preparation for Mentorship II	2	Prepares experienced interpreters with skills and knowledge to become mentors and resources for less experienced or entry-level interpreters. This course focuses on the phlosophy and methodology of various assessment and evaluation strategies that can be applied to interpretation. Mentors will encourage independent interpreters to participate in on-going process assessment and monitoring of their own interpreting process and product on a daily basis. Students examine the functions of language and interpreting assessment, evaluate sample assessment tools, and develop diagnostic instruments that can be used with working interpreters and interpreting students.

YEAR THREE

Preparation for Mentorship III	2	Traces the history of ASL and English use in educational settings. Investigates the design of Signed English systems, their theoretical and philosophical roots, their use with deaf duldren, and materials for slull upgrading. Uses current research to develop theoretically-based decision-making strategies for the use of ASL and Signed English with deaf and hard of hearing students.

Upon completion of coursework lead interpreters are expected to

1) discuss language, knowledge and skill requisites for interpreters and interpreting students;
2) describe theoretical models of interpretation for spoken and signed languages;
3) discuss the tasks of interpretation, including perception, memory, message analysis, visualization, composition, and production;
4) discuss contextual factors which affect the interpreting process;
5) discuss the philosophy and methodology of various interpretation assessment/evaluation strategies;
6) discuss current research involving signed languages, spoken languages, and interpretation;
7) discuss the ways in which ASL and English come in contact and the implications for Manually Coded English communication systems;
8) identify teadung strategies appropriate for teahg skills, theory and knowledge in interpreter education;
9) identify texts, newsletters, articles, media, and other materials that can contribute to interpreters' continuing education; and
10) prepare curricula, instructional materials and activities for interpreter education workshops, seminars, individual instruction, and evaluation.

Most of the Regional Programs in Oregon designate a lead interpreter who is responsible for the scheduling and supervision of interpreters throughout their respective regions. Lead interpreters/mentors from Alaska, Idaho, and Washgton

were also selected to participate in the program. Each year, twelve to fifteen of these individuals attended training at Western to develop mentoring skills. After completing their training, these lead interpreters function as resource specialists in their respective regions, advocating for and assisting in the professional development of the other staff interpreters. Each lead interpreter has been trained in the diagnosis and assessment of interpreting competencies and was exposed to the most current methods and materials for professional skill development available, including the media materials available on loan through the Interpreter Education Center at Western and the availability of workshops supported by the IEC. Resource specialists may also be qualified to teach basic, local courses in addition to providing individualized mentoring.

PROGRAM **EVALUATION**

The evaluation plan provides the program director and coordinator with an assessment of the effectiveness of a full range of program activities. These activities relate to program objectives and include:

a) the effectiveness of program publicity in reaching potential applicants;
b) the number of students completing training from rural and remote areas;
c) the quality of instruction, the curriculum, and the overall educational program as perceived by students;
d) the level at which students are acquiring competencies;
e) the number of students who continue interpreter education;
f) the number of students who are able to provide service;
g) the degree to which participants are performing their jobs satisfactorily; and
h) the degree of impact upon related programs and services.

Several evaluation instruments are used and are felt to be objective and, to the degree possible, produce quantifiable data. The SIEP Evaluation assesses overall program effectiveness, as well as specific course and faculty effectiveness. All data are collected, organized according to respective program objectives, and compiled in annual, formal progress reports. The teaching performance of all Westem faculty is evaluated by students using the Student Instructional Report, which is administered by Western's Provost's Office. Results of student perceptions of faculty teaching

performance are reviewed by the Division Chair with each faculty member to identify areas of teaching strengths and areas that need improvement. The Division of Extended and Summer Studies provides an evaluation for each course. The results of this questionnaire are summarized and returned to each faculty member. Finally, for those students receiving Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf Associate Continuing Education Tracking or Certification Maintenance Program continuing education credits, an evaluation is provided that rates the activity and the instructor.

The quality of the SIEP administration, faculty, and curriculum has been consistently rated very highly by participants. The level at which participants acquire competencies varies. Those who arrived with the fewest competencies reported and demonstrated the most improvement. Administrators from the most rural and remote areas reported that participants perform better upon completion of coursework in the SIEP.

A cooperative relationshp between the interpreter education programs at Western and educational programs for deaf students in the state has been maintained by regularly reporting to the Regional Program directors, who meet monthly in Salem, Oregon, and Special Education Directors in Alaska, Idaho, and Washington. This group has served as the advisory committee to the SIEP program. This committee has reviewed program evaluation data and discussed suggested program revisions.

FUTURE OF THE SIEP

Having reviewed traditional and non-traditional methods of distance delivery for educational programs, a new SIEP concept is underway and will commence in the winter of 1999. The new SIEP will incorporate several instructional delivery methods, including videotaped course delivery called either Instant Replay or Home Run, on-line computer courses, and face-to-face courses. Instant Replay is a videotape-based system for delivering regularly scheduled courses to specific viewing sites, and Home Run is used for viewing a videotaped course at one's home when a viewing site is not available.

In the winter of 1999, the Introduction to the Process of Interpreting will be offered through Instant Replay and Home Run, and the Introduction to the Professional Aspects of Interpreting will be offered on-line. During the summer of 1999, there will be a two-track series of hands-on courses offered on campus at Western. The first track will

include ASL Enhancement for Experienced Signers, Introduction to Interpreting Practice I, and Introduction to Comparative Linguistics. The second track will include ASL Enhancement for Fluent Signers, Introduction to Interpreting Practice II, and Introduction to Discourse Analysis. The SIEP will no longer be restricted to participants from the Pacific Northwest. Instead, recruitment efforts will be nationwide.

CONCLUSION

No one interpreter can provide quality interpreting services for all consumers, and no short-term program can prepare an interpreter to enter the field completely qualified for full-range interpreter service delivery. Nevertheless, SIEP students learn to respond professionally to the wide range of consumer needs: to provide direct interpreting services, to acquire additional knowledge and skills as they grow in their ability to provide professional service, and to serve as a resource for the recommendation of additional interpreting services. The program was constructed so that underqualified interpreters can add to their existing language and interpreting shlls and to their knowledge of interpretation theory and process.

Even though pre-service interpreter education efforts have been effective, attracting sufficient numbers of qualified educational interpreters remains a challenge for rural and remote school districts. Programs like the SIEP can help to alleviate the problem by providing in-service training and support to those individuals already working as educational interpreters. We hope that by sharing the SIEP model similar programs can be implemented in other parts of the country facing similar challenges. The SIEP faculty and staff recognize that interpreters of various educational backgrounds and skills can make significant contributions to the service delivery team, and that professional interpreter development is a lifelong process. Programs like the SIEP can provide a solid foundation for the lifelong learning process necessary for a successful professional career for educational interpreters.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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We would also like to acknowledge the efforts, sacrifices, and achievements of all of the rural and remote ASL instructors, educational interpreters, and lead interpreters/mentors who have participated in the SIEP from 1993 to the present.

Finally, we would like to thank and acknowledge the work of Becky Graber, without whom the SIEP would not have been possible.

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APPENDIX

Summer Interpreter Education Program Syllabi

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number **and** Title
SpEd 104: ASL Enhancement for Experienced Signers (3 credits)

Text
None.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This intensive ASL course for working interpreters focuses on receptive and expressive development in the use of ASL, including sentence types, advanced vocabulary, grammatical structures, non-manual grammatical markers, conversational behaviors, and cultural appropriateness.

Course Objectives
Students will:

- demonstrate receptive comprehension of ASL syntax and facial grammar;
- demonstrate expressive use of ASL syntax and facial grammar;
- demonstrate expressive use of ASL linguistic features;
- describe and discuss aspects of Deaf culture and the historical and current ways in which hearing people interact with members of the Deaf Community.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
The student will

1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) successfully complete all written/videotaped course assignments;
3) successfully complete receptive/expressive skills-based examinations.

Reference List

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

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WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 105: ASL Enhancement for Fluent Signers (3 credits)

Text
None.

Prerequisite
By appointment only.

Course Description
This intensive ASL course for working interpreters focuses on the development of advanced ASL communication skills, including complex sentence types, inflection, and registers. The emphasis is on grammatical sophistication and production fluency. The course includes cultural values and beliefs that impact communication and appropriate bilingual/bicultural interaction.

Course Objectives
Students will
- demonstrate appropriate expressive and receptive skills in ASL within the context of a story or language activity;
- demonstrate a working knowledge of specific ASL mouth movements and non-manual behavior, and apply them appropriately when communicating in ASL or with the context of a story or language activity;
- demonstrate appropriate ASL syntax over a variety of topics, conversations, and discourse styles;
- demonstrate comprehension of specific ASL syntax over a variety of topics, conversations, and discourse styles;
- describe ways in which signers construct meaning and messages in ASL.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
The student will
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) successfully complete all written and videotaped course assignments;
3) successfully complete receptive/expressive skills-based examinations;
4) successfully complete a final project.

Reference List

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. 1980). American Sign Lanmage: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

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WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd **206:** Introduction to the Process of Interpreting **(3** credits)

Texts
Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L.S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational intemreter skill development. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course introduces students to the profession and the process of interpreting. The course includes historical and contemporary perspectives of interpreting and bilingual/bicultural interpreting and strategies to accurately receive, analyze, understand, compose and produce interpreted messages.

Course Objectives
The students will:
- identify and define terms related to the field of interpreting;
- describe a brief history of foreign language and sign language interpreting;
- identify the responsibilities and skills of the professional interpreter;
- describe interpreting contexts;
- describe factors that influence communication;
- describe bilingual and bicultural influences on communication and interpretation;
- describe ways in which speakers construct meaning and messages;
- describe current theories in the process of interpreting;
- define the tasks of interpreting and the learning processes involved in interpreting;
- demonstrate appropriate analysis and process management skills.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
The students will
1) attend class and participate in class discussion and activities;
2) complete all out-of-class readings and assignments;
3) complete one article review from a journal related to the field of interpreting;
4) complete a reaction paper based upon an interpreter observation;
5) complete a written assessment of an interpreting assignment that describes the linguistic, social, and environmental considerations that will influence the interpreter's performance.

Reference List

Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., & Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill development. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Cokely, D. (1992). Interpretation: A sociolinguistic model. Burtonsville, MD: Linstok Press.

Frishberg, N. (1990). Interpretinp: An introduction. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Gish, S. (1990). An historical perspective of interpreting, ethics and decision making for interpreters in health care settings. Minneapolis, MN: The College of St. Catherine. **pp.** 85-95, 101-102.

Seleskovitch, D. (1978). Interpreting; for international conferences. Washington, DC: Pen and Booth.

Solow, S. N. (1981). Sign language interpreting: A basic resource book. Silver Spring, MD: NAD Publications.

WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd **207** Introduction to the Professional Aspects of Interpreting **(3** credits)

Text
Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill develoument. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course introduces students to ethics and professional practices of interpreting, group theory, legal aspects, problem solving, conflict resolution, and educational theory, child placement procedure, and a collaborative approach to service delivery in educational settings.

Course Objectives
Students will
- define and discuss cultural, professional and personal values;
- describe and discuss professional and personal ethics;
- identify the professional values contained within the RID Code of Ethics;
- define and discuss social issues, ethical issues, values systems and values change as they relate to professional decision making;
- demonstrate an understanding of laws and institutional policies as they relate to professional decision making;
- demonstrate effective group process, professional decision making and problem-solving strategies;
- describe major laws and policies which impact deaf education and the use of interpreters in this setting;
- describe the multiple roles assumed by educational interpreters and explain these roles and the challenges they present;
- discuss appropriate options for dealing with potential ethical dilemmas which may occu while interpreting.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
Students will
1) attend class and participate in class discussion and activities;
2) write a paper describing the ways current laws affect the IEP process, deaf and hard of hearing student placement and educational objectives, and the ways interpreters work collaboratively with other members of a multi-disciplinary educational team;

3) complete a written assignment describing an effective problem-solving strategy for solving a professional conflict or dilemma and the ways in which personal, societal and professional ethics influence interpreters' decisions.

Reference List

Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill develoument. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Covey, S. (1989). The Seven habits of highly effective people. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Frishberg, N. (1990). Interpreting: An introduction. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Gish, S. (1990).An historical perspective of interpreting, ethics and decision making for interpreters in health care settings. Minneapolis, MN: The College of St. Catherine. pp. 85-95,101-102.

Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (1998). RID Views. Vol. 15, No. 2. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (1997). RID Views. Vol. 14, No. 3. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (1996). RID Views. Vol. 13, No. 3. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (1995). RID Views. Vol. 12, No. 3. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (1994). RID Views. Vol. 11, No. 2. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Seal, B. C. (1998). Best uractices in educational interpreting. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Solow, S. N. (1981). Sign language interpreting: A basic resource book. Silver Spring, MD: NAD Publications.

WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 221: Interpreting Practice I (3 credits)

Text
Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill development. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course introduces students to the production aspects of interpretation. Students analyze texts linguistically and functionally, focusing on register, style, affect and meaning. Introduces pre-interpreting exercises, group translations of ASL and English texts, and consecutively-interpreted dialogues and monologues. Students are introduced to team interpreting.

Course Objectives
Students will
- incorporate linguistic analyses into consecutive interpretations;
- incorporate functional analyses into consecutive interpretations;
- incorporate appropriate techniques for working with consumers in negotiating the interpreting process;
- participate in error analysis activities;
- describe and demonstrate team interpreting techruques;
- consecutively interpret spontaneous monologues, dialogues, interviews and group discussions.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
Students will
1) attend class and participate in class discussions and activities;
2) demonstrate the incorporation of linguistic and functional analyses into consecutive interpretations;
3) demonstrate appropriate team interpreting techniques;
4) demonstrate interpreting techruques appropriate to monologues, dialogues, interviews and group discussions.

Reference List

Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter slull develoument. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Cokely, D. (1992). Intemretation: **A** sociolinpuistic model. Burtonsville, MD: Linstok Press.

Frishberg, N. (1990). Interpreting: An introduction. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

McIntire, M. L. (1987). New dimensions in interpreter education: Curriculum and instruction. Proceedines of the sixth national convention. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Seleskovitch, D. (1978). Interpreting for international conferences. Washgton, DC: Pen and Booth.

Solow, S. N. (1981). Sign language interpreting: **A** basic resource book. Silver Spring, MD: NAD Publications.

WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 222: Interpreting Practice II (3 credits)

Texts
Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill development. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Seal, B. C. (1998). Best uractices in educational interpreting. Needham Heights, MA: **Allyn** and Bacon.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course concentrates on production aspects of spontaneous interpreting. Students incorporate linguistic and functional analyses into consecutive and simultaneous interpretations. Students work with recorded material and with guest speakers. Emphasis is on accuracy and fluency. Students are introduced to relay and oral interpreting.

Course Objectives
Students will
- incorporate linguistic analyses into simultaneous interpretations;
- incorporate functional analyses into simultaneous interpretations;
- incorporate appropriate techniques for working with consumers in negotiating the interpreting process;
- participate in error analysis activities;
- simultaneously interpret spontaneous monologues, dialogues, interviews and group discussions.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
Students will
1) attend class and participate in class discussions and activities;
2) complete all out-of-class reading assignments;
3) complete a research/presentation project;
4) complete a self-analysis project;
5) complete an English translation of an ASL text;
6) complete a follow-up on self-analysis project.

Reference List

Boinis, S., Gajewski Mickelson, P., Gordon, P., Krouse, L. S., and Swabey, L. (1996). MRID self-paced modules for educational interpreter skill development. Little Canada, MN: Minnesota Educational Services.

Seal, B. C. (1998). Best practices in educational interpreting. Needham Heights, MA: **Allyn** and Bacon.

Taylor, M. M. (1993). Interpretation skills: English to American Sign Language. Edmonton, Alberta: Interpreting Consolidated.

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd **250:** Introduction to Comparative Linguistics (3 credits)

Text
Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linguistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washgton, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course introduces students to comparative linguistics. Students will use a comparative/contrastive approach to the study of English and ASL, and will focus on grammatically-acceptable ASL productions. Students will be introduced to the linguistic and culturally-based communication issues that influence the interpreting process.

Course Objectives
The student will
- compare and contrast English and ASL in respect to phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (including parts of speech and sentence types);
- identify and describe the process of language acquisition and its impact on interpreting registers.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, and group/pair work.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
The student will
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) prepare a comparison assignment based on a dialogue on videotape; ways in which English and ASL differ will be identified and discussed;
3) give a short in-class presentation based on the comparison assignment;
4) successfully complete a written final examination.

Reference List

Baker, C., and Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Baker, C., and Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linguistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washgton, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Wilcox, S., & Wilcox, P. (1991). Learning; to *see:* American Sign Language as a second language. Englewood Cliffs, **NJ:**Regents/Prentice Hall.

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 257 Introduction to Discourse Analysis (3 credits)

Text
None

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course focuses on the specialized discourse and vocabulary of specific content areas that appear in educational settings, including mathematics, science, and computers. Includes sociolinguistic factors that influence communication, strategies for analyzing discourse, and the discourse varieties of ethnic minorities.

Course Objectives
Students will
- identify the various levels at which discourse may be analyzed;
- describe the influence of register, style and affect on various forms of discourse;
- identify and describe discourse types, including academic, narrative, conversational, among others;
- identify and describe register variation;
- identify and describe signed and spoken language variation;
- analyze various discourse types using discourse analysis strategies;
- identify sociolinguistic factors;
- discuss the impact of sociolinguistic factors on the interpreting process.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, group/pair work, and practice.

Criteria and **Procedure for Evaluation**
The student will:
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) successfully complete all written/videotaped course assignments.
3) give a short in-class presentation based on a discourse analysis;
4) prepare a discourse analysis by selecting a discourse segment and applying methods and theories learned in class.

Reference List

Baker, C., and Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Baker, C., and Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Cazden, C. (1988). Classroom discourse: The lanmage of teaching and learning. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Crabtree, M., & Powers, J. (1991). Language files. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University Press.

Ford, L. (1988). Mind mapping: A technique for expanding short-term memory in interpreting. AVLIC Conference Proceedings. Edmonton, AB: AVLIC Publications.

Larson, M. L. (1984). Meaning-based translation: A guide to cross-lanpuage eauivalence. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Lucas, C. (ed.). (1996). Multicultural aspects of sociolinpuistics in deaf communities. Washgton, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Lucas, C. (ed.). (1995). Sociolinguistics in deaf communities. Washgton, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Lucas, C. (1989). The sociolinpuistics of the Deaf Community. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, Inc.

Lucas, C., & Valli, V. (1992). Language contact in the American deaf community. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Morris, E. (1991). Comparison of network and signed classroom interaction in an elementary class of Deaf students. Communication forum 1991. E. Winston (ed.). Washington, DC: Gallaudet University School of Communication.

Schiffrin, D. (1994). Approaches to discourse. Cambridge: Blackwell.

Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linguistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Wilcox, S., & Wilcox, P. (1991). Learning to *see:* American Sign Language as a second language. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall.

Winston, E., & Manikowski, C. Forthcoming. Discourse mapping: Developing textual coherence skills in intemreters.

Winston, E. (1995). An interpreted education: Inclusion or exclusion? RID Views, 12(3), 11&35-37. Silver Spring, MD: RID, Inc.

Winston, E. (1993). Interpretin? in the classroom: Providing accessibility or creating new barriers. Johnson Community College.

Zimmer, J. (1993). Discourse analysis as a tool for teaching translation and interpretation. Student competencies: Defining, teaching, and evaluating. E. Winston (ed.). USA; Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd **261:** Preparation for Mentorship **1(2** credits)

Texts
McIntire, M. L. **(1987).** New dimensions in interpreter education: Curricul m and instruction. Proceedings of the sixth national convention. Silver Spring, l D: RID Publications.
Shea, G.F. **(1992).** Mentoring: A practical mide. Menlo Park, CA: Crist Publications, Inc.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course prepares experienced interpreters with skills and knowledge to become mentors and resources for less experienced or entry-level interpreters. The course focuses on the theoretical models of mentorship and interpretation, materials available for slull and knowledge upgrading, and the tasks of interpretation. Students will explore the implications of language acquisition/learning on teaching, tutoring, and modeling for working interpreters and interpreting students.

Course Objectives
The students will
- discuss and describe theoretical models of mentorship and interpretation;
- discuss ways in which language acquisition/learning impact interpreted communication;
- discuss language, knowledge and skill requisites for interpreters;
- discuss current research and resources on mentorship and interpretation;
- identify strategies appropriate for mentoring/teachmg skills, theory and knowledge in interpreter education;
- identify materials that can contribute to interpreters' continuing education in the process of interpretation.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, group/pair work, and practice.

Criteria and **Procedure for Evaluation**
Students will
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) develop a reference notebook/ file, including materials on interpreting process, language acquisition, and mentoring, among others;
3) complete all assigned homework and reading;
4) complete an individualized outside project which is relative to their planning, training and supervision responsibilities that will enhance the delivery of interpreting services in their respective programs.

Reference List

Cokely, D. (1981, October). Foreigner talk and learner's grammar. The Reflector.

Colonomos, B. M. (1992). The interpreting process. Riverdale, MD: The Bicultural Center.

Frishberg, N. (1990). Interpreting: An introduction. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Gish, S. (1994). Interaction guidelines: Some notes on guided self analysis. Unpublished.

Gish, S. (1993). A Vygotskian perspective on interpreter assessment. In E. Winston (Ed.) Student comuetencies: Defining, teaching, and evaluating:. Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

Gish, S. (1990). Ethics and decision making for interpreters in health care settings. Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN: College of St. Catherine.

McIntire, M. L. (1987). New dimensions in interpreter education: Curriculum and instruction. Proceedings of the sixth national convention. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

McIntire, M. L. (1985). Interpreting:: The art of cross cultural mediation. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

Regional Interpreter Training Consortium Region IX. (1994). Mentorship program reference manual. Northridge, CA: RITC Region X.

Schockett, M. R., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1985). Factor analytic support for psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. Psychological Reports, 57(2), 627-630.

Schockett, M. R., Yoshimura, E. C., Beyard-Tyler, K., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1983). A proposed model of mentoring. Paper presented at the meeting of American Psychological Association. Anaheim, CA.

Shea, G. F. (1992). Mentoring: A practical mide. Menlo Park, CA: Crist Publications, Inc.

Stuckless, E. R., Avery, J.C., & Hurwitz, T.A. (1989). Educational interpreting for deaf students. Reuort of the National Task Force on Educational Interpreting;. Rochester, NY: Rochester Lnstitute of Technology.

Welch, O. M.. & Haring-Hidore, M. (1991). Minicourse on mentoring. Workshop presented at the American Education Research Association. Chcago, IL.

Witter-Merithew, A. (1986). Claiming our destiny. VIEWS. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND **REHABILITATION**

Course Number and Title
SpEd *262* Preparation for Mentorship II (2 credit hours)

Text
None

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course prepares experienced interpreters with skills and knowledge to become mentors and resources for less experienced or entry-level interpreters. This course, the second in a series of three, focuses on the phlosophy and methodology of various assessment and evaluation strategies that can be applied to interpretation. Mentors will examine strategies that encourage independent interpreters to participate in on-going process assessment and monitor their own interpreting process and product on a daily basis. Students examine the purpose and value of interpretation assessment, evaluate sample assessment tools, and develop diagnostic instruments that can be used with working interpreters and interpreting students.

Course Objectives
The students will
- discuss and describe the philosophy of various assessment and evaluation strategies that can be applied to interpretation;
- discuss and describe linguistic and functional discourse analysis, managing the interpreting task and the difference between processed and unprocessed interpretation;
- discuss and describe the methodology of various assessment and evaluation strategies that can be applied to interpretation;
- examine the functions of language and interpreting assessment;
- evaluate sample assessment tools;
- develop diagnostic instruments that can be used with working interpreters and interpreting students;
- examine the role of a mentor in assessment and evaluation.

Instructional Activities
Lecture, class discussion and activities.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
Students will
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) develop a reference notebook/file, including materials on assessment and evaluation of interpreters;

3) complete an individualized outside project which is relative to their planning, training, and supervision responsibilities that will enhance the delivery of interpreting services in their respective programs.

Reference List

Colonomos, B. M. (1992). The interpreting process. Riverdale, MD: The Bicultural Center.

Gish, S. (1993). A Vygotskian perspective on interpreter assessment. In E. Winston (Ed.) Student competencies: Defining, teaching, and evaluating. Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

Gish, S. (1994). Interaction guidelines: Some notes on guided self analysis. Unpublished.

Regional Interpreter Training Consortium Region IX. (1994). Mentorship program reference manual. Northridge, CA: RITC Region X.

Schockett, M. R., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1985). Factor analytic support for psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. Psychological Reports, 57(2), 627-630.

Schockett, M. R., Yoshimura, E. C., Beyard-Tyler, K., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1983). A proposed model of mentoring. Paper presented at the meeting of American Psychological Association. Anaheim, CA.

Shea, GP. (1992). Mentoring: A practical mide. Menlo Park, CA: Crist Publications, Inc.

Welch, O. M., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1991). Minicourse on mentoring. Workshop presented at the American Education Research Association. Chicago, IL.

Williams, M. S., & Schick, B. Educational interpreter performance assessment. Omaha, NE: Boys Town National Research Hospital. (Draft).

Witter-Merithew, A. (1986). Claiming our destiny. VIEWS. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

WESTERN OREGON UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 263: Preparation for Mentorship III (2 credit hours)

Texts
Regional Interpreter Training Consortium Region IX. (1994). Mentorship program reference manual. Northridge, CA: RITC Region X.

Gish, S. (1993). A Vygotskian perspective on interpreter assessment. Student competencies: Defining, teaching, and evaluating, Elizabeth A. Winston (ed.). Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

Shea, G. F. (1992). Mentoring: A practical guide. Menlo Park, CA: Crist Publications, Inc.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course prepares experienced interpreters with skills and knowledge to become mentors and resources for less experienced or entry-level interpreters. This course, third in a series of three, traces the history of ASL and English use in educational settings. Students will investigate the design and implementation of Signed English systems, their theoretical and philosophical roots, their use with deaf children, and materials for skill upgrading. Students will use current research to develop theoretically-based decision-making strategies for the use of ASL and Signed English with deaf consumers in educational settings.

Course Objectives
The students will
- discuss and describe the history of ASL and English use in educational settings;
- discuss the theoretical and plulosophical roots of Signed English systems;
- investigate the design and implementation of signed English systems, their use with deaf duldren and materials for skill upgrading;
- use current research to develop theoretically-based decision-making strategies for the use of ASL and Signed English with deaf consumers in educational settings;
- examine and develop ways in whch historical, theoretical, and philosophical information about ASL and signed English systems and their practical use in educational settings may be transmitted from the mentor to the protégé.

Instructional Activities
Lecture, class discussion and activities.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation

Students will
1) participate in class discussions and activities.
2) complete a written research project describing an effective problem-solving strategy for the use of ASL and Signed English with deaf consumers in educational settings.
3) complete an individualized outside project which is relative to their planning, training, and supervision responsibilities that will enhance the delivery of interpreting services in their respective programs.

Reference List

The Board for Evaluation of Interpreters. (1990). Interpreter certification and principles of ethical behavior. Austin, TX: Texas Commission for the Deaf.

Brazeau, K. (1991). Oregon guidelines: Educational iterpreting for students who are deaf. Salem, OR Oregon Department of Education.

Colonomos, B. M. (1992). The interureting process. Riverdale, MD: The Bicultural Center.

Gish, S. (1993). A Vygotskian perspective on interpreter assessment. In E. Winston (Ed.) Student competencies: Defining, teaching, and evaluating:. Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

Gish, S. (1994). Interaction guidelines: Some notes on guided self analysis. Unpublished.

Regional Interpreter Training Consortium Region IX. (1994). Mentorship program reference manual. Northridge, CA: RITC Region X.

Schockett, M. R., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1985). Factor analytic support for psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. Psychological Reports, 57(2), 627-630.

Schockett, M. R., Yoshimura, E. C., Beyard-Tyler, K., and Haring-Hidore, M. (1983). A proposed model of mentoring. Paper presented at the meeting of American Psychological Association. Anaheim, CA.

Shea, G. F. (1992). Mentoring: A practical guide. Menlo Park, CA: Crist Publications, Inc.

Welch, O. M., & Haring-Hidore, M. (1991). Minicourse on mentoring. Workshop presented at the American Education Research Association. Chicago, IL.

Williams, M. S., & Schick, B. Educational interpreter performance assessment, Omaha, NE: Boys Town National Research Hospital. (Draft).

Witter-Merithew, A. (1986). Claiming our destiny. VIEWS. Silver Spring, MD: RID Publications.

WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd **281:** Teaching **ASL** 1 (2 credits)

Text
Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linguistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course introduces students to the linguistic features of ASL as a base for second language instruction. Students study ASL on the levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse. Includes a comparison of visual-gestural and vocal-auditory languages and the implications for teachmg ASL to hearing students.

Course Objectives
The students will
- describe **ASL** in terms **of** phonology, morphology, syntax, and discourse;
- describe non-manual grammatical markers in ASL;
- identify the major theoretical approaches to teaching second languages;
- identify texts, newsletters, articles, media, and other materials that can contribute to students' continuing education.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, group/pair work, and teachmg practice.

Criteria and **Procedure for Evaluation**
The student will
1) attend class and participate in class discussions and activities;
2) successfully complete all written/videotaped course assignments;
3) complete an individualized outside project relative to their planning, training, and supervision responsibilities that will enhance ASL teachg in their respective programs.

Reference List

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American S i p Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linpuistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Wilcox, S., & Wilcox, P. (1991). Learning to see: American Sign Language as a second language. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall.

WESTERN OREGON **UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND **REHABILITATION**

Course Number and Title
SpEd **282:** Teaching American Sign Language II (2 credit hours)

Texts
Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Wilcox, S., & Wilcox, P. (1991). Learning. to *see:* American Sign Language as a second language. Englewood Cliffs, **NJ:**Regents/Prentice Hall.

Prerequisite
By application only

Course Description
This course, the second in a series of three, focuses on theories of second language acquisition, the relationship of language to culture, strategies for second language instruction, and current approaches to American Sign Language (ASL) teaching. Students will analyze current curriculum and develop teaching strategies based upon a study of second and foreign language teaching methodologies.

Course Objectives
The students will
- describe theories and methodology of second language acquisition;
- describe the relationship of language to culture;
- identify and analyze strategies for second language instruction and current approaches to teaching ASL;
- develop teaching strategies based upon a study of several language teaching methodologies.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, group/pair work, and teaching practice.

Criteria and Procedure for Evaluation
The student will
1) participate in class discussions and activities;
2) successfully complete all written/videotaped course assignments;
3) complete an individualized outside project relative to their planning, training, and supervision responsibilities that will enhance ASL teaching in their respective programs.

Reference List

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: **A** teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (1995). Linguistics of American Sign Language: A resource text for ASL users. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Wilcox, S., & Wilcox, P. (1991). Learning: to see: American Sign Language as a second language. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall.

WESTERN **OREGON UNIVERSITY**

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION

Course Number and Title
SpEd 283: Teaching American Sign Language III (2 credit hours)

Text
Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on curriculum, methods, and evaluation. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

Prerequisite
By application only.

Course Description
This course, the third in a series of three, focuses on the functions of assessment and evaluation principles in language learning. Students will investigate the use and factors involved in designing assessment instruments, current approaches to language assessment, available instruments for the assessment of American Sign Language (ASL) skills, and diagnostic strategies designed to guide students toward more effective language learning.

Course Objectives
The students will
- discuss and describe the functions of assessment and evaluation in language learning and teaching;
- investigate the use and factors involved in designing assessment instruments;
- identify and analyze current approaches to language assessment;
- identify and analyze available instruments for the assessment of ASL skills;
- identify and analyze diagnostic strategies designed to guide students toward more effective language learning;
- develop diagnostic instruments that can be used with students learning ASL as a second language.

Instructional Activities
Classes will be part lecture, discussion, group/pair work, and assessment practice.

Criteria and **Procedure for Evaluation**
The student will
1) participate in class discussions and activities.
2) successfully complete all written/videotaped course assignments
3) complete an individualized outside project relative to their planning, training, and supervision responsibilities that will enhance ASL teachg in their respective programs

Reference List

Baker, C., & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers.

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KEYS TO INTEGRATING CULTURAL INFLUENCES IN INTERPRETER EDUCATION

Anna Mindess, MA, CSC, CLIP

Those of us in the field of sign language interpreting have been aware of the importance of culture for a long time. Yet, having no systematic way to approach its complexities, we have shied away from tackling the problems raised by cultural differences. The field of intercultural communication can provide us with a framework within which to view our work. Just as biologists do not study an animal in isolation, but regard each species in relation to others, so we will be unable to truly understand Deaf culture without first having a thorough grounding in the study of world cultures. By becoming familiar with the ways that different cultural groups handle issues of membership, organize information, and express their values, we will discover that American Deaf culture shares many features with French, Japanese, Chinese, and Israeli cultures, among others. The wider perspective we gain in this study will be invaluable for achieving a deeper appreciation of American Deaf culture.

Our inquiry, however, cannot stop at this point. We must also study ourselves. Whether we grew up in mainstream American homes, inherited a mixture of values as CODAs, or as members of other minority groups, it is imperative that we move beyond our reluctance to being pigeon-holed and delve into the aspects of American culture that make us (and our hearing consumers) who we are.

Recognizing the need for educational materials in this area led me to write a book entitled Reading; between the Signs: Intercultural Communication for Sign Language Intemreters which will be published in 1999 by Intercultural Press. The book, which is specifically targeted to sign language interpreters and students planning to become interpreters would, I believe, be an excellent resource for interpreter training programs. It covers the areas I have already mentioned (the intercultural perspective, ways of comparing cultures, differences between mainstream American culture and American Deaf culture). Then it goes on to deal with the effects of cultural differences in interpreted situations and common instances of miscommunication which may *occur* when cultural factors are not taken into consideration. The book also suggests strateges to deal with these challenging moments.

My interest in this area came from my own experiences as a free-lance interpreter over the past twenty years. Since receiving a Master's degree from San Francisco State University in a special major called Language and Culture with a focus on Sign Language, I have written articles and presented lectures and workshops on the subject of culture. For my book, I was privileged to have as consultants three well-respected and insightful Deaf colleagues: Dr. Thomas Holcomb, who co-wrote the chapter on Deaf culture; Daniel Langholtz; and Priscilla Poynor Moyers.

Since I cannot present the entire contents of the book to you in a three-hour session, I decided to focus mostly on the second half of the book, which deals with the specific ways interpreted situations are affected by culture and what we can do about it while interpreting. However, I want to re-emphasize that in your classes I don't think you can "cut to the chase" without the introductory perspective as a foundation upon which to build. In that regard, I would like to recommend a few resources: two excellent books on mainstream American culture are American Ways, by Gary Althen, and American Cultural Patterns, by Edward C. Stewart and Milton J. Bennett. And a wonderful book which brings home the fact that our way is not the only way of doing things is Cross Cultural Dialogues, by Craig Storti (we will do an exercise adapted from this book later).

CULTURE AND COMMUNICATION[1]

As sign language interpreters, the aspects of culture we most often find ourselves untangling are those related to communication.

> Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, but it also helps determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various

[1] The rest of this paper is adapted from Reading Between the Signs: Intercultural Communication for Sign Language Interpreters © Anna Mindess. The book will be published in 1999 by Intercultural Press, Inc., of Yarmouth, Maine. No part of this book can be reproduced in any manner whatsoever without written permission from te publisher.

messages may or may not be sent, noticed or interpreted.
(Samovar & Porter, 1982, p. 32)

Let us look at four major topics in intercultural communication which happen to hghlight important contrasts between Deaf culture and Mainstream American culture.

COLLECTIVISM VS. INDIVIDUALISM

More than 70 percent of world cultures can be labeled collectivist or group oriented. They include much of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. In all such cultures, members of a group (family, work group, tribe, caste, or even the entire country) help each other to survive. Individuals subordinate their personal goals to the goals of the group. American Deaf culture clearly qualifies as a collectivist culture with its emphasis on pooling resources, duty to share information, boundary between insiders and outsiders, and loyalty to and strong identification with the group.

In individualist cultures, such as the United States and most of northwest Europe, by contrast, the basic unit of survival is the individual. One is repeatedly encouraged to be independent, self-reliant and always ready to take responsibility for one's own actions. Heavy emphasis is placed upon personal choices, opinions, and creativity. Group membership is flexible and one can be a. member of many groups. Identification with these groups is relatively weak, however, and no one group completely defines its members' identities.

In American tradition, we often admire a rugged individualist or "self-made man." In the collectivist Deaf community, a "hero," as portrayed in folktales and stories, is respected because he or she helped other Deaf people. In Deaf culture, the most respected leaders are "felt to be responsible for other Deaf people, in a personal way. They must not only work for the betterment of the community but are expected to be open to all its members, giving them time, attention and help" (Smith, 1996, pp. 30-31). Success in Deaf Culture is applauded with the proviso that one must not distance oneself from the Deaf Community.

Loyalty to the group is an important characteristic of collectivism. One does not behave in a way that would bring disgrace to the family. Nor does one betray or embarrass other members of the group. "Deaf leaders rarely confront others directly

in public. If they are friends or care about the person they do so in private" (pp. 94-95).

In collectivist cultures one is expected to devote time and energy to promoting the welfare of the group. "The ideal Deaf person contributes to and supports the community; they hold parties or sponsor events to bring people together, to entertain, enlighten and to create solidarity—spending much time socializing. They put the welfare of the community higher than their own immediate needs" **(p.** 107).

DECISION MAKING

Many cultural behaviors can be linked to and explained by the collectivist/individualist divide. Decision making is a good example. In individualist cultures, each person in a group is supposed to have a separate and equal voice and is supposed to make up his or her own mind independently when decisions are to be made. In collectivist cultures, like Japan, on the other hand, the group often caucuses or negotiates before a formal vote is taken and agrees by consensus upon a course of action which is in the best interest of the group as a whole. Then a united front is presented at the formal meeting. At a meeting of an organization with both Deaf and hearing members, the Deaf members may tend to caucus to decide together what position is best for the Deaf community at large and then vote as a bloc. Hearing members of this group, if not aware of the cultural dynamics, may judge such behavior as weak-minded or collusive.

HIGH-CONTEXT VS. LOW-CONTEXT

The terms "high-context" and "low-context" were coined by Edward T. Hall, one of the founders of the field of intercultural communication, in his groundbreaking book, Beyond Culture (1976). These terms deal with the question of how much information must be made explicit compared with how much is already understood implicitly in a given culture because of shared experience. It helps to keep in mind that a high-context culture has a high *dependence* on context; in other words, if you do not share the same cultural experience as everyone else, you might not understand what is going on in any given conversation. Low-context cultures have a low *dependence* on context, so it is not assumed that you have as much shared

background and experience. Things, therefore, will be explained more. Think of the difference between the economical conversational style of twins who have grown up together compared to the amount of explanation, clarification, and reiteration needed by opposing lawyers presenting their case in court. Hall says that "the level of context determines everything about the nature of communication and is the foundation on which all subsequent behavior rests" (1976, p. 92). He also observes that "a high context communication or message is one in which most of the information is in the physical context or internalized in the person while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message" (p. 91). "In high-context cultures," Hall and Hall say, "interpersonal contact takes precedence over everything else. . . information spreads rapidly and moves almost as if it had a life of its own" (1990, p. *23).* Conversely, people in low-context cultures "compartmentalize their personal relationships, their work, and many aspects of day to day life." (p. *7)* When they communicate "most of the information must be in the transmitted code in order to make up for what is missing in the context'' (Hall, 1976, p. 101).

Clearly, American Deaf culture would be placed on the high-context end of the continuum, while mainstream American culture would be found on the low-context side. As the student workbook for Signing Naturally explains, "Among Deaf people there is a great deal of shared knowledge, common experiences, goals and beliefs, common friends and acquaintances, a common way of talking; that is, their lives share a common context" (Smith, Lentz, & Mikos, 1988, p. 79). We can also appreciate the characteristic way Deaf discourse describes certain events in great detail with another observation from Hall, "In general, high-context communication, in contrast to low-context, is economical, fast, efficient, and satisfying; however *time must be devoted to programming. If this programming does not take place, the communication is incomplete"* (italics added) (1976, p. 101).

To see how this contrast gets played out, let us compare the experience of eavesdropping on a spoken English and a signed ASL conversation (and put aside the commonality that both cultures consider such behavior rude); we may notice that it often seems easier for an eavesdropper to follow a spoken English conversation than a signed ASL conversation. This difference can be explained by the ways high- and low-context affect our perceptions on various levels. At the

grammatical level, English fits the mold of a low-context language by its redundancy in comparison with high-context ASL. Every verb in an English sentence shows its tense, while in ASL tense may be set at the beginning of an utterance and then carried implicitly until a change in tense is noted. English repeats the subject throughout the conversation by using proper names or gender-specific pronouns, while in ASL there are several possibilities such as mentioning the subject at the beginning of a conversation and then carrying it along implicitly until it is changed, incorporating it into directional verbs, or representing it by gender-neutral pronouns. What this means is that if you miss the beginning of an ASL conversation, you may be lost as to who is being talked about and in what tense. In English conversations, on the other hand, even if you miss the beginning, there will be repeated clues along the way to help you fill in the blanks.

Equally, if not more important, is the cultural level of context. Since many Deaf people already have a great deal of shared context because of similar experiences—growing up deaf in a hearing world, attending the same lund of schools, and being part of the same community—they can presume a great degree of mutual understanding.

TIME

Time organizes our lives in many ways, and we can view these from a cultural perspective. We can look, for example, at the pace of a culture. If it has a comparatively slow pace, people will walk, talk, and eat slowly, unhurriedly relishing the moment. If, on the other hand, it is a fast-paced culture, its members will move and converse more quickly. This distinction is not only applicable to other countries, but may be observed in different regions of our own (i.e., New York City vs. the South).

Another way to compare time orientation is to study a culture's degree of precision. Does the 2:03 train always arrive at 2:03? In Switzerland it does. When the plumber in Mexico says he will come to fix your drip "mañana," does that mean he will assuredly be at your house tomorrow? Probably not.

DEAF AND HEARING DIFFERENCES RELATED TO TIME

Many subcultures in the United States refer to their own variant of the accepted time system half-jokingly as Black Standard Time or Jewish Standard Time, etc. But they are only half-joking because there really are differences in behavior and attitude toward time in different cultures. This category would include DST or Deaf Standard Time as well.

Besides arriving at certain events after the official "starting time," another element of Deaf Time is staying late at gatherings such as parties. In Deaf-only parties, this behavior goes un-remarked upon because it is expected. In a mixed party of Deaf and hearing, people often joke that the party really gets started after all the hearing people go home (early). If there is an event at a public location such as a theater, it often happens that the Deaf people in attendance must be shooed out at closing time, and they sometimes continue the conversation on the front steps outside the theater. If Deaf people are involved in a discussion, to cut it off arbitrarily because the clock says it's getting late is almost unheard of. These moments of face to face communication with fellow Deaf people are so precious that "there is minimal value placed on being 'on time' to the next appointment, getting home to sleep, or even finishing the immediate business at hand" (Smith, 1996, p. 190).

There is also a cultural difference in timing between Deaf culture and hearing culture with regard to greetings and leave-taking. Hearing Americans practice a greeting ritual that precedes our getting to the point: "Hi." "Hello." "How are you?'' "Fine thanks, and you?" "Not *too* bad." And then they go on to the matter at hand. Hearing leave-taking is more abrupt: "Great party. Bye." Deaf culture reverses the pacing of these two interactions. After the hello, they get right to the point without the warm-up and save the long ritual for leave-taking. At a party or other large event, hugs, good-byes, agreeing when to meet again, more hugs, last bit of news, and so forth can easily continue for half an hour.

POLYCHRONIC VS. MONOCHRONIC

"Polychronic" and "monochronic" are terms coined by Edward T. Hall to describe another distinction regarding time. In monochronic cultures like the United States, Germany, Switzerland, and Scandinavia, time is segmented linearly, and

people tend to focus on one thing or person at a time, (witness our ever-present date books neatly divided into hourly or smaller units which we assign one by one till our days are fully booked.) By scheduling our time so rigidly, we compartmentalize our life, trying to make it manageable by concentrating on only one thing at a time. This process has the side effect of reducing context as we separate business from pleasure, family from friends, exercise from daily chores, etc.

In polychronic cultures, such as those of Latin America and France, people and relationships take precedence over agendas and schedules. People may carry on several conversations at the same time. This means that if an American is meeting with a businessperson in a polychronic culture, he or she will probably become upset when the businessman's brother "intrudes," the phone rings, the secretary comes in with another matter, and the businessman deals with all of these occurrences simultaneously. The American literally wants "one to one" attention and feels discounted, or even insulted, if he or she doesn't get it.

This difference is also apparent in business meetings where the monochronic members want to follow the agenda strictly as it was planned. The polychronic members may feel that doing so is too rigid and leaves no room for personal interactions, which are really more important than agendas anyway. In the Deaf community, "groups move towards goals rather than complete checklists and move on. The process, the mutual feeling and perception of progress is more important than the completion of specific tasks or outward signs of 'progress"' (Smith, p. 192). As Hall states in *The Dance of Life,* "Polychronic people are so deeply immersed in each other's business that they feel a compulsion to keep in touch. Any stray scrap of a story is gathered in and stored away." He also says, "Their involvement in people is the very core of their existence" (1983, **p.** 50) . For Deaf people who depend upon communication with each other for so much of their information about the world, the polychronic description also seems to fit. Being involved in others' lives, however, takes time—time to share the news and time to listen. When interpreters do not include this "human time" to chat after the work part of the assignment is over, they may be characterized as rude hearing people who continually glance at their watches and then rush off without even a goodbye.

Because we cannot always predict exactly how long things will take, our monochronic time system has some unforeseen consequences. Time runs out before

things are finished; money runs out before a research project is completed; the allotted appointment time runs out before we finish describing our complaints to the doctor. For freelance sign language interpreters, this is a particularly relevant dilemma. In order to make a living, we must often schedule several appointments back to back and so are constantly trying to predict the impossible: how long a "routine check-up" or a deposition will last.

PAST VS. FUTURE ORIENTATIONS

Yet another way to compare time orientation is through the continuum of past-, present- and future-oriented cultures. Past-oriented cultures such as those of Iran, India, and Asia are connected to their history, respect their ancestors, keep traditions, and look back with reverence on a "golden age." Future-oriented cultures, of which the United States is a good example, are more focused on change and progress.

In some ways, American Deaf culture can be considered a past-oriented culture. It treasures its sign language and cherishes those Deaf pioneers who fought for basic rights for their fellow Deaf citizens. One of the most significant of these is the right to a good education for all Deaf children. In this context, one could say that Deaf culture looks back on a "golden age" in the last century when more than twenty state schools for the Deaf were founded by Deaf people, of which nine had Deaf principals or superintendents and sign language was the language of instruction in all of these schools. Unfortunately, many Deaf people are not taught about their heritage in school (Gannon, p. 1981).

Of course, the Deaf community wants change and progress in the areas of equal rights and improved access for its members, but that is change in the context of the majority hearing culture. Within the Deaf culture, traditions are cherished. This includes traditional forms of folklore, such as jokes and ABC stories, as well as the traditional Name Sign System.

Hearing Americans, by and large, are future oriented. We believe we can always improve on the present through action and hard work. Any attempt of futurists to try to effect changes on a past-oriented culture, however, will be met with puzzled dismay if not angry resistance.

RHETORICAL STYLE

If we are determined, we can manage to achieve some objective insight into the way our culture handles group membership, information sharing, and time, but the next topic is much harder to *see* with a dispassionate eye. It covers the way we think, how we organize our thoughts, what we trust as evidence, and how we try to persuade others.

An enlightening discussion of this topic can be found in the chapter, "Thinking about Thinking" in An Introduction to Intercultural Communication by John Condon and Fathi Yousef (1975). These authors characterize cultural rhetoric as "acquired habits, widely shared by speakers within a particular society, influencing both the speaker and his own cultural audience, and extremely *difficult* to *translate* satisfactorily into another *society. . .* without *some loss or awkwardness"* (emphasis added) (pp. *235-6).* Clearly, for interpreters working between any two languages, one of the major challenges will be not only to find equivalent words, phrases, and idioms, but to present them in a familiar structure and in a convincing manner.

ORGANIZING INFORMATION

Of course, each language has its little quirks in the way it organizes information. Condon and Yousef cite as an example the numerous ways American English uses patterns of three's to describe things, as in the following phrases: "tall, dark, and handsome," "wine, women, and song," "hook, h e , and sinker." We break things down into a beginning, middle, and end, and we award three basic college degrees, Many children's stories follow this pattern as well: Three Blind Mice, The Three Little Pigs, Three Billy Goats Gruff. We tell people, "If at first you don't succeed, try, try again," and "Third time's a charm," and many of our jokes end with the punch line, "And then the third guy says. . ." etc., etc., etc.

Since reality doesn't really come in three's, it is possible that as Condon and Yousef suggest, *". . .* our culturally influenced rhetorical forms themselves help shape our world view, our thoughts and our actions" (p. *233).* We can *see* this in ourselves when in writing a sentence we come up with two adjectives and then feel compelled to **find** a third one to make it feel right.

Another aspect of cultural rhetoric is the way we organize and present our thoughts. It includes "where to begin, where to stop, how to move from point to

point, how many and which points to stress. . ." (p. 240). Hearing American children already learn in elementary school this basic form of organization: topic sentence, three clarifying examples, and conclusion and are instructed to line up their points in a logical progression.

Chinese (as well as other South East Asian Languages and ASL) is a "topic-comment" language. This term refers to the grammatical structure of its sentences. In contrast to English, which most often uses a subject-predicate style, 50 percent of Chinese utterances describe the topic first, which "sets the spatial, temporal or personal framework for the following assertion" (Young, 1982, p. 74). In other words, the topic gives the background information and the context needed to appreciate the new information or argument contained in the comment. An example is the sentence, "Blue surf board, giant squid ate," cited by Linda Wai Ling Young in her essay called "Inscrutability Revisited" where she discusses the implications of this difference.

In her study, Young went beyond the sentence level and noticed how this same organizational framework applied to **chunks** of discourse expressed by native Chinese speakers *when speaking English.* She found that when the Chinese speakers were attempting to persuade others, they would start with the background and then make their main point at the end. The most striking finding in this study, which carries deep implications for sign language interpreters, is the strong negative reactions native English speakers expressed upon hearing a tape of Chinese speakers utilizing the topic-comment structure in English. Without the introductory thesis statement common in English, "the main point was initially lost on them because it lay buried in a mass of infomation" (p. 79). The indirectness characterized by "the absence of a preview statement and the item-by-item listing of justifications" **(p.** 80) may lead English speakers to view the Chinese discourse as "imprecise, unwieldy and downright inept" (p. 81). Young asserts that "a basic unawareness of alternative linguistic structures and discourse conventions can shade into doubts concerning the reasoning abilities of the Chinese mind" (p. 79).

Aside from typically starting with an introductory statement, English presentational style usually proceeds from the general to the specific. American Sign Language, on the other hand, proceeds from the specific to the general. As an illustration of this point, I recently attended a lecture that Dr. Sam Supalla gave on

the subject of Name Signs in ASL. It happens that I wrote my Master's thesis on Name Signs and have lectured on it myself, so I am familiar with the subject. As Dr. Supalla, who is Deaf, lectured, my attention became drawn to the way he organized his presentation. It seemed to be a complete reversal of the approach I would take. I would probably start my lecture as follows: "Today we are going to **talk** about Name Signs in ASL. There are two major categories of name signs, descriptive and arbitrary. Here are examples. . . . Are there any comments or questions?" Sam, however, started like this: "My name is Sam Supalla. Does anyone in the audience know my name sign? It looks like this. Let me tell you the story of my name sign. . . . Do people in the audience want to share the story of their name signs? . . . By the way, we have been talking about two kinds of name signs, descriptive and arbitrary."

My approach proceeds from the general to the specific, while Sam's went from the specific to the general. In addition, in my structure the lecture is separated from any questions or comments from the audience. Sam, however, used the stories and examples elicited from the audience members as threads with which he wove a collective lecture.

COMMUNICATIVE STYLE IN ASL

Let us look at rhetorical style and persuasion from a Deaf cultural viewpoint. What are some of the rhetorical forms of ASL? Besides the topic-comment structure and beginning with the specific, another common structure is the time-sequenced and detailed narration, which describes in chronological order the events of the day, week, etc., from the first to the last. A Deaf person arriving late for work, for example, would probably describe the reasons for being tardy in an extremely detailed, step-by-step fashion beginning with getting up, what happened when he tried to start the car, why the bus didn't arrive on time, etc.—all leading up to his late arrival. In a similar situation, a hearing person would tend to give a shorter statement summarizing the cause of the tardiness.

Shelley Lawrence has identified seven characteristics of native ASL discourse which she terms "expansion features": contrasting feature, faceting, reiteration, utilizing 3D space, explaining by examples, couching, and "describe, then do" (1996, "Expansion Workshop" at RID Region 5 conference in San Jose).

WHAT PERSUADES DEAF PEOPLE?

Whom do Deaf people rely on as authorities? "Truths learned from personal experience take precedence over objective evidence. . . . Deaf people. . . are unimpressed by abstract findings published in books or taught in universities unless they have personal experience consistent with it" (Smith, p. *232).* Interpreting a typical medical appointment, we sometimes run across a certain behavior that can illuminate this point. In discussion with the doctor about their medical condition, Deaf people will often relate stories about their friends. If the Deaf patient is suffering from some type of heart ailment, for example, he or she might tell the doctor about another Deaf person who had a similar condition and then go on to describe in detail what type of medication the friend took with what results. Lacking the understanding that in Deaf culture the peer group Serves as the trusted authority, the hearing doctor will usually dismiss this seeming digression and try to get back to the point without ever answering the patient's implicit question regarding an alternative medication. If a hearing patient, however, were to bring up the same concern about a new blood pressure medication but ate a magazine article or a television news report as the source of the information, it is probable that the doctor would respond to that patient's concerns directly.

Now that we have Seen that American Deaf culture can be generally characterized as collectivist, high-context, polychronic, and past oriented, we can examine some significant values of Deaf culture and the behaviors they engender.

SELECTED FEATURES OF DEAF CULTURE

Because of its relative scarcity, dormation is a precious commodity in the Deaf community, yet something whose value is demonstrated by sharing it with others. If one acquires a piece of information, one feels obligated to pass it on. This applies to practically everything from the latest news to one's own and others' medical conditions and marital problems, to movie plots, warnings about dangers, recommendations of restaurants where the waitress signs, names of Deaf friends where one can stay when out of town, stores with good bargains, and stories of the ups and downs of the lives of mutual acquaintances.

"STRAIGHT TALK"

The degree of direct or indirect communication a culture tends to employ can be plotted along a continuum for purposes of comparison, just as we have noted variations along the collectivist/individualist, high-context/low-context, polychronic/monochronic continuums. It is interesting to note that, in most of the cross-cultural literature, mainstream American culture is treated as if it were fixed on the "direct" endpoint of the continuum. A common comparison pits direct American communication against Japanese communication, which is seen as representing the epitome of indirectness. In actuality, there are at least two world cultures that practice a much more direct style of communication than hearing Americans and whose members would characterize the typical American style as "beating around the bush." One of these is American Deaf culture, and the other is Israeli mainstream culture, which we will briefly discuss to help shed light on the way the direct style of communication functions.

CONTINUUM

Japanese Culture American Culture Deaf Israeli,

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INDIRECT DIRECT

Israeli culture has been likened to sandpaper because it is "rough, grating, devoid of a smooth finish." For example, if someone disagrees with you in the United States, he or she might say, "Excuse me, I have a problem with what you've just said." In Israel, you are much more likely to hear, "You're wrong!" "In informal Israel, 'smooth' is often suspect. It is equated with being artificial, insincere, hypocritical. Rough is real; . . . honest, authentic" (Shahar & Kurz, 1995, pp. 78-79). Israelis get right to the point, even if they have a negative comment. In a business situation where Americans might preface a criticism with a softening phrase such as, "It seems to me that. . ." or "You might want to consider. . .," many Israelis would say directly, "This part of your project is impractical," or "These dates on your timeline are impossible" (pp. 123-127).

In Talking Straight: Dugri Speech in Israeli Sabra Culture, author Tamar Katriel describes directness as "the most central element in the Sabra's [native-born Israeli's] expressive repertoire" (Katriel, 1986, pp. 48). *Dugri* refers to a truthful,

clear-cut, unambiguous expression of feelings or opinions. Despite the fact that such Israeli speech does not make use of politeness formulas, it "is associated with the expression of respect rather than disrespect" (p. 116). The social framework in which directness demonstrates courtesy is one of "intimacy and solidarity.'' This "way of speaking. . . challenges the common assumption that all interaction is grounded in a rule of considerateness. . ." (p. 38). In other words, linguists and sociologists have assumed that face-saving behaviors are a universal way of expressing politeness. What straight talk in Israeli culture proves is that the concept of politeness is culturally relative. Sometimes it is the very absence of "crooked talk" (elaborate ways of saying or avoiding the truth) which is seen as most polite and respectful.

American Deaf culture also tends to employ a direct mode of expression. "Hinting and vague talk in an effort to be polite are inappropriate and even offensive" (Lane, 1992, p. 16). Among themselves, Deaf people have no patience for ambiguity. As in Israeli culture, straight talk is an expression of intimacy and solidarity between the Deaf.

Another function of straight talk in both Deaf and Israeli cultures is that it is "a way of providing social information that would be either unavailable or difficult to accept under less favorable conditions" (Katriel, p. 39). As many Deaf people have explained to me, "If other Deaf people don't tell you the truth, who will?" In Deaf culture, with the high value placed on sharing information, straight talk puts one's thoughts and feelings out on the communal table; or as Katriel describes it in Israel, "*dugri* speech is seen as facilitating the circulation of social information, especially in contexts in which this may be problematic: when negative valuations are involved" (p. 39).

DIRECT PERSONAL COMMENTS

Although this topic could be discussed under the general heading of "Straight Talk," I believe it deserves special attention because it may be the hardest part of Deaf culture for hearing people to accept. I have heard several skilled interpreters say, regarding this behavior, "That's not culture, that's just rude!" What is it that can provoke such insensitive criticism? Probably being greeted by a Deaf person with a remark about their appearance such as: "Boy, you've put on a lot of weight!" or "Oh, you dyed your hair, it's not a good color. It looked better before."

or "Wow! You are getting bald so fast!" Deaf people maintain that such comments demonstrate closeness, connection, loyalty, sincerity, and friendship.

In American mainstream culture, by contrast, personal remarks (especially negative ones) are considered rude. In Deaf culture, these direct personal comments often come right after the "Hi" and can be positive, negative, or mixed. There is, of course, a lot of room for individual variation within these statements. For example, whereas a particularly blunt Deaf person may greet you with, " Oh, new glasses. Ugh! Really ugly." Another Deaf person might put it, "Oh, you got new glasses. Hmmm. I think I prefer the old ones. They fit your face better. Made you look younger."

KEEPING OTHERS INFORMED

The expectation in Deaf culture that one needs to keep others mformed operates on several levels. One is the practical reality that in a family situation or group meeting, if a deaf person leaves the room, no one can call to the person to find out where he or she went. Consequently, it is polite and expected that one inform at least one other person that one is, for instance, on one's way to the restroom. Then, if that person's absence is questioned, someone can enlighten the rest of the group. "Even temporary unexplained departures are unacceptable" (Lane, p. 18).

"Sharing information is the norm in the Deaf community. Especially when there is a change in the routine or expectations, an explanation is warranted" (Smith, Lentz, & Mikos, p. 35). On a broader level, Deaf people feel obligated to tell other Deaf people pertinent mformation about their health, relationshp, work, travel plans, and other significant aspects of life. To have a great change in one's life and keep it to oneself would be perceived as an insult. As in a small town or a large family, news travels fast in the Deaf community by what some people ruefully refer to as the "deaf grapevine." In American hearing culture we are not supposed to gossip or talk about others behind their backs. Of course, almost everyone does anyway. The trick is not to admit it.

SHARING PERSONAL INFORMATION

Certain topics are taboo in American hearing culture. I am not only referring here to the famous threesome that polite people are supposed to refrain from

discussing at the dinner table: politics, **sex,** and religion. I am also thinking of such topics as money, the gory details of sickness and death, and bathroom habits. None of these seem to carry a similar prohibition in Deaf culture. On the contrary, perhaps it is the general reticence of the hearing majority to discuss these aspects of life, coupled with the value placed on clear and direct communication in Deaf culture, which makes these topics seem to crop up so often in Deaf conversations.

Mainstream Americans are very circumspect when it comes to talking about money. Many other cultures, (Israeli, Thai, and Filipino, for example), find nothing wrong in asking people how much money they earn a year or how much they paid for their dress, TV, car, or house. In Deaf culture, too, such questions are another way to gather important mformation. How can one get a good deal on a car if one has no basis for comparison? Probably more than advertisements, magazine articles, or expert opinion, Deaf people look to each other for input about what to buy and where to buy it. There are also tales of warning to be shared: how not to get taken advantage of by unscrupulous salespersons and accounts of Deaf people unwittingly pressured into sigrung on the dotted line without realizing what the small print on the contract committed them to pay.

Clear descriptions of bodily functions do not Seem to embarrass Deaf people the way they do hearing Americans. I have heard complaints from Deaf people who think that interpreters allow their own reluctance to describe things graphically to interfere with clear communication. If a doctor, for example, inquires about a Deaf patient's recent bowel movements, ASL provides many ways to unequivocally depict the various possibilities. If the interpreter, however, chooses to use a generic sign such as " B M out of his or her own embarrassment, both parties may suffer from the inadequate communication. Similarly, whle statements related to sexual behavior may be comfortably vague in English (e.g., "Do you practice safe sex?"), to accurately convey the information in ASL, interpreters may have to overcome their natural reticence to explicitly describe sexual activity.

Let us see how some of the cultural contrasts we have described turn up in common interpreting situations.

EXCERPTS FROM TYPICAL INTERPRETING SITUATIONS TO HIGHLIGHT CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

(For the sake of flow, no attempt is made to transcribe the ASL signs. It is assumed that an interpreter was present, but did not provide any cultural adjustments.)

MEDICAL APPOINTMENT

Hearing Doctor: Hi. How **are** you?

> The doctor is probably expecting a general introductory statement grounded in the present. He or she may then question the patient about what led up to the current state of affairs.

Deaf Patient: Well, that first pill you gave me last year was awful, made me itch all over, then the blue one made my headache worse, and this one made me feel dizzy in the morning. . . .

> Deaf patients often begin their discussion with the doctor by relating their relevant medical history starting at whatever point they consider to be the beginning in order to give the doctor enough context in which to view the present situation. Depending on how far back they start their narrative, the doctor may become impatient waiting for the patient to get to the point.

EDUCATIONAL MEETING

Hearing Professor: I am glad you came in to discuss your paper. Hmmm. . . your choice of topic is fine, you have a few good examples. . . but I do have some concerns about your thesis. . . . I'm not sure it is strong enough to support a paper of this length.

> The professor uses the "sandwich approach" to soften a negative remark by starting with a positive comment.

Deaf Student: You mean, make the thesis statement longer?

> Student is unsure of Professor's point about the paper. Deaf culture is often direct when imparting a critical statement, and a problem may be stated immediately.

Hearing Professor: Well.. . that certainly is one option. But I would really like to see some restructuring. So play around with the thesis statement and let it inform the rest of your paper. Oh, and you need to clean up your punctuation.

First statement is a subtle way of saying that it takes more to improve a thesis than just making it longer.

"Play around with the thesis" is a vague but ominous statement which hints at the possibility that the entire paper may have to be redone.

Deaf Student: Oh, the punctuation, yes, I know I have trouble with commas and semicolons. Sure, I will work on that. So you think the rest of the paper is okay?

The student finds it helpful to hear a concrete example at last, but is still unsure if the teacher's basic take on the paper is positive or negative.

Hearing Professor: Uh. . .let's just say it's on the right track. Tackle these things I've mentioned, and I'm sure your paper will be fine.

The last slice of "positive bread" on the feedback sandwich.

Deaf Student: (to Interpreter after Professor has left) Whew! I'm relieved! He thinks my paper will be fine.

JOB INTERVIEW

Hearing Interviewer: Why do you want this job?

Although this seems like a simple, straightforward question, it is part of the mainstream American job interview game. Employers are not necessarily looking for honest answers. They expect applicants to try to present themselves in the best possible light.

Deaf Applicant: I need the money, and you have dental insurance. I have to get a couple of crowns.

Deaf applicants may not be aware of the rules of this unspoken game. Of course we all want a job for the salary and benefits we would receive, but in a typical hearing American job interview, no one is supposed to admit that up front. The seemingly direct question elicits this honest, direct answer, whch is not at all what the interviewer is expecting.

Although we may wish to focus our attention on the ways that cultural differences can impede communication, there are many factors in interpreted situations which are operating simultaneously and may interfere with a smooth exchange of information. Clearly, not all of these factors are our responsibility. Knowing exactly where to draw the line around culture may be ambiguous. Hopefully, this chart will make it easier to separate out which tasks we view as within the limits of our function.

Interpreters' Borders of Responsibility

NO Too Micro Individual Differences	oclients' intentional rudeness *clients' emotional state (e.g., hysterical, nervous) oclients' personality (e.g., hypochondriac, stubborn) oclients' physical state (e.g., sick, tired, drunk) o------ •----—
YES Linguistic Differences Differences in Cultural Behaviors	*English to ASL, ASL to English (e.g. passis-e voice, rhetorical questions, classifiers) o------ ~politenessituals *start with specific or general •temporal point of reference — present, past, or future o------
NO Too Macro Society	*that there is discrimination in our society •that cultures have different values •inherent power differencesin roles (e.g., doctor/patient, lawyer/defendant) •unfamiliarity with cultural sets •------ o------

Are cultural adjustments necessary in every situation we interpret? The answer is clearly "No." But how do we decide when they are or are not needed? The following list may act as a starting point in the discussion of this question.

SIX FACTORS WHICH MAY MITIGATE THE NEED FOR MAKING CULTURAL ADJUSTMENTS IN INTERPRETING SITUATIONS

1) Parallelism — transaction is essentially the same in both cultures.

2) Deaf clients who do **not** identify with Deaf culture—even though sign language is their preferred mode of communication, they function in the mainstream culture.

3) Degree of biculturalism of the participants — some Deaf people have mastered the art of cultural code switching and may choose to follow hearing norms in certain situations. Conversely, some hearing people who may have some signing slulls and an academic knowledge or an interest in Deaf culture (e.g. researcher or a therapist) would want the exposure to elements of Deaf culture.

4) Ongoing relationship or one-time meeting? In an ongoing relationshp there will be many opportunities for the Deaf and hearing participants to associate with each other and figure out ways of communicating without the presence of an interpreter. e.g., a work site where an interpreter may be hired only for a monthly staff meeting. If the interpreter makes so many cultural adjustments that the Deaf person seems to have a whole new personality, the hearing workers may be puzzled. Another example of an ongoing relationshp would be a family gathering where many of the participants have known each other for years.

Much of our work, however, involves situations between people who may not see each other after this one meeting, such as an urgent doctor's appointment, or between people who may *see* each other several times but always with an interpreter present, such as a week of work-related training. In these situations, the participants may have no outside dormation on whch to enlarge their cultural perspective and may be more focused on achieving the goal of the meeting at hand than on really getting to know each other.

5) Special circumstances where the literal words or signs used by one or both participants carry special significance and must be preserved, e.g., an educational situation where a student will be tested on specific vocabulary or a mental health

session where it is imperative that the hearing therapist know exactly what the Deaf patient signed in order to assess the severity of a mental disorder.

6) **Presence of a Deaf Relay Interpreter.** The dynamics of the situation and relationshp of the participants are altered when a Deaf relay interpreter is used. In most cases, the hearing interpreter's main responsibility will be to pass on the spoken information to his or her Deaf co-interpreter, who will then make any necessary cultural adjustments in his or her communication with the Deaf client.

Even though every interpreting assignment is a unique combination of factors, by examining a few specific instances where cultural adjustments were successfully employed, we can then extrapolate some techniques the interpreters used and see how they could be used in many other situations.

SUCCESSFUL CULTURAL ADJUSTMENTSCENARIOS

"INFORMATION, PLEASE"

A meeting takes place between a foreign-born Deaf employee and his supervisor at the large store where they work. The supervisor is in charge of over 200 employees. The Deaf worker is upset, feeling that he had not been informed of the change from a weekly to biweekly pay schedule. The supervisor responds that a notice about the change in pay periods was posted in the break room. The worker's comments to the supervisor appear to be accusations, and if they were interpreted literally would come out something like: "You are trying to take advantage of me because I'm deaf. Why didn't you tell me about this change? Were you deliberately trying to keep this from me?"

The interpreter asks herself, "What is this really about?" The answer may reside in the preciousness of dormation and the difficulties a foreign-born Deaf person may have with accessing it in the workplace. So the interpreter voices the worker's comments as, "You know, I don't really notice the signs on the wall. English is my tlurd language and I don't read it well. It's very upsetting when I feel I am missing important information here at work. How can I find out about changes like this in the future?" To whch the supervisor, clearly understanding his employee's concerns asks, "What do you think would be a good plan for the future? Should I call in an interpreter every time there is such a change?" The worker, happy to be in charge of his own communication needs, responds, "No, that's not

necessary. I just need someone to sit down with me and show me on a calendar when I will get paid."

"MY, HOW YOU'VE CHANGED"

At a meeting between a Deaf client and her social security worker, the Deaf client's opening remark to her worker is, 'WOW YOU FAT NOW!" The relay interpreter, in this case, asks the Deaf client, "Do you mean that she looks different from the last time you saw her?" The client nods emphatically. The relay interpreter puts the woman's comment as, "I've noticed that there's a change in your appearance," intending to convey the caring attitude that was under the surface of the client's first comment. It also leaves it up to the hearing worker to elaborate on the comment or let it go.

"IT **ALL STARTED WHEN.. .."**

At a doctor's appointment, the interpreter is aware of a familiar pattern: the doctor asks the opening question expecting to get a short introduction to the patient's current concerns and is thrown off when the Deaf patient launches into a detailed chronological narration. So when the doctor says, "And what brings you here today?" the interpreter conveys a request for the patient to specifically relate what's wrong *now.* Nevertheless, the patient begins his comments, "Five years ago. . . ." The interpreter realizes that the need to supply the context must be very important to the patient, and begins voicing, "Doctor, I need to explain a few things first to give you some background. Five years ago. . . ."

Let us look at these three scenarios and analyze what took place. I believe that in each case the participants' intentions were accurately conveyed. Not only did the interpreters not take over, but also by their slullful handling of the situations and elimination of cultural red herrings, they allowed the participants themselves to control their transactions. Without getting derailed by culturally different ways of communicating, each discussion came to a satisfactory conclusion. (This is not to say that successful cultural adjustment means that all participants must leave every meeting totally satisfied. Sometimes if we do our job well, the participants come to see just how different their opinions and goals really are.)

Awareness and anticipation Seem to be key ingredients in recipes for successful interpretation. In each scenario the interpreter demonstrated an awareness of the cultural factors and anticipated what might have happened had he or she not made a cultural adjustment. In "Information, Please," the interpreter anticipated that a literal rendering of the employee's comments might have caused an emotionally defensive reaction from the supervisor, which would have halted communication. In "My, How You've Changed," the relay interpreter foresaw that the deaf woman's comment would sound extremely insulting to her worker. In "It All Started When. . . ," the interpreter, correctly anticipating a common cultural mismatch, tried to take preventative action. When that did not bring about the desired response, he was flexible enough to try another technique. I want to emphasize that the choices made by the interpreters above were not the only possible solutions. There are many options which could have produced similar results. *Also,* the same situations with different clients would probably have led these interpreters to make different choices. The point is that the interpreters saw as their paramount responsibility that communication and understanding take place, unimpeded by cultural differences.

One of my goals is to install a "cultural early warning system" in your brain which will light up to signal a possible cultural misunderstanding. One way to ascertain if there is indeed a need for cultural adjustment is to go through a mental checklist, asking yourself if any of the following elements are present. (Feel free to add your own questions to this list).

1. Does there seem to be an intention of *rudeness?* If not, and I interpret the comment literally (without a cultural adjustment), will there be a perception of rudeness from the other party?
2. If the surface form of the comment seems to be troublesome, can I look for the ***function*** of the statement and convey that?
3. Are the points being presented in an *order* that the other person may find unclear?
4. Is there a *hidden* ***implication*** which I should make explicit? (Do I need to check it out first?)
5. Does this comment assume *prior knowledge* or *shared assumptions* which the other party may not possess?

6. Are participants leaving with basically *the same conclusion* that I came to?

After we have asked ourselves questions like those listed above and concluded that there does indeed seem to be a cultural difference which might get in the way of clear communication, the next question is surely, "What can I as the interpreter do about it?" I offer eight techniques for cultural adjustment, labeled so that we can discuss their relative merits for a given situation.

THE WAITING ROOM CHAT

Chatting with the Deaf client for a few minutes before the appointment gives us an opportunity to get a picture of the context, timeline of events, and main point from the Deaf client's perspective. The more an overview of the situation we obtain, the better will we be able to structure the Deaf client's comments in a way that is clear to the hearing client and vice versa.

Note of caution: take the information gleaned from the waiting room chat and hold on to it *lightly*. Once in the actual meeting, the Deaf client, just Like anyone else, has a right to change his or her mind, forget, or even lie about what he or she told us previously. The waiting room chat is a nice, but optional bonus. For a variety of reasons, the Deaf client may decline to give you a preview of the upcoming appointment.

TARGETED TRANSLATION

Cultural misunderstandings in interpreted settings can be broadly divided into two categories: those that stem from variations in *form* and from surprises in *content*. Quite often in a question-and-answer session, for example, if we pay attention to the expected form of the answer and structure our translations so they elicit the anticipated form, things will flow smoothly. **A** question might ask for a numerical response (How many times? How often?), a narration (What did you do after the accident?), or a description (What did it look like? What kind of pain did you feel?).

Also, the questioner expects an answer based on a certain time frame: the present (What is your current position?), the past (When did these headaches first start?), or the future (How will you pay for your college tuition?). The more we hone

our ASL skills to be able to target a specific kind of response to a question, the more we can eliminate misunderstandings based on form.

INOCULATED QUESTIONS

Medical inoculations often inject a person with a mild form of the unwanted disease in order to achieve immunity. Similarly, when the cultural tendencies are very strong, it can sometimes be effective to specifically state what kind of response you wish the respondent to avoid in his or her answer, for example, a question from English which asks for a yes or no response. Knowing that in ASL it is common to supply background or context in answering questions, it can be helpful to acknowledge that fact instead of just hoping it won't happen. In the following example, "Have you informed your supervisor of these problems with your coworker Joe?" you can predict the type of elaborative details the Deaf client may be tempted to add, but which may be more appropriate for a later time. Instead of ruling out any mention of these details, your inoculated question could specify that those will be asked about in a moment. One option is FINISH INFORM SUPERVISOR PROBLEM WITH J-O-E? (HAPPEN++ JOE BAWL-YOU-OUT, YOU MAD CLASH, *HOLD EXPLAIN* LATER) WANT KNOW SUPERVISOR YOU INFORM FINISH. YES, NO WHICH?

SIGNPOSTING AND ROAD MAPPING

Just as signs on the highway such as "Detour" and "Construction Zone" alert us that the road ahead is not what we anticipated, we can add phrases to our interpretations that clue in consumers that the statements to follow may not be in the form they expected. For hearing consumers, adding phrases such as, "Let me give you some background. . . ," or "I would like to go back to the beginning and explain how this all started. . . ," may help them wait patiently for the point or allow them to see why the Deaf consumer began his or her comments with details instead of an introductory statement.

What form would signposting take for Deaf consumers? A more visual analogy might be called "road mapping." Instead of adding an explanatory phrase, road mapping lays out a picture of the conversational journey ahead. Suppose that a hearing boss calls a Deaf worker and his hearing coworker into her office to resolve a conflict between them in the work environment. If the interpreter gets a sense of

the sequence of events to follow, either explicitly or implicitly from the boss, she can lay out a road map for the Deaf client (e.g., "First, Fred will tell his side of the story; then the boss will **ask** him some questions; then you will get your turn, and she will ask you some questions. Then you and Fred can **ask** each other any questions you have and **try** to come up with a mutually satisfactory solution.").

Very often in the type of meetings we are called upon to interpret, the Deaf person is not the one in power and does not have control over the order in which things are presented. The way a Deaf boss would structure the same meeting might very well differ from the hearing boss above. A road map does not grant you the ability to change the road ahead, but at least it tells you what to expect.

LOOK UNDER THE SURFACE FORM FOR THE FUNCTION

This is a critical skill that is not easily taught. What does it take to figure out what a person is *really* expressing? It calls for the intuition of a therapist, the clue-gathering skills of a detective, and a chess master's ability to see things from different points of view. One way to prepare for this task is to become familiar with basic functions of language acts such as requests for information, connection-building comments, criticisms, explanations, and so forth. Just as an actor working on a role looks for the intention behind each line, we, too, can analyze what is behind the lines we deliver.

To help us anticipate what the function of some of our Deaf clients' comments may be, we can refer to the most central values of Deaf culture. In the scenarios above, the interpreter in "Information, Please" looked below the surface form of the employee's comment and identified the intention as relating to the value of information, which is a major theme running through Deaf culture. In "My, How You've Changed," the interpreter saw the intention of the client's opening remark as connection building and interpreted it to retain that function, instead of insulting the intended target. Some other themes in Deaf culture we might want to keep in mind are the value of clear communication and sharing information about oneself and others, loyalty to the group, and the insider/outsider distinction.

On the other side, one of the most common confusions occurs when the hearing client expresses a veiled criticism or a negative remark that is covered in a

positive coating in order to make it more palatable. If we conclude that the underlying intent of a comment is critical, we should try to bring that out.

A note of caution: since divining the intent underlying a statement involves an intuitive guess, it is often a good idea to check out your hunch before proceeding. Note that the relay interpreter in "My, How You've Changed" did so. In another circumstance a more bicultural client could have conceivably answered, "Just interpret what I signed, it's this joke we have-every month we tease each other about being fat."

HIGHLIGHT THE POINT

We probably all have some kind of "third eye" that monitors our interpretations to see if we are communicating effectively. It may help us to identify the major point each of our clients is trying to make and mentally check that the point is getting across. The point may get lost due to a less direct style or different order of presenting arguments than the participants are used to. Some questions we can ask ourselves are, "Do I need to add an introduction, a conclusion, or a summary in order to bring out the point?" "Do I need to stress the important points through emphasis in the appropriate channel: vocal inflection, facial expression, sign choice, or repetition?"

Sometimes, you, as the interpreter, may have difficulty identifying the point. You may therefore choose just to relay the muddy thought and then translate the Deaf person's puzzled expression or the hearing person's "huh?" Or you may subtly insert a query for clarification of the point.

CONTEXT **BALANCING**

Shelley Lawrence, Anna Witter-Merithew, Theresa Smith, and other interpreter educators have noted that one of the major differences in discourse style between English and ASL is the latter's use of expansion, amplification, and elaboration. These include adding layers of detail, shifting perspective, and describing things by indicating what they are not. When interpreting from English to ASL, therefore, a common strategy is to increase the amount of context, making use of these features.

English discourse structure, in comparison, is more linear. Where the point in ASL may be implicitly understood from the accumulation of details, in English the point of a lecture or a large chunk of discourse is usually stated explicitly at the outset. In ASL one clarifies a concept by demonstrating it, acting it out, showing how it works. In English, a label (word, phrase, or technical term) is often sufficient. In other words, when interpreting from ASL to English, we may often need to reduce the amount of context in order to make it sound appropriate in English.

Another type of context balancing occurs when there is a reference to cultural information which one party erroneously assumes the other party shares. For example, hearing Americans make reference to many aural aspects of their culture without thinking twice. Theme songs from television shows and famous lines from TV commercials or popular songs are woven into everyday conversations. Interpreters usually cannot explain the entire reference, but a parenthetical "G-I-L-L-I-G-A-N'S ISLAND (an old TV show from the 60s)" helps clarify a little. By the same token, references to artifacts of Deaf culture such as "TTY," "residential school," "relay service," or "NAD" may need a parenthetical short explanation to bring hearing consumers up to speed.

A cautionary note: Sometimes the other party's ignorance of the cultural reference becomes the whole point of the rest of the conversation. In her teleconference, Eileen Forestal mentions a job interview during which the Deaf applicant was asked if he had any last questions for the employer. The applicant asked "YOU HAVE TTY HERE?" to which the interpreter with all good intentions added "(a telecommunications device that deaf people use to talk on the phone)." That added clarification essentially ruined the Deaf person's strategy, which was to check out the level of awareness of this prospective employer.

PUTTING OURSELVES IN THE DEAF PERSON'S SHOES: CUES AND BACK-CHANNEL FEEDBACK

If we were raised in mainstream American culture, it would be a lot easier for us to put ourselves in the hearing person's shoes than the Deaf person's. We have internalized the expectations for structuring discourse in mainstream American settings. When an internal sensor tells us, "That comment will be counter to this hearing person's expectations," we can signpost accordingly. Depending on our

amount of involvement in the Deaf community, however, we may be more or less able to see h n g s from our Deaf clients' perspective.

There are a few features of ASL discourse which are readily apparent. The receiver of the communication is involved in active listening (often called back-channel feedback), which includes head nods and signs such as UH-HUH, and nose wrinkle-YES. While interpreting, if we feel that the hearing person is listening silently, yet attentively, albeit with a blank face, we may consciously or unconsciously supply the missing back-channel feedback to the Deaf client.

Speaking of silence, is interpreting silences part of our job? After all, what is there to convey? Actually, there can be quite a lot. Silence in different cultures has many meanings. In American mainstream culture, which typically avoids long pauses, silences perform several functions. There is the silence of respectful attention, the silence of thinking before answering, and the silence that follows an emotionally intense announcement, to name only a few. That we usually have no trouble knowing which is which shows how attuned we are to our own culture. Conveying to Deaf clients the function of the silence not only prevents them from interrupting an already full moment, but also gives them clues to the aural mood.

IMPORTANCE OF **CUES**

Besides silences, there are other aspects of a conversation whose purposes may not be explicit. As a hearing person is getting ready to wrap up a meeting, clues of this intention are clearly present in vocal inflection and body language. For example, if our sign rendition of the hearing person's repeated "Okay. . . okay. . . okay" does not convey the intention of ending the conversation we know to be present from their heavy exhalation of breath and the rustling of papers, we may need to add the sign FINISH to state explicitly that the conversation is now concluded.

Although we may feel that the conveying of information back and forth is the goal of our interpreting, many Deaf people have told me that often they consider cues to the emotional undertones to be of equal or greater importance than the content of the information. In ASL, affect is often conveyed by facial expression, at whch we may or may not be natively proficient. Sometimes, it may be necessary, therefore, for us to add an explicit comment to make sure that the affect is getting

across. Since we are not psychologists, it may be safer to preface this comment with SEEMS (e.g., SEEMS ANGRY, SEEMS UPSET).

I hope that this presentation has whetted your appetite to explore more ways in which the intercultural perspective can enhance our understanding of our challenging profession. Please view my suggestions regarding cultural adjustments as a starting point and feel free to work with them. I look forward to an exchange of ideas.

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NATIONAL MULTICULTURAL INTERPRETER PROJECT: RESULTS OF THE FALL 1997 STUDENT DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY OF INTERPRETER PREPARATION & ASL / DEAF STUDIES PROGRAMS

Mary L. Mooney,
NMIP Project Director

PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

Currently approximately one out of every four persons in the United States is not from a Euro-American/White background, and it is projected that in the near future this figure will be one of every three. The current statistics, regarding the demographics of the sign language profession, in So You Want To Be An Interpreter quoted Kanda's research as finding 96% of the interpreting field to be Euro-American/white. (Humphrey & Alcom, 1995) If the profession of sign language interpreters is going to become more diverse, then the interpreter preparation programs are critical links in the development of the future professionals who are now "in the pipeline." Many other fields at colleges in several states have noticed a significant decline in minority student enrollment in the aftermath of the anti-affirmative action court cases and legislation. Our field must take some "affirming actions" if we wish to continue our multicultural initiatives to better serve our multicultural and multilingual consumers. Interpreter education programs must accept and embrace the collective and individual opportunity and responsibility to develop viable recruitment efforts to attract, and, more importantly, retain talented students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. One of the first questions raised is "How many students from culturally and lingustically diverse backgrounds are currently enrolled in ASL/Deaf Studies or interpreter education programs?" The second question is "How many of these students are retained, graduate, and successfully enter the field?" This survey was designed in an effort to quantify the first question. It was expected that given more accurate data on the current student populations, programs would be motivated to initiate specific recruitment and retention programs to attempt to *close* the gap. In order to establish reasonable and achievable recruitment goals, the NMIP project attempted to assist all existing interpreter preparation programs obtain a research "snapshot" of their current enrollment. This enrollment, when compared to the national demographic patterns, their state, and local demographic projections and their current college's and program's

demographic profile will provide a basis for establishing recruitment goals that are in keeping with their own community needs and demand for interpreters from cultural and linguistically diverse backgrounds. The project wishes to thank all the programs that participated and made this first effort possible.

PROCEDURE

During the fall semester of 1997, The National Multicultural Interpreter Project sent out "Student Demographic Profile" cover letters and student demographic survey forms. (See Appendix **A.)** One hundred and eight (108) packages were sent out to the programs throughout the ten RSA interpreter regions. ***Of*** those 108 programs, 57 (53%) responded to the survey. The responding programs included ASL Studies, Deaf Studies, and Interpreter Preparation Programs that represented certificate, 2-year, or 4-year programs. Students were allowed to participate anonymously or provide individual names and contact information for follow-up studies. Although the project was anticipating a 100% response rate, 43% of the programs did not respond. Several reasons for this non-response are possible. For whatever the possible reasons, the results cannot be generalized to the individual program level or the entire nation. There are some non-reporting programs that probably have a higher proportion of "minority" students, and other programs that may have almost an entirely Euro-American/white population. Only one program sent back a letter of non-response; and this was a program that self reported as over 96% "white." In addition, since the survey was taken after the semester was in progress, individual programs may have already experienced some student attrition and had individual students who were not present the day(s) the survey was completed. Some regions have most programs responding; some regions are missing quite a few substantial programs. However, the number of programs participating was large enough and consistent enough across the ten regions to provide a good general estimate of the current national demographics of our student populations.

SUMMARY OF SURVEY DATA

The NMIP collected the surveys and hand counted the responses. Tlus process was more labor intensive than originally anticipated. The data was divided into regions, listing the programs who responded and those who did not respond. Programs will be

able to see their individual and regional patterns. The number of females and males, as well as both combined, are listed under each of the following: Euro American/White, Hispanic/Latino, Asian American/Pacific Islander, African American/Black, Native American/Alaskan, Multicultural/Multi-Ethnic, and no responses. Percentages were calculated and charts were created to illustrate the percentages for each region.

There were 2369 unduplicated students who responded through the survey from 57 unduplicated programs. As of the fall 1997 semester/quarter, there were 543 students (or 22.9%) from traditionally under represented populations. The following table shows the totals and percentages of the responding students.

Table 1. Percentage of Responding Students by Ethnic Identification

Race	Total	Percentage
Euro American/White	1766	74.5%
Hispanic/Latino (a)	214	9.0%
Asian American/Pacific Islander	22	0.9%
American Indian/Alaskan Native	27	1.1%
African American/Black	197	8.3%
Multicultural/Multi-ethnic	83	3.5%
No Response	60	2.5%

Table 2 National Comparison: Based on U.S. Census Data 7/1/98

	Total is in Thousands	All Races	Euro American/ White	African American/ Black	American Indian/ Alaskan Native	Asian American/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic/ Latino (a)	Multiracial
United States Demographic Profile	*Total*	270,029	195,213	32,659	1799	9,764	30,965	*Not an available category*
	Percentage	100%	72.3%	12.1%	.7%	3.6%	11.3%	
Demographic Profile of the 57/108 Reporting Programs	*Total*	2369	1796	214	27	22	214	83
	Percentage	100%	74.5%	9.0%	1.1%	.9%	9.0%	3.5%
Percentage +/- Variance			*-2.2*	*-3.1*	*+.4*	*-2.7*	*-2.0*	*+3.5 (*)*

(*) This is a group of students who self-identified as multiracial/multiethnic. The U.S. Census does not provide for this category. If this choice were not available; this percentage would increase the other racial/ethnic categories individually.

INDIVIDUAL PROGRAM COMPARISONS

The next level—and more significant—comparison can be conducted by the individual program. For those programs that participated, regional and individual comparisons are possible. (See Appendix B.) Utilizing the program's demographic profile, this next level comparison would compare the program's individual demographics to that of their own college, and of their geographical/state service area. From this comparison, an achievable recruitment program could be designed. Programs that may wish to undergo critical self-analysis are those whose profile is not in proportion to their service profile. The attached form may facilitate an individual program review and recruitment planning.

Pending the more close approximation of the current "pipeline" of students to the national demographics, the second question of retention and graduation becomes more critical to changing the "face" of the profession. The National Multicultural Interpreter Project is currently surveying current and former students to determine the level of professional success achieved and to identify any barriers to their entry into and success in the field. This will provide a qualitative report of their educational and professional experience.

The NMIP Project would like to express its appreciation to all the coordinators, faculty, and students who participated in this survey. A special thank you to Patricia Delgado, NMIP Support Staff, who hand tabulated the thousands of responses.

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U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division on www.census.gov

APPENDIX A

NATIONAL MULTICULTURAL INTERPRETER PROJECT

RSA Grant # H160c50004

FALL 1997-STUDENT DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The following optional and voluntary personal demographic information would greatly assist the National Multicultural Interpreter Project determine national demographic trends. Please have the student complete all information. Please complete one survey per student.

Male Female

Hearing Hard of Hearing Deaf Deaf-Blind Other Disability _____

Cultural/Ethnic Identity (s): *(Please check all that apply)*

African American/Black Hispanic/Latino Asian American/Pacific Islander

Euro American/White Multicultural/Multi-ethnic Specify: _____/_____

Native American/Alaskan (Nation/Tribe) _____ Other: _____

Country of Origin: United States Other: (Please identify) _____

Language Profile:

(1) Please indicate: Native/First Language.

Enghh Spanish ASL (American Sign Language) Other: _____

(2) Are you proficient in any other languages. Please identify:

Other Spoken Languages _____ Other Signed Languages ___

_____

(3) Do you consider yourself conversationally:

Bilingual: English/ASL Bilingual: Spanish/English Bilingual: Spanish/ASL

Bilingual: _____/_____ Trilingual: ASL/English/Spanish Trilingual: ASL/English/____

Educational Background *(Please check all fhat apply)*

I currently have:

- ASL Courses or Certificate
- Interpreting Certificate
- A.A. or A.A.S. Degree in _____
- Bachelors in: _____
- Masters in: _____
- Postgraduate: _____

I am worlung towards:

- ASL Courses or Certificate
- Interpreting Certificate
- A.A. or A.A.S. Degree/ Interpreting
- A.A. or A.A.S. Degree: other
- Bachelors in: _____
- Masters in. _____
- Postgraduate: _____

Educational Goals: Sign Language Interpreter Interpreter Educator Other _____

Currently enrolled in American Sign Language / Interpreter Program:

Non-degree or Certificate	First year student (1-30 hrs.)	Full time (12 hrs. or more)
2 year program	Second year student (30-60 hrs.)	Part time (less than 12 hrs.)
4 year program	Third year student (60-90 hrs.)	
Postgraduate	Fourth year student (90-120 plus hrs.)	

National Multicultural Interpreter Project
Student Database - Optional Information

The National Multicultural Interpreter Project *(NMIP)* is currently building a network for a multicultural/multilingual student database. If you would like for NMIP to be able to contact you for further information or research regarding increasing the quantity and quality of interpreters from culturally diverse communities, please fill out the information below.

Name_____

College/Program _____

Address _____ City _____ State ____ Zip _____

Work Number ( ) _____ V TTY Home Number ( ) _____ V TTY

Yes, Please add my name to the NMIP database. Signature _____

INTERPRETING 098: REMEDIATION, UPGRADING, OR SKILL BUILDING.. . WHATEVER YOU CALL IT, IT'S NEEDED!

Caroline Preston
National Center on Deafness: CSUN
Northridge, **CA**

ABSTRACT

The goal of this presentation is to conduct an open discussion about the products of interpreter training programs (ITPs) and how adequately prepared their graduates are for employment.

The discussion will center on several questions: What is expected of an ITP graduate? Are ITP graduates truly job ready? Generally, what are the strengths and weaknesses of ITP graduates? Why are there such apparent gaps between graduation and employment? What *specifically* is missing? How do service provision programs bridge these gaps? Are we successful in doing *so?*

Following an open discussion, presenters will propose a workable solution which will facilitate the development of new interpreters, skills in the employment arena. The goal of this presentation is to offer a mechanism for closing the graduation-to-employment gap by illuminating individual ITP and ITPs current curriculum. The result of such coordination between ITPs and employers will be a greater pool of effectively trained graduates ready to transition into employment.

FORMAT

The format of this session will be a lecture/open discussion with examples and anecdotes from a nationally recognized interpreter in-service program offering a variety of skill-enhancement opportunities. Participants will spend time in discussion of a proposed collaborative internship/practicum concept for IT??and interpreter in-semice programs.

LEGAL RIGHT TO COMMUNICATION ACCESS: GUIDELINES FOR INSERVICING EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETERS

Toni Rees, Ph.D.

In this session, we will examine the legal right to access to communication in various situations involving children, adult students, and parents who are deaf or hard of hearing. We will note the extent of requirements for interpreter services under three major laws: Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1990, revised in 1997. After reviewing the laws we will break into small groups for discussions about the right to full access to communication in some real life situations. We will conclude with a review of court decisions that illustrate current parameters of the provision of interpreter services and have time for more discussion at the end.

In the August/September 1998 issue of Views, the President of Utah Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) wrote about interpreters being vulnerable to law suits if we do not report child abuse and the importance of knowing the laws of the state in which we work. At the RID National Convention in Long Beach (1997), Brenda Seal stated that educational interpreters.have an important role in teaching consumerism, that is protecting the rights of consumers. In order for interpreters to protect the rights of consumers, and teach consumerism, it is necessary to have a firm grasp of the laws and regulations that underpin education. Without such knowledge interpreters may unwittingly contribute to existing confusion and misinformation about rights and responsibilities. Sometimes naively trying to be supportive of a member of the Deaf Community unwittingly encourages action that does not have a legal basis. Interpreters need to know fundamental concepts in law such as the current meanings of "otherwise qualified," "reasonable accommodation," and the standards for providing an "appropriate" education. The knowledgeable interpreter is less likely to worsen a relationship between an agency, for example, a school and a deaf consumer who is angry because of limited interpreter services.

Well, who am I to talk about these issues? As some of you can hear from the way I speak, I originally came from England where I was a teacher of the deaf.

About twenty years ago I came to the States to "visit" Gallaudet University and ended up staying. I obtained my Ph.D. in special education administration from Gallaudet and since then I have also completed an interpreter preparation program at Northeastern University in Boston. I am currently an interpreter, a due process hearing officer for the State of Maine, a Complaint Investigator for the Maine Department of Education, and an Associate Professor of Special Education in the State of Maine University system.

In preparing for this presentation I struggled with whether to use the "people first" language currently in vogue, by referring to "individuals who are deaf" rather than "Deaf individuals." Consumers of interpreting services are both hearing and deaf. Many are not culturally and linguistically Deaf. In reviewing cases for this presentation I was not sure which individuals were, or are, culturally Deaf, and who happened to be deaf. The construction Deaf/deaf seemed too awkward so I decided to use the word "deaf" and apologize for any offense to members of the Deaf Community. I have also sometimes put the word "deaf" first as in "deaf parents" and "deaf children" so have generally offended political correctness.

Today, people with disabilities—and yes, that is how the law defines individuals who are deaf—have more legal rights than ever before. As interpreters and interpreter educators here today, I am sure you have been involved in hot discussions where deaf and hard of hearing individuals affirm their "legal rights." Some of you attended the series of conferences in the Northeast examining what it means for interpreters to be allies to the Deaf Community. We do not spend the whole of our waking lives moving our hands and actually interpreting. As allies, I believe interpreters have a serious role in supporting consumers in advocating for the right to full access to communication. The presentation does not resolve how professional interpreters can ethically use knowledge of the law. The point of this presentation is that interpreters need to know about the legal parameters of our own profession.

Most of the real life cases we will review involve a struggle to obtain or be reimbursed for interpreter services. One or two cases are not directly interpreting cases but illustrate important terms.

SITUATIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Frances Davis, a severely hard of hearing young woman applied to college in North Carolina and was refused admission because she is deaf. Is this legal?
2. Mr. and Mrs. Rothschild were deaf parents from upstate New York. **A** public high school refused to provide or pay for an interpreter at their daughter's graduation ceremony. What are the parent's legal rights to full communication access to attend extra curricular activities such as a graduation ceremony?
3. A young deaf girl called Amy was making progress in school, but she only understood about half of what was said in the classroom and with an interpreter she could have done much better. The school refused interpreter services for Amy. Does Amy have a legal right to full access to communication with her teacher and others in class?
4. A deaf parent planned to attend a parent- teacher conference at a school in California. The school said the parent must either use the school's teacher of the deaf as an interpreter or go without. The parent refused and asked for a professional interpreter. Does the parent have a legal right to full communication access?
5. Annie was a profoundly deaf eight-year old who lived in Ohio. She attended all regular education classes with a sign language interpreter, but wanted to also enroll in an extra curricular gymnastics course and the parent requested an interpreter. The school refused. Does Annie have a legal rights to full communication access?
6. Two deaf parents attended an Open House at their hearing daughter's school in Chicago. The hearing daughter, who knew some signs, acted as interpreter because the school refused to provide interpreter services. Do the parents have a legal right to full communication access?
7. A deaf mother wanted to attend school board meetings at her daughter's school. The school district refused to provide or pay for interpreter services. Does the deaf mother have a legal right to require interpreter services at board meetings?
8. The hearing parents of three deaf children challenged the system of sign used in their local school district in the state of Nebraska. The school used a modified Signing Exact English (SEE) sign language system to teach the children and

implement their educational program. Do parents have the right to determine which system of sign the school must use to educate their children?

9. The usual school interpreter was on maternity leave for two months and the school said no other qualified interpreters were available. If a deaf child has no interpreter for two months, is there legal recourse (compensation) for missing out on interpreter services?

I would like you to turn to one or two people sitting near you and take five minutes to consider the first three questions. Do you think the answer is simply that these individuals do have the legal right to complete access to communication? Or what legal factors have to be considered?

(5 minutes for discussion)

Let's review the laws and find out what happened in the first three situations. After that we will consider some of the other cases in small groups. We will conclude with reflections on factors to consider when facing questions about the legal right to communication access.

Three laws provide the foundations for the provision of interpreter services. These are as follows:

1. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, specifically Section 504.
2. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990.
3. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 revised in 1997 (IDEA).

REHABILITATION ACT OF 1973, SECTION 504

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, specifically Section 504 is a civil rights anti-discrimination law. It is very short and states that

> No otherwise qualified individual with a disability in the United States. . . shall, solely by reasons of his or her disability, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or any activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Section 504, 29 U.S.C. Section 794(a)).

Public school districts are recipients of Federal financial assistance and are, therefore, subject to Section 504 and its regulation.

At first reading Section 504 sounds very simple. It seems to mean that public schools are not allowed to discriminate against people with disabilities, but let's break the law apart to see the meaning of saying that a person is protected from discrimination if they are:

- an "individual with a disability'' and
- "otherwise qualified."

As the definition relates to interpreter services, an "individual with a disability" is someone with "a physical or mental impairment which substantially limits one or more of such a person's major life activities" (Section 504, 29 U.S.C. section 706(7)(B)). Hearing is considered to be a major life activity, thus people who are deaf or hard of hearing are considered to have a disability and are qualified for protection under Section 504.

"Otherwise qualified" is a little more complicated. A qualified individual with a disability, with respect to public elementary and secondary education services, is a person with a disability of an age during which persons without disabilities are provided or are required to be provided such services (Section 504 at 34 C.F.R.104.3(k)(2)). In Maine that means the state must provide a free appropriate public education to a "student with a disability," that is an individual who

A. Has reached the age of 5 years on or before October 15;

B. Has neither graduated from a secondary school program nor reached 20 years of age at the start of the school year; and

C. Has a disability, which adversely affects the student's educational performance and requires the provision of special education services in order that the student may benefit from an elementary or secondary educational program (Maine Special Education Regulations, Section 3.1).

A qualified person with respect to services outside public schools is a person with a disability who meets the essential eligibility requirements for receipt of the services in question (34 C.F.R. Section 104.3(k)(4)). To figure out what that means, let's look at the first question I posed about Frances Davis, a young woman with a severe hearing loss who applied to college and was refused admission because she was deaf. I asked whether that was legal.

Scenario **#1:** Frances Davis Refused Admission (Section 504) (Southeastern Community College, 1979)

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the accompanying regulations prohibit discrimination in recruitment, admission, and treatment of students in post secondary education programs and activities, including vocational education. However, people with disabilities must be "otherwise qualified'' in order to be protected under the Act. One of the most famous cases defining "otherwise qualified" involved Frances Davis a woman who was severely hard of hearing who wanted to train as a registered nurse. Ms. Davis applied for admission to the nursing program in Southeastern Community College. She met the academic requirements to be admitted and went for an interview with one of the nursing faculty. During the interview it was clear Ms. Davis had difficulty understanding questions asked and she explained that she depended on her hearing aid. She was advised to consult an audiologist. The audiologist recommended a change in her hearing aid. With the new hearing aid Ms. Davis could hear some sounds in the environment but still needed *to* speech read. The College rejected her application for admission because they believed her hearing disability made it unsafe for her to practice as a nurse. Ms. Davis appealed against the decision. The entire nursing staff of the college assembled and voted to deny admission to Ms. Davis. Ms Davis filed suit in district court in North Carolina.

Question: Was Ms. Davis ''otherwise qualified" to attend nursing school? (Did she meet essential eligibility requirements?)

Answer: The district court in North Carolina confirmed the findings of the audiologist that even with a hearing aid Ms. Davis could not understand speech except through lip-reading, and further found that "[I]n many situations such as an operating room, intensive care unit, or post-natal care unit, all doctors and nurses wear surgical masks which would make lip-reading impossible. Additionally, in many situations a Registered Nurse would be required to instantly follow the physician's instructions concerning procurement of various types of instruments and drugs where the physician would be unable to get the nurse's attention by other than vocal means." (424 F. Supp.1343 (1976)).So the court found that the college did not have to accept Frances Davis.

Ms. Davis appealed against the decision of the district court to the Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit. The Fourth Circuit Court reversed the decision of the district court and ordered the college to modify its nursing program to accommodate people with disabilities even if modifications were expensive.

The college appealed against that order to the U.S. Supreme Court. The U.S. Supreme Court reversed the decision of the circuit court and defined "otherwise qualified." The Supreme Court said that an "otherwise qualified" person is one who is able to meet all of a program's requirements in spite of his or her handicap and went on to say that educational institutions do not have to make substantial modifications to their programs to allow persons with disabilities to participate. An otherwise qualified person is "[w]ith respect to post secondary and vocational education services, a handicapped person who meets the academic and technical standards requisite to admission or participation in the [school's] educational program or activity....." 45 CFR 84.3 (k)(3) (1978). Additionally the Supreme Court determined in the Davis case that making reasonable accommodations to permit access to persons with disabilities should not impose "undue financial and administrative burdens" (Southeastern Community College, *442 U.S.* at *412-13). So* Francis Davis was not permitted to enter the nursing program.

One of the lessons of this case is how courts define the beginning and ending of individuals' legal rights. Understanding the progression of appeals through the court system is important. There are about 100 district courts in the United States, at least one in each state. When people lose a case in district court they can appeal to a circuit court. If circuit court rulings in one region have resulted in the provision of interpreter services, that ruling indicates that the same decision is likely to hold in similar circumstances within the same circuit. *So,* for example, Utah is in the Tenth Circuit Court, as are Wyoming, Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. When the Tenth Circuit Court renders a legal ruling, that is binding on all other states in the region. Sometimes the various circuit courts of appeal facing the same legal issue reach very different determinations. In that case the U.S. Supreme Court is likely to consider a case and make a decision that will be binding throughout the nation.

As in the Davis case, Frances Davis brought her case to the district court. When she did not agree with the decision of the district court Ms. Davis appealed to

the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals that has jurisdiction over North Carolina. The circuit court reversed the decision of the district court and said Ms. Davis could be admitted to the college. The college disagreed with that decision and appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. A decision by the Supreme Court is final. In this case the Supreme Court gave us the decision that defines "otherwise qualified." For an adult this definition means the person meets basic standards for participation.

In cases involving children who are deaf or hard of hearing there is a similar progression of legal actions. Parents of children receiving special education who disagree with school systems have a right to challenge schools by contacting their state departments of education and asking for a due process hearing **(34** CFR section 300.506).The state department of education appoints a hearing officer who acts like a judge to decide the case. At the due process hearing, witnesses for the parents and witnesses for the schools testify. Many documents are reviewed by the hearing officer. At the end of two or three days of listening to the different points of view the hearing officer goes away and makes a determination about the future education of the deaf child. The whole process from the time the parents or school ask for a hearing to the time the hearing decision is rendered by the hearing officer should be no more than 45 days.

Sometimes the parents or the school disagree with the decision of the hearing officer. In about half the states there is a second review by the state department of education. In other states, like Maine, if the parents or school disagree with the hearing officer, they may appeal the decision through the courts.

Scenario #**2:** Deaf Parents **Ask** for Interpreter at School Activities and Meetings (Section 504) (Rothschild, 1990)

Kenneth and Karen Rothschild were deaf parents of two hearing children. The parents used American Sign Language (ASL) as their primary means of communication. The school invited the Rothschilds to attend meetings with their children's teachers, counselors and also to attend various group events like "Back to School Night" orientation meeting at their children's schools. On numerous occasions the Rothschilds asked the school district to provide or pay for interpreter services. Some of the events the Rothschilds wanted to attend were school-initiated activities and some were extracurricular activities. The Rothschilds spent $2,000

paying for their own interpreters. When they sent the interpreting bills to the school, the school refused to pay. The school did provide special seating arrangements for the Rothschilds and their interpreter.

Questions: 1. Were the Rothschilds "individuals with disabilities"? 2. Were the Rothschilds "otherwise qualified"? 3. Were the Rothschilds asking for "reasonable accommodations'' by asking a public school to provide or pay for interpreter services at: a) school-initiated meetings, for example with teachers, and b) extracurricular activities such as a graduation ceremony?

Answer: The court found that the Rothschilds were "individuals with disabilities" and they were "otherwise qualified" meaning that they met the eligibility standard as they were deaf, used ASL for communication and could effectively participate in school meetings with an interpreter so were entitled to protection under Section 504. They were entitled to "meaningful access'' to the activities that the school district offers parents. However the court determined there were "two powerful but countervailing considerations—the need to give effect to the statutory objectives and the desire to keep section 504 within manageable bounds.'' In this case, "the parents inability to participate effectively in school activities without the assistance of an interpreter obligated the district under Section 504 to make reasonable accommodations during such programs" (Rothschild v. Grottenthaler, 1990).

As a side note, I am sure you will have noted the perspective of the court that it is the deaf parents who have a problem because they are unable to communicate, rather than the perspective that school personnel have a problem because they are unable to communicate! The issue for us to keep in mind is what are the "reasonable accommodations" that have to be made? The Supreme Court determined in the Davis case that accommodations to permit access to persons with disabilities should not impose undue financial and administrative burdens. Programs and agencies are not "required to make 'fundamental' or 'substantial' modification to accommodate the handicapped" (Alexander, 469 U.S. at 300).

The court balanced between the rights of the Rothschilds and the financial and administrative concerns of the school district, and limited the scope of activities for which the school district would be required to provide a sign language interpreter. The Rothschilds entitlement was limited to

> "school-initiated conferences incident to the academic and/or disciplinary aspects of their child's education. To the extent that the plaintiffs wish to voluntarily participate in any of the plethora of extra-curricular activities that their children may be involved in, we think they, like other parents, must do so at their own expense" (Rothschild v. Grottenthaler, 1990).

Thus the Rothschilds were entitled to interpreter services to activities directly involving their children's academic and/or disciplinary progress, but the school was not required to subsidize their participation in extracurricular activities. Using this line of argument, graduation was not seen as directly related to a child's academic and/or disciplinary progress and the school was not ordered to provide a sign language interpreter at a child's graduation ceremony.

These examples shed some light on limitations of rights under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act. Let's turn to the ADA.

AMERICANS WITH DISABILITIES ACT (ADA)

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 builds on the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 by extending protection against discrimination by "public entities" that is state and local governments, and any privately owned business or facility open to the public like restaurants, hotels, shops, etc. Whereas Section 504 prohibited discrimination by programs and activities receiving Federal financial assistance, the ADA provides that

> no qualified individuals with a disability shall, by reason of such disability, be excluded from participation in or be denied the benefits of the services, programs, or activities of a **public entity,** or be subjected to discrimination by any such entity (42 U.S.C. section 12132).

An important difference between Section 504 and the ADA is that the ADA applies to private schools.

Regulations implementing the ADA provide that

(1) A public entity shall furnish appropriate auxiliary aids and services where necessary to afford an individual with a disability an equal opportunity to

participate in, and enjoy the benefits of, a service, program or activity conducted by a public entity.

(2) In determining what type of auxiliary aid and service is necessary, a public entity shall give primary consideration to the requests of the individual with disabilities. (28 C.F.R. section 35.160(b)).

"Auxiliary aids" are defined to include "qualified interpreters," which in turn, is defined as: an interpreter who is able to interpret effectively, accurately, and impartially, both receptively and expressively, using any necessary specialized vocabulary (28 C.F.R. section 34.104).

Under both the ADA and Section 504, when you are facing questions about the legal right to interpreter services, keep in mind the three concepts we have discussed:

1. Who is an "individual with a disability"?
2. Who is "otherwise qualified"?
3. What are "reasonable accommodations"?

Making reasonable accommodations refers to making a facility or program accessible and usable by consulting with consumers, for example, with deaf individuals and considering their preferences. However, accommodations that impose "undue hardship" on the public entity or require significant difficulty or significant expense are not required.

The final Act I want to review before moving into group exercises is IDEA,

INDIVIDUALS WITH DISABILITIES EDUCATION ACT (IDEA) REVISED, 1997

In 1975, Congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children's Act that specified how public schools were to educate all children with "handicaps." As you are aware, since that time many state schools have closed; and, today, most children who are deaf and severely hard of hearing attend public schools near their homes. In 1990, Congress passed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and in 1997 passed IDEA Revised. IDEA was built on previous laws and changed some of the public school obligations to meet the needs of both students and parents who are deaf and hard of hearing.

Providing a Free and Appropriate Public Education (FAPE) is at the heart of IDEA and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act. The purpose of IDEA is

> . . . to assure that all children with disabilities have available to them. . . a free and appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs. . . (20 U.S.C. sec 14000).

Special education is designed for each individual child by a team of people including a school administrator, regular and special education teachers, and the parents of the child who is receiving special education. The team develops an Individualized Education Program or IEP for each student.

Interpreters are involved in the delivery of special education:

- When parents are deaf or severely hard of hearing, interpreter functions include: a) transmitting information from school personnel to parents about their legal rights and b) enabling parents to be actively involved in the education of their children.
- When students are deaf or severely hard of hearing, interpreter duties include a) providing communication access in so far as that is possible and b) teaching consumerism.

The Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) of the U.S. Department of Education has produced several letters of policy guidance about the education of children who are Deaf or Hard of Hearing (17 EHLR 1107, 19 IDELR 463, Dagley, Letter to (Parent Training) (OSEP, 1991) Notice of Policy Guidance (FAPE/LRE) (ED, 1992). OSEP has noted that language and communication, particularly acquiring basic English skills, are the major barriers to learning associated with deafness. OSEP notes,

> the communication nature of the disability is inherently isolating, with considerable effect on the interaction with peers and teachers that make up the educational process. This interaction, for the purpose of transmitting knowledge and developing the child's self-esteem and identity, is dependent upon direct communication. Yet, communication is the area most hampered between a deaf child and his or her hearing peers and teachers. . . . Because deafness is a low incidence disability, there is not widespread understanding of its educational implications, even among special educators. This lack of knowledge and skills in our educational system contributes to the

already substantial barriers to deaf students in receiving appropriate educational services (OSEP, 1992).

How interpreters function in schools depends on two sets of factors. One set of factors is personal relating to a particular child who is the consumer, for example, the child's maturity, linguistic, and cognitive competence. The other set of factors is environmental relating to the class, for example, classroom activity, academic content, and a teacher's style. Brenda Schick (1998) explains that between the ages of three and a half and about five years, a normally developing child has a Theory of Mind. This means the child has a language that can represent events, can understand why people do what they do, and can predict what another individual is expected to do. Children need this level of sophistication in linguistic and cognitive development in order to understand that interpreters are not speaking or signing for themselves, but are presenting the message of another person. The act of interpreting makes the assumption that both parties have an adequate language and a Theory of Mind. School administrators and teachers are unlikely to know when interpreting will be effective. Educational interpreters need to: a) evaluate the interpretability of classes and b) inform the IEP Team about the effectiveness of interpreted communication. I recommend Betsy Winston's explanation about how to work with IEP Teams.

For our purposes in reviewing the legal right to communication access, we need to keep in mind that children who are consumers of interpreting services are unlikely to be able to advocate for themselves. Educational interpreters have the formidable task of separating their roles as interpreters and teachers of consumers and of behaving ethically within each role. We are not going to struggle with how to do that today. I will just say that IDEA contains procedural safeguards that require schools to inform parents about their rights so that they can play a knowledgeable and informed role in the education of their children. Parent's rights include the right to challenge a school about what is an appropriate education for their child.

Highly skilled and knowledgeable interpreters will be needed if schools are to meet their new obligations of schools under IDEA Revised:

- For mediation to resolve disputes when school personnel and parents disagree about the education of a child who is receiving special education.

- For young adults with disabilities (from age 14 years) to be actively involved in the development of transition plans to move them from school to work and adult living.
- For IEP Teams to consider for deaf or hard of hearing children, language and communication needs, and opportunities for communication in child's language and communication mode, including direct instruction in the mode.

Direct instruction means that the teacher must be fluent in the child's language. A burden will be on the interpreter to inform the IEP Team when interpreted communication is not effective.

The provisions of IDEA and the provisions of Section 504, and the ADA reinforce each other with regard to the rights of parents who are deaf. Under IDEA there is a stringent requirement to involve parents in any school meetings that impact programming and placement, whereas in the past parents had only to be invited to the Individualized Education Program "IEP" meetings. In other words, parents who are deaf whose children receive special education must be genuinely involved in the education of their children and are expected to be members of any special education decision making team. So a deaf parent with a hearing child who has a Learning Disability, or a Visual Impairment, or an Other Health Impairment, must be provided with effective interpreter services so that the deaf parent can negotiate with school personnel. Thus IDEA requires not only that each child who is identified for special education must be provided with an education appropriate to their unique learning needs that is a Free and Appropriate Public Education (FAPE), but that their parents also have rights and protections.

Let's consider one more of the questions I mentioned earlier, and then I will ask you to break into groups to discuss some other situations. After that we will come back together to review your determinations.

Scenario #3: School Refuses Interpreter for Amy (Board of Education, 1982)

One of the most famous cases in special education law involved a young deaf girl called Amy Rowley, who lived in Peekskill, New York. Amy attended a regular kindergarten class with an interpreter for a two-week experimental period. Amy understood less than half of what was said in the classroom; and when she entered

first grade, the Rowleys requested an interpreter in all her academic classes. Amy's interpreter believed that Amy did not need interpreter services as she could speech read well. The school agreed to provide her with a hearing aid. The school IEP team determined that an interpreter was not necessary.

Amy's parents requested a due process hearing. The hearing officer determined that Amy did not need an interpreter. The Rowleys appealed the decision to district court. The judge found Amy to be well adjusted, and she was doing better that the average child in her class. However, the court determined Amy "understands considerably less of what goes on in class than she could if she were not deaf"; and she was "not learning as much, or performing as well academically, as she would without her handicap" (Board of Education, 1982). The district court ordered that Amy should have an interpreter.

The School disagreed with the district court decision so they appealed to the Second Circuit Court of Appeals. The circuit court agreed with the district court that Amy should have an interpreter. The School appealed again, this time to the U.S. Supreme Court.

Question: Does Amy have a legal right to full access to communication with her teacher and others in her class?

Answer: The Rowley case is used to define the meaning of a "Free and Appropriate Public Education" (FAPE). The U.S. Supreme Court determined that Congress passed a law to make public education available to children with disabilities. That meant opening the door to education or providing a basic floor of opportunity, but not providing an equal educational opportunity to maximize potential. Lnstead children with disabilities are entitled to special education and that means personalized instruction with sufficient support services to permit the handicapped child to receive some educational benefit from the instruction.

Do you think that means the Court decided Amy was entitled to interpreter services?

The Supreme Court determined that Amy was receiving some benefit from being in school without interpreter services, and the Supreme Court decided that children with disabilities are only entitled to an education that is reasonably calculated to confer educational benefit. Children with disabilities are not entitled to

"an opportunity to achieve their full potential commensurate with the opportunity provided to other children." Amy was not entitled to interpreter services.

We are going to review several more scenarios. For Section 504 or ADA cases keep in mind these questions:

- Is the person an "individual with a disability" according to the law?
- Is the person "otherwise qualified"?
- Are interpreter services a "reasonable accommodation"?

For IDEA cases keep in mind this question:

- Are interpreter services a necessary part of an "appropriate education"?

Break into small groups of five or six people. Would each group choose and discuss two or three scenarios that you have not yet considered. For those of you reading these proceedings, I suggest you consider the scenarios and decide how you would respond to questions before reviewing answers.

Scenario #4: No Interpreter for Scheduled Parent/Teacher Conference (Section 504) (Fisher, 1991)

Two deaf foster-parents enrolled their deaf foster daughter in a new school. On the first day of classes the deaf parents came to school and asked to observe in the classroom. The hearing principal took the parents to the classroom where they briefly met the hearing teacher but they could not communicate. The teacher later said she had not realized the parents were deaf.

A parent/teacher conference was scheduled with the deaf father. The school offered to have a teacher of the deaf interpret at the parent/teacher conference. The father had never met the teacher of the deaf who was to interpret at the meeting, but he refused to use her as an interpreter. The father complained to the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) that the district discriminated against him by failing to provide a qualified interpreter.

The teacher of the deaf said even though she had no interpreter training, she thought that she could have interpreted as she had often interpreted in the past. She had never met the deaf foster-parents. The school informed OCR that if the conference had taken place and the interpreting services were unsuccessful, they would have contracted with a private licensed interpreter.

Question: Did the school have to provide professional interpreter services for the Deaf father to attend the parent/ teacher conference?

Answer: OCR found two procedural violations:

1. The school district had not published and disseminated policies regarding nondiscrimination in any of its programs and activities. The notice must include the names and telephone numbers of persons responsible for handling inquires regarding equal opportunity policies of for obtaining copies of grievance procedures covering discrimination complaints.
2. The school district did not have grievance procedures for obtaining remedy of alleged discrimination on the basis of handicap as required by 34 C.F.R. section 104.7(b).

OCR noted that Section 504 does not require that recipients have a written policy regarding the provision of interpreting for deaf persons. Further, Section 504 does not specify a degree of interpreting skills or a certification level which would be used to determine what interpreting services are equally effective or provide an equally effectiveopportunity for deaf parents. Accordingly, OCR applies a "rule of reason." In this case that meant that OCR found that the school provided deaf interpretation through its teachers who are proficient in ASL (Fisher, 1991).

OCR found the deaf foster-parents had not communicated with the teacher of the deaf, so there was no way of knowing that the teacher could not interpret. Absent evidence that the particular teacher was not able to afford the parents effective or equal opportunity to participate in the parent/school communication, OCR had no evidentiary basis to determine that the services to be provided did not meet the requirements of the law.

Lessons to be learned:

- Deaf consumers would be wise to have direct contact with any potential interpreter offered by the school before rejecting interpreter services. It is probably not enough for other members of the Deaf Community to say that the teacher would not be able to communicate.
- Check whether the school has published and disseminated policies regarding nondiscrimination
- Check whether the school has posted notices of grievance procedures

Scenario #5: Are Interpreters Required for Extracurricular Activities? (Section 504) (Sammons, 1985)

Annie was a profoundly deaf eight-year old who lived in Ohio and attended all regular education classes with a sign language interpreter. After she had successfully attended a community recreation class held in a local district school without an interpreter, she enrolled for another similar gymnastics course, and the parent requested an interpreter. The school refused. The school said an interpreter was not necessary for the following reasons:

- The community recreation program offered the course, so the school did not have to provide an interpreter
- The class was not part of Annie's educational program, and Annie could benefit from taking the gymnastics class even without an interpreter as she could watch other students for visual cues on performing the movements taught in class. The school acknowledged that because Annie could not follow the verbal instructions provided during the class she was "always a step behind in executing the routines."
- Annie's IEP indicated that she needed to become less dependent on the sign language interpreter and needed to communicate with teachers and students. Annie communicated with others using signs and/or speech. The IEP also stated that Annie functioned independently of the sign language interpreter, participated in class discussions, and socialized with other students.
- The school total communication specialist stated that lip-reading permitted only a maximum of 35 percent of the spoken language to be understood by a person with Annie's degree of impairment; but Annie could communicate though lip-reading, and she believed it was not in Annie's best interest to have a sign language interpreter forever.
- The sign language interpreter said Annie could understand speech by lip-reading.
- The gymnastics class instructor looked directly at Annie when providing verbal instruction. Additionally she provided physical assistance when necessary during Annie's execution of moves. Often she would instruct

one of the other students in the class to demonstrate the move, which was then attempted by Annie.

- A blackboard and written handouts were used to help Annie understand terminology, and she was succeeding in the gymnastics class.

Question: Did the school have to provide Annie with an interpreter for her gymnastics class?

Answer: The Office of Civil Rights ruled:

- The gymnastics class was offered as part of a community program but was jointly sponsored by the community and school, and the class was held in a school. This means the school district must be made equally available to handicapped and non handicapped students, so Annie must be provided an opportunity to participate in the gymnastics class that is equal to the opportunity provided to "non-hearing-impaired" students.
- OCR concluded that as gymnastics instruction was primarily provided through demonstration, Annie's hearing loss did not really limit her ability to benefit from the class, and so the school's refusal to provide a sign language interpreter was not discrimination.

The school did not have to provide Annie with an interpreter for her gymnastics class.

Scenario ***#6:*** Deaf Parents attend School Open House without Interpreter (Section 504) (Kimbrough, 1990)

Section 504 was passed to protect the rights of individuals with disabilities including members of the Deaf Community. For example, parents who were deaf wanted to attend an open house at their hearing daughter's school in Chicago.

On November 22, an 11-year-old hearing girl received a letter from her school district inviting her and her parents to an Open House on December 2. The purpose of the Open House was to receive information about the educational program. The school was closed for the Thanksgiving vacation November 23-26. On November 29 the Mother contacted the school district and asked for interpreter services so that she and the girl's father could attend the Open House. The school district refused to provide interpreter service because the request was made less than five days before the event, and the school's contract with the local interpreting agency required five

days prior notice. The hearing daughter had limited signing ability but acted as interpreter for the parents. The School asserted that they offered the parents a separate tour and explanation of the school program. The parents said they never received the offer, probably because the offer was made through the daughter who had limited signing ability. The deaf parents complained to the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) against the Chicago Public Schools.

Question: What were the parents' legal rights to full communication access?

Answer: The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) determined that the School district had no written policy concerning the provision of sign language interpreters. The school had never notified the parents that five days' notice was necessary. The School made no effort to contact any of the interpreters who worked for the school to determine if one might be available to interpret for the parents.

Under the school district's special education handbook, school personnel were supposed to ensure that communication with parents was conducted in a language which the parents understand. Also, under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), schools are required to communicate with parents in a language that they understand. In this case OCR found that the parents received an inadequate amount of information through interpreting services provided by their 11-year-old hearing daughter. The parents were denied an equal opportunity to the school district's programs and activities. Therefore, the district violated the regulation implementing Section 504 at 34 C.F.R. 104.4(a) and (b)(1)(I), (ii), (iii), and (vii). The district was ordered to implement remedial actions. I would expect that to mean that the school must provide the parents with an interpreted tour and that interpreter services would be provided for any future Open House events. This case does not provide legal precedent that requires all school districts to provide interpreters at Open House events, but it does provide guidance as to what the Office of Civil Rights expects schools to do.

Scenario #7: Deaf Parent Wants Interpreter at School Board Meeting (Section **504)** (Davis, 1993)

A deaf woman living in Pennsylvania spent $480 of her own money paying for interpreter services so that she could attend meetings of the school board at her child's school. The school board policy was to provide interpreter services only

when the board was scheduled to discuss an issue that involved an individual with disabilities or his or her family. At the time of the dispute the district held two school board meetings each month. The first meeting was a work session not open to the public. The second meeting was open to the general public, and an agenda was distributed at the beginning of the meeting. At the open meeting, members of the public were allowed to comment on any subject they wished to discuss and to ask questions.

One day before an open board meeting, the brother of the deaf parent requested an interpreter so that the deaf parent could attend. The school district did not provide an interpreter, but the brother arranged for an interpreter and sent the bill to the district. In a telephone conversation and by letter, the brother informed the district that his sister would attend every open meeting from now on and asked the district to provide interpreter services. The district responded that they denied the request for interpreter services because the district was not responsible for providing such services for activities unrelated to the academic or disciplinary situation of his sister's child, and the district would not pay the bill for interpreter services already submitted. The school district maintained that they made "reasonable accommodation" by providing interpreters at school board meetings only when the board was scheduled to discuss an issue that involved an individual with disabilities and his / her family. For example, the school would pay for interpreters if academic or disciplinary topics related to the parent's child were on the agenda for discussion. The Deaf tvoman complained to the Office of Cit-il Rights (Davis, 1993).

Question: Did the school have to provide interpreter services at open board meetings?

Answer: The Deaf mother was a qualified person with a disability. Regulation implementing Section 504 at 34 C.F.R. Section 104.4(a), provides that qualified persons with disabilities may not, on the basis of disability, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under the District's programs or activities. In providing any aid, benefit, or service, the District may not afford a qualified person with a disability an opportunity to participate in or benefit from the aid, benefit, or service that is not equal to the opportunity afforded others (34 C.F.R. Section 104.4(b)(1)(ii)). The district may not

provide an aid, benefit, or service to a qualified person with a disability that is not as effective as that provided others (34 C.F.R. Section 104.4(b)(1)(iii)).

The Office of Civil Rights held that school board meetings are "other services" within the meaning of 34 C.F.R. 104.3(k). The district was obligated to provide the deaf parent with an equal and effective opportunity to benefit from these meetings. OCR ruled that "reasonable accommodations were required to any member of the public with a qualified disability who desired to attend school board meetings." OCR concluded the District was in violation of 34 C.F.R. 104.4(a) and (b)(1)(ii)-(iii) by failing to provide an interpreter or some other equally effective accommodation at school board meetings (Davis, 1993).

Like other determinations by the Office of Civil Rights, this determination provides guidance to schools as to what interpreter services they should provide, but the decision does not compel schools to provide interpreters. Sooner or later a similar case will go before the courts and we may have a more legally binding determination of the right to full communication access.

Group discussion: Scenario #8: Parents Want School to Use SEE II (ADA) (Peterson, 1993)

The hearing parents of three deaf children—Nicholas, aged twelve; Alex, aged eight; and another deaf child, Kendra, aged eight—challenged the system of sign used in their local school district in the state of Nebraska. The school used a modified Signing Exact English (SEE) sign language system to teach the children and implement the IEP. The parents argued that the modified SEE system failed to provide an appropriate education (FAPE) as required by IDEA, and that the district's refusal to adopt the parent's choice of a signing system violated the ADA.

ADA regulations define "auxiliary aids and services" to include:

> Qualified interpreters, note-takers, transcription services, written material, telephone handset amplifiers, assistive listening devices, assistive listening systems, telephones compatible with hearing aids, closed captioning, telecommunications devices for deaf persons (TDD's), videotext displays, or other effective methods of making aurally delivered materials available to individuals with hearing impairments (28 C.F.R. section 35.104).

The **ADA** states that the public entity (for example, a school)

> must provide an opportunity for individuals with disabilities to request the auxiliary aids and services of their choice. This expressed choice shall be given primary consideration by the public entity. . . . The public entity shall honor the choice unless it can demonstrate that another effective means of communication exists. . . (28 C.F.R. Pt. 35.160, App. **A** at 451) (emphasis omitted).

The school used test scores to demonstrate that all three students were making educational progress using a modified SEE system.

Question: Did the parents have the right to determine which system of sign the school must use to educate their children?

Answer:

The issue first went before a hearing officer, and then the parents appealed the decision of the hearing officerin district court. There were two issues:

- Whether the modified SEE system provided the children with educational benefit.
- Whether under the **ADA** requires schools to defer to the sign choice of parents.

The school had the burden of demonstrating that the modified SEE-I1 system is an "effective means of communication" (Peterson, 1993). The children were progressing through school grades and appeared to be improving in their classwork. However, the story does not end there. **ADA** regulations include "qualified interpreters" in the definition of "auxiliary aids," but they say nothing about the use of a particular sign language. The judge recognized that it was important to consider whether the school was only providing an "effective" auxiliary aid when the parents might be requesting a vastly superior aid. It would not be appropriate to provide the person with a disability only a lesser service that would be discriminatory. *So* to protect against discrimination or exclusion, it was not enough for the school to prove that the SEE method was effective. The parents must be given the opportunity to rebut the position of the school, that is, to demonstrate discrimination by showing that the school's choice of "auxiliary aid" (in this case a sign system) was not as effective as the parent choice. The parents failed to demonstrate that their choice of "auxiliary aid" was superior, and therefore, they failed to prove that the school was

violating the ADA by discriminating against their children. In other words, even if the court assumed that "auxiliary aids" included the use of a specific signing system, a school does not have to accept the parent's choice of a particular sign system for use at school.

CONCLUSION

As we have seen from a brief review of cases, there are many unanswered questions around the extent of the right to communication access and when interpreter services must be provided. A hearing officer or court will ask whether the individual requesting services is "an individual with a disability"; whether the individual is "otherwise qualified"; whether the provision of services is a "reasonable accommodation" that does not place an undue hardship on the agency providing services; and, in the case of the education of children, whether interpreter services are a necessary part of an "appropriate" education.

In August, as I was preparing this presentation, the National Association of the Deaf newspaper, the Broadcaster, arrived in the mail. In it there was an article called "The ADA, Deaf People, and Medical Care." The article pointed out how recent legal settlements are resulting in major changes in how the Americans with Disabilities Act is applied in medical cases and went on to say that it is only recently that deaf people have begun to feel empowered to bring lawsuits. Put together, Section 504 and the ADA require all public accommodations, including hospitals, public and private schools and colleges, and businesses, to provide "reasonable accommodation.'' Future lawsuits are going to clarify the extent to which consumers have the right to interpreter services. Interpreters who consider themselves allies to the Deaf Community advocate for the right to full access to communication. I hope this presentation has stimulated your thinking about how to use increased knowledge of the law as a useful tool.

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PRESENTING VOCABULARY AND REGISTER IN ASL INSTRUCTION FOR DIVERSE STUDENT POPULATIONS

JoAnn Dobecki Shopbell, Professor
College of Southern Idaho
Sign Language Studies Program
Twin Falls, ID

ABSTRACT

Instructors of American Sign Language are a vital component in the interpreter education process. In many instances interpreter educators also serve as instructors of ASL. The temptation is great to consider every student in our language classes as a potential interpreter. Thus, we feel compelled to look at the necessary skills and thinking processes which serve as foundations for interpreter education after language proficiency has been acquired. We may couch our teaching strategies in terms of interpreting, instead of relevant second language acquisition. As an unfortunate result, we often lose capable language students who do not wish to become interpreters, and as a consequence, believe that the language instruction is not geared to their needs as communicators / signers.

Additionally, students often have difficulty in understanding the concept of linguistic register as it applies to American Sign Language. This is another consequence of being located in a rural area without a readily available adult Deaf population that represents a wide spectrum of education, job experiences, and community participation. Keeping the scarcity of adult Deaf role models in mind, the teaching staff have attempted to develop instructional strategies which can demonstrate and reinforce the necessity of language analysis for effective communication.

After some background information regarding the program's philosophy and goals, this presentation will demonstrate methods of American Sign Language instruction in the second-year level which encourage slull development (both receptively and expressively) that is appropriate for both student populations.

ABOUT OUR PROGRAM

The AA degree program in Sign Language Studies (SLS) officially began in 1984; however, American Sign Language classes had been offered since 1980 as part

of the college's interpreter training program (ITP). Having been introduced to a conceptually accurate sign English (CASE) system of manual communication for the two previous semesters, students entering the 1 year ITP program "learned "ASL concurrently with their interpretation courses. During a program revision in 1983, two separate programs were created. Each of these was a full two-year curriculum in Sign Language Studies and Interpreter Education. (See Appendix A for more details on our program.) In 1996, American Sign Language was accepted as a language (and humanities fulfillment) by our institutional curriculum review committee. Our classes have a limit of 15 students and meet four days a week with an additional lab (required). At the second year students also have scheduled critique times with the instructor on a weekly-basis. Critique will be further discussed.

The sign language faculty consists of two persons, both of whom have been the full-time instructors since the college began offering sign language instruction, circa 1980. The first year classes have traditionally been taught by Madeline J. Hartwell, a second-language learner of ASL and a certified teacher of the deaf. The second year classes have typically been taught by JoAnn Dobecki Shopbell, a lingustically "unschooled" native signer (as many of us were at that time) with 16 years of teadung experience, some of which was in spoken language learning. Both of the instructors are RID certified interpreters. Keeping in mind the needs of "signers" and "potential interpreters," the two instructors have made countless revisions, together and separately, in the methods of instruction as new information and materials for teaching became available. Naturally, what we experienced in our classrooms was a strong influence in considering or rejecting changes.

DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING PHILOSOPHY AND METHODS

Following the encouragement of Mel Carter in a forward he wrote in Dennis Cokely and Charlotte Baker-Shenk's "green books," the commitment was made to use only the target language of ASL in the classroom. A multitude of teacher-made materials helped us to develop our goals of student adaptation to a strictly visual environment and building strong receptive shlls in the first year. Students were gradually introduced to the lexicon and structure of ASL through intensive teacher-modeling in interactive activities. Prior to the publication of Kettrick's text,

American Sign Language: A Beginning Course (NAD, 1984), the students struggled with two notions: (1) eliminating the desire to assign an English word, not concepts, to a newly-acquired sign and (2) ability to recall vocabulary / sign concepts without countless repetitions. Kettrick's text, and later the popular VISTA curriculum, Signing Naturally, Level 1, enabled students to detach from English meanings as the vocabulary illustrations are devoid of English labels. Recall of vocabulary seemed to improve, despite the limitations of not having a "glossing" or transcription system for recording items. We suspect that the methods available to the students at that time met their needs because the level of communication included basic concepts and vocabulary typical of language acquisition processes in L1 or L2.

It was a conscious decision on the part of the program faculty to avoid teaching ANY lund of writing system for ASL in the first two semesters. Several factors contributed to that decision:

1. We wanted to assist students who came to us with prior sign language experience based upon a vocabulary / dictionary approach or those students who had taken community education classes purported to be ASL. It was these students who had the greatest difficulty in "letting go" of a one -sign, one-word approach to the language of ASL.
2. Our state residential school for the deaf and blind (ISDB) required simultaneous communication in publicly-accessed areas to be used by all students, faculty, staff and administration. As a small rural community, it was not unusual for us to see students enroll in our program who had either taken a "class" at ISDB or who saw / interacted with ISDB personnel in their communities.
3. We wanted our method of instruction to have "authenticity." Videotapes of models and interactive activities in the classroom seemed to support the way in which a young child acquires language: through "watching / listening" and "trial and error." Thus the idea of ASL as a visual / gestural language was remforced.
4. Although expressive slulls were monitored and encouraged in the second semester, our primary emphasis was upon developing strong receptive slulls, appropriate attending behaviors, and incorporation of non-manual signals and ASL facial grammar in expressive communication.

5. Handouts or explanations that went beyond the slull of the students were available in printed English.

In the second year, the focus of instruction changes significantly in that students have greater accountability for demonstrating expressive slulls, incorporating grammatical principles in their spontaneous interactions, and in being able to apply linguistic principles to analysis of videotaped materials of native signers in varying age groups. Students also work independently in two additional ways: completing study guides for the videotaped material they watched outside of lab time, as well as creating, preparing, and executing either non-topic-specific dialogues of varying lengths or specific Deaf culture topics. We found that application of those hguistic principles greatly aided in development of greater comprehension in independent learning activities. Likewise, as students applied these principles, they were better able to "predict," use Cloze slulls, or problem-solve a "thorny" signed text or translation exercise.

Classroom activities, conducted in the TL, introduce greater and greater amounts of incidental vocabulary as discussion topics become more varied, free-ranging, and are of current newsworthiness. Students are relatively comfortable with the notion that there are two separate languages. They also are more adept at discerning meaning from context without assigning an English spoken language equivalent. It is possible at this point to discuss connotation and denotation of words. The effect of modulation upon signs in the sense of time or degree takes place during the third semester, too. Based upon this greater language sophistication, students begin to master a transcription system that is used by the texts for the second year (Units 1-9, 10-18, 19-27 of Baker / Cokely's "green books"). It has been our experience that mastery of the system comes rather quickly and actually enables students to better appreciate the fact that dormation is being communicated simultaneously on three different levels: Face / Body, Hand(s), and Non-Dominant Hand(s).

Concurrently, students receive printed materials during lab which discuss the concept of register with specific points outlined based upon Zimmer's discussion (Lucas, Sociolinguistics of the Deaf Community) and teacher personal experience (They have been introduced to the concept in their required English

composition classes, but it is not strongly remforced.) They see, both on videotape and in classroom modeling, ways in which ASL makes changes in regster. This provides the basis for discussion in the TL about what students observe and wish to apply to their own sign communication. For the instructor this is a richly rewarding experience; students demonstrate that they have greater understanding of the four parameters of sign and can expand their visual memory by recalling chunks of signed text, an unfamiliar sign, or a regonal variation.

Prepared with this foundation, students make a relatively easy transition to a method of recording incidental new vocabulary so that they can maintain a "dictionary" that is reviewable and adapted to their own particular learning style. Finding the Stokoe method of using *sig,tab, and dez* not to be "student-friendly," the instructor introduces the idea of a vocabulary notebook. Sample pages are distributed in the initial learning process but students may adapt them in any way they choose. Briefly, the page looks like this (See Appendix for a facsimile of the entire sheet.) [Editor's note: appendices not printed.]:

Date:

GLOSS:

HANDSHAPE

LOCATION:

PALM ORIENTATION:

MOVEMENT

CONCEPTS/EQUIVALENTS:

THE PROCESS

[Note: At this point in the presentation, participants will become involved in "hands-on" activities in a mock classroom. The presenter is unable to predict what

points will come up in the discussion. Below is a summary of what is anticipated to take place.]

In the target language:

1. Students are re-introduced to the descriptions of handshapes common to ASL which is found in Babbini such as "5 hand, touch hand, index hand, or 'A' hand."
2. For convenience and testing purposes, the instructor assigns a gloss, which is written in upper-case letters ALWAYS. Students are advised that this gloss is for classroom use only. Other references may gloss or identify a sign differently.
3. Practice opportunities for recording are demonstrated on the chalkboard or overhead, beginning with common nouns or verbs acquired in Semesters 1 and 2. Examples could be MOTHER, UNDER, SKIP (v.), DISCUSS-WITH-EACH-OTHER. At this time discussion does not take place in depth about varying contexts and shfts in regster. (Since the time that this abstract was submitted for presentation at the CIT conference, Gallaudet University Press has announced publication of a hand-shape based dictionary of ASL, whch appears to follow the same basic principles.)
4. When the instructor has determined that the basic notation system has become somewhat "natural" to the student (usually **3-4** class sessions), the instructional focus changes to illustrating how concepts can change according to context, and then to ways in whch we would express the equivalent idea in English or in a different regster in ASL. Students share ideas via fingerspelling of English words or signing in ASL.
5. Once students indicate that they "see" the point, they are given opportunities to do the recording on their own as the instructor presents incidental vocabulary during class. There is sufficient time allotted for students to disengage from the monologue or discussion to write in their notebooks. (As the semester progresses, less and less time is required, but the instructor must remain alert to indications that this is an unfamiliar sign to some or all of the students.)
6. Signed discussion takes place about the vocabulary item as it is demonstrated in a variety of contexts to assure student understanding.

Students must write at least 3 equivalent concepts in their notebooks. (As homework during the first weeks of the semester; for the remainder of time they may present them to their instructor in or outside of class or to their classmates, who usually form study groups in order to receive feedback regarding appropriateness or accuracy.)

7. Students are encouraged to incorporate this newly acquired vocabulary in their daily preparations, practice exercises, or self-generated monologues / dialogues.
8. Testing takes place about once every three to four weeks, depending upon how many new vocabulary items have been introduced. Signs that are specifically related to holidays or seasonal events such as Halloween, Thanksgiving or Election Day are not usually tested specifically but are used as part of the testing set in Part I of the test which works from ASL to English.
9. Students receive a comprehensive list of glosses which the instructor has maintained from one testing period to another. They may check the glosses against their own recording so that consistency is maintained and that any deletions may be noted by both student and instructor.
10. Written testing takes place approximately three days after the glossed list has been distributed; however, a regular schedule of test dates is provided to the students in the course syllabus.

TEST FORMAT

[NOTE: Workshop participants will take a mock vocabulary test based upon the practice list used in earlier activities.]

It is significant to note that the request for testing related to incidental vocabulary was initiated by the students themselves in reception of the importance of "using it or losing it" and of the added emphasis upon that fact provided by traditional academic means—a TEST. The format of the test actually grew out of discussions with students during individual critique times, which take place primarily in English to facilitate discussion of the scripted dialogue, ASL grammar, and provide whatever remediation is necessary. This time is also used to set performance goals for the next videotaped activity.

Again, at the request of the students, there is equal emphasis upon ASL and English proficiency and register in both languages. Selected vocabulary items are presented in two parts. Part 1 consists of a set of targeted signs which are presented in context. (There is an added enhancement in this activity for the instructor. The opportunity to use creativity and imagination in preparing the test is very enjoyable and far from routine. It is often an occasion for humor that students actually anticipate. They frequently remark, "I can't wait to see what you are going to dream up.")

Getting back to the test format in Part 1, students write the GLOSS for the targeted sign and then give two-three English equivalents that fit the item's use in that particular context. Part 2 of the test consists of 10 sentences in English with certain phrases or concepts underlined. These sentences are presented in a variety of registers of English. Students provide an appropriate ASL glossed sign to match the underlined portions. Signs must come from the most current list of vocabulary items; however, if the sign choice is appropriate, credit is given if students suggest other alternatives not on the list. (See Appendices C-D.) [Editor's note: appendices not printed.]

Perhaps the most valuable aspect of this testing is the post-test discussion and clarification that takes place. It is an opportunity to move interactive signing from routine day-to-day discussions to a higher form of discourse (academic in nature) in which an opportunity to practice another register albeit imperfectly and intermittently is made available to students.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Since the implementation of the methods described above, our program instructors have noted several important outcomes.

The most significant is that students have a sincere appreciation for the language of ASL in its variety, complexity, and expressiveness. They have approached the study seriously because it has been presented to them in legitimate, language-based instruction that they recognize as academic in nature; very quickly they are disabused of the idea that this ASL stuff is a picture language. The number of students who think of enrolling in an ASL class for "easy credits" or "something that won't take too much work away from their real classes" is negligible. (Proof of

that is that our sections were full during the years 1980 to 1996 when students only received elective credit of 6 8 units despite taking 16 credits in the first and second year sequence.) As a result, interest has heightened as the word has spread that our classes are challenging, but enjoyable; AND they now count toward general education requirements for the associate's degree. At least 50% of our students are non-majors, many of whom elect to become majors after the first two semesters.

Also, second year students enthusiastically embrace the methodology we introduce in the third semester because it meets their need to "write it down" and "have a way to remember it." Many of our adult learner students expressed uneasiness in semesters 1 and 2 at not having a "real" textbook and / or discovering that their previous tried and trusted learning strategies did not appear to be applicable to the study of American Sign Language. However, these newly-acquired methods seem to tie-in with and enhance their traditional learning style approaches. They provide students with dependable and easily mastered ways of recording dormation that they recognize as "worth hanging on to." In this way students become more responsible for their learning. They also devise their own systems of notation that are effective for them personally. Having ownership of the notation system enhances the desire to do the necessary recording.

A third consequence of this combined approach described in the second-year classes is that ALL students approach learning from the same perspective: This is what is required of any student studying this language. They do not discern that they are being subjected to a hgher standard than is expected of students who take ASL on the basis of general interest. It is difficult for them to rationalize mediocre efforts on the basis of the opinion, "I am not going to be an interpreter." We find that when students interact with Deaf adults or students at our residential school, they are uniformly desirous of communicating in the most appropriate and effective ways possible. They appear to demonstrate respect for both their own native language of English and their second language of ASL. Anecdotal comments indicate that these tools have enabled them to think through a language problem and come up with a reasonably appropriate solution, rather than the previously demonstrated behavior of "I didn't know how to say THAT, so I just gave up or changed the subject." Students also appear to demonstrate better comprehension of and sensitivity to use of appropriate register in social situations.

Finally, through correspondence and chats with our graduates who transferred to four year colleges and universities or enrolled in an interpreter education program post-CSI graduation, we have learned that their vocabulary notebooks and notation system serve them well as resources for review and practice. Comments range from being wildly enthusiastic about being able to continue adding new vocabulary to their repertoire in an easy fashion to grudging acknowledgment that glossing and transcription turned out to be useful, after all.

Grateful thanks and appreciation to my friend and colleague, Madeline Hartwell, for her support and willingness to "expand her horizons" in teachmg ASL III this semester so that I could pursue special interests during a Fall, 1998, sabbatical. Thanks, too, to Jim Palmer for unending support and encouragement.

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APPENDIX A
TITLES OF COURSES IN SIGN LANGUAGE STUDIES AT COLLEGE OF SOUTHERN IDAHO

SIGL 100	Introduction to Interpreting
SIGL 103-104	American Sign Language I and II
SIGL 104L	ASL II LAB
SIGL 111	Orientation to Deafness
SIGL 112	Psychosocial Aspects of Deafness
SIGL 113	Expressive/Receptive Finger Spelling and Numbers
SIGL 205-206	American Sign Language III and IV
SIGL 205L-206L	ASL III and IV LAB
SIGL 220	Seminar: Deaf Culture & Community
SIGL 210	Support Systems for Signers
SIGL 213	Creative Sign Language
Also required:	
THEA 111	Drama/Theatre

NOTE: In Fall, 1999, the College of Southern Idaho will enter into a partnership with Idaho State University. A Bachelor's Degree in Sign Language Interpreting in Educational Settings will be offered on both campuses. The AA degree in Sign Language Studies will be one of the prerequisites for entry into the upper division interpreting courses. Students who do not wish to enter into the interpreting classes may transfer to other programs with junior level status, or seek employment in occupations where sign language slulls enhance employability

AN ANTHROPOLOGIST LOOKS AT REGISTER: BEYOND USING BIG WORDS

Theresa B. Smith, Ph.D.

INTRODUCTION

Correct or incorrect use of register is an important aspect of how one is perceived. The reason is that register marks not only the situation but also our identity, our status within the group and our "footing," or relationship with the other interlocutors.

This paper will outline the five registers identified by Joos, their characteristics in English and ASL and their functions. It will discuss the cultural influence on register and relate this to interpreting.

The analysis then moves slightly deeper in discussing multiple affiliations and identities and the influence on register, returning to implications for interpreting. Finally, it turns to the teaching of these skills and strategies.

REGISTER AND STYLE

Register is a major part of discourse, which is, in turn, formed, organized, and shaped by culture.[1] Register reflects the frame—the situation, the referent group (the identities)—of the speakers and their footing (positions or roles within the interaction relative to each other).

Common definitions of register focus only on the situation, i.e., the frame, and ignore the footing. Alternatively, they identify the way of talking as a style used by a particular group of people using examples such as "teacher talk," "preacher talk," and so on. This focuses on the identity but again omits the role of register in establishing footing. In truth register is "the way teachers talk while teaching."

Martin Joos was the first person to write about register just over thirty years ago. Joos made a number of observations about the ways people talk in different situations, also reflecting the relative social distance and the relative level of responsibility (e.g. leadership, status, footing) or status within the group.

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[1] Discourse is the level of organization above syntax (grammar). If car parts are words and phrases, an assembled car is a language, and the rules of the road including signs and signals is discourse.

As we will *see*, register reflects the speaker's identification with a group, sometimes a culture group, sometimes a subset of that culture. Americans talk like Americans, women talk like women, interpreters talk like interpreters, and so on. Thus, register and style are indicative of the following:

- the culture, the subculture,
- the situation,
- the relative roles (footing),and
- the speaker's own personality.

Register accomplishes all of this by using particular lexical items (words, terms); syntax (grammar); rhythm, or the music of the way we talk; and the interplay of turn taking.

REGISTER AND JOOS

Joos noticed that the standard English taught in the classroom was not only different from, but inappropriate for, the way children talk on the playground. This was true, he noticed, not only of children but of adults. We all adjust our way of talking to fit the situation. So called "correct" language, he noted, is more complex than using a particular kind of schoolroom vocabulary and grammar. The five regsters or five ways of talking that Joos identified are

- frozen,
- formal,
- consultative,
- conversational or casual, and
- intimate.

For those who are interested in reading Joos directly, look for his book The Five Clocks of Language.

Examples of Type

These registers are typically found in rather specific kinds of places or events. **Frozen** regster is traditional texts. It is relatively unchanging and often memorized. Examples include The Pledge of Allegiance, the ***Our*** Father, Alcoholics Anonymous" Twelve Steps and Twelve Traditions, ABC Stories, and Folktales such as "The Deaf Driver and the Hearing Hitchhiker" or "Plenty of . . . Hearing People]." Frozen register

is relatively unchanging and, therefore, somewhat "old fasl-uoned," archaic, or prosodic. Its meaning goes beyond the words. A frozen text is understood not so much in its parts but as a whole. The entire text becomes a Sign or Symbol, just as the country's flag is a Sign; and this is a primary characteristic of frozen register. The meaning of an ABC story is not in the events told in the story. It is told not as data. The meaning of an ASL ABC story is that the manual alphabet is used not only in a visual way (i.e., a visual representation of the written alphabet) but in a Deaf way (i.e., used not as letters but as Signs to tell a story). The typical ABC story includes feelings and visual descriptions, aspects notably lacking in written English. The structure, the form, of an ABC story is ostensibly given by "the Hearing world," but, in reality, it has been transformed into something that is clearly Deaf.

Formal register is that found in relatively large groups or places where one expert is talking to her or his peers, meetings such as Theoretical Issues in Sign Language Research, CIT conferences, or WFD (World Federation of the Deaf) or NAD (National Association of the Deaf) conventions. It is often used in print media as well, but the media or modality should not be confused with the form.

The primary characteristic of formal regster is, interestingly enough, that it follows a certain form. As mentioned above, teachers talk like teachers, anthropologists talk like anthropologists, Alcoholics Anonymous members talk like AA members and so on. Each profession, each subset of the culture, has its own format or way of organizing mformation as well as its own "formulaic" ways of saying h n g s . The form goes beyond "terminology" to a particular way of looking at things and a unique way of talking about them. It may seem foreign to us. and indeed an understanding of the form (the formulaic way of talking, the terminology) is essential to understanding the text.

Consultative regster is that used for doing work and, as such, is found in committee meetings, doctors' offices, classrooms, and counseling sessions. It is the register with which we as interpreters, are most familiar. The primary characteristic of consultative register is a certain businesslike air and a focus on content. The function, as we will see in the next section, is to convey information; and while the style will be influenced by the cultural subset of the speakers (e.g., doctors, physicists) and whether they are talking with peers or neophytes, the form will vary as necessary to convey mformation.

Conversational or casual regster is that found on the playground, in the cafeteria (assuming you're not talking with a workaholic), waiting for the bus, conversations at the Deaf Club, and so on. Conversational or casual repter will be primarily characterized by the inclusion of personal feelings. People will tell funny anecdotes, exchange compliments, tell sad tales, and so on, as well as exchange exciting or interesting news. Turn taking is rather rapid in English, and in ASL there are lots of feedback or back-channelling behavior.

Intimate register is that used between people who have a long history together OR who know the topic they are discussing intimately. It is not so much a closeness of feeling or affection, although this might be true as well; rather, it is a regster found where very little spoken means a lot said; very few words are necessary. Intimate register is a minimalist way of tallung. One person says something like "Just like George." and the listener understands what all is meant and implied. Families and work groups have oft told stories to which they need only refer to have virtually the full effect.

The characteristics of being traditional (frozen), formulaic (formal), focused on clarity of content (consultative), feelings (casual), and insider minimalism (intimate) are verbal and non-verbal; and they hint at the function of each regster.

FORM **AND** FUNCTION

To understand register, we must go beyond the vocabulary and even the syntax. It is woven throughout the larger discourse: the turn talung, the organization and length of the text, who gets to talk and for how long are all a part of the register.

Furthermore, the forrn of each register is only partly verbal. Non-verbal communication—ways of dressing, standing, sitting, and so on—is also an expression of frame, identity, and footing. Think of going into the courtroom. You can tell who the players are as surely as if their uniforms had numbers on them. You know who is the judge, which of the people present are the attorneys, the police officers, the bailiff. This dormation is clearly manifest in their clothes, their demeanor, and their position or territory, as it is in their "talk." Perhaps it is going too far to call this register. In any case

it is congruent with register and, together with the spoken register, conveys information about frame, identity, and footing.[2]

Registers do not actually form discreet categories, but rather a continuum. There are three distinct focuses (focii):

1. tradition, "us" as a people;
2. information, data, task; and
3. personal, interpersonal relationships.

These are found in their pure forms in frozen, consultative, and intimate register respectively. The other two (formal and conversational) are hybrids. Formal register is a combination in form and function of frozen and consultative. Conversational register is a combination in form and function of consultative and intimate.

The primary functions of each register follow:

- frozen—to pass on traditional ethos, beliefs, and values of the culture group and to affirm one's membership in it;
- formal—to pass on and affirm traditions of the subset (e.g., AA) and to convey information or knowledge;
- consultative—to convey information with the goal of accomplishing tasks, doing work;
- conversational—learning (in English this is often an exchange of information about the business world, in ASL it is often an exchange of information about the community "gossip") and bonding, forming, or strengthening interpersonal relationships;
- intimate—to affirm and strengthen one's "place," not in the larger culture as with frozen register, but with regard to this person or group of people and with this topic, i.e., in this context.

The function of each register is found in all cultures. The form is, of course, meaningful only within a particular culture. This is what makes interpreting frozen register so difficult. Despite the fact that we may have ample time to work on a translation, there may be no equivalent in the target culture. Cultures vary in their ways of referring to things (vocabulary and grammar), the things referred to (e.g., musical

[2] Combinations are also telling. For example it is typical of academics to dress casually but talk formally. This combination itself is a mark of "register."

instruments or genres, local agencies, or Deaf leaders), and the value or Meaning of the things referred to (e.g., the Deaf school, the relay, sports).

FUNCTION AND INTERPRETING

Using register as a key to unlock (and mark) a text, an interpreter can recogruze (and convey) its function. Let us say, for example, that you are interpreting the Pledge of Allegance. The function of this pledge is to reaffirm membership in the culture and to reaffirm the ethos, beliefs, and values of America. How do Deaf people fit into this scene? Certainly many Deaf people are strongly patriotic and identify themselves as Americans. How does one handle a text which has meaning as a whole, in which the entire text functions as a Sign?

The interpretation itself adds another layer of meaning. What does it mean to be a Deaf American, to need the text interpreted? What does it mean if the text is interpreted into PSE / CVS, into ASL, into ASL with an exegesis? In some instances, the solution is to represent the text with as little interpretation as possible and then render a commentary (an in a voice interpretation of an ABC story—letting the story stand for itself as a visual piece, adding a commentary rather than a verbatim interpretation). These questions cannot be answered without considering the audience, the person or people for whom you are interpreting.

The interpreter's strategy will depend on the people involved; how enculturated they are; and, **not only the function of the text itself, but the function of the interpretation.** Why would one preserve the organization and referents as in PSE / CVS; why translate into ASL (or spoken English)? What is lost and what is gained? **The interpreter must consider not only the function of the text but** why she or he has been asked to interpret in the first place. [3]

Consultative register is the easiest. While we often have time before a specific assignment to study and prepare a translation for a formal presentation, content is easier to translate than a foreign tradition and form. In consultative repter, making the content clear is the burden (and focus) of the interlocutors; thus, the interpreter is less alone in her / his task.

[3] Taking the word "interpretation" in its most generic sense think of different signers' interpretations of "The Star Spangled Banner." Perhaps you will recall the tremendous outcry when Rosanne Barr was asked to sing this song on national television and gave it a very non-traditional interpretation.

Casual and intimate regsters are the most challenging. Here, the relationship between and among the interlocutors is the focus, and the intrusion of an interpreter (as well as the barriers of culture) make this difficult to impossible. Here, there is no time for study or preparation; and to ask for clarification often breaks the rhythm, the flow, and detracts from or destroys the meaning. Intimate register can sometimes be breached *cross* culturally if the interlocutors are otherwise intimately familiar with the content, the task, and the personalities of the other parties. Together they can reaffirm bonds of beliefs and values (world view) or experience even without a common language. New mothers' support groups or WFD board meetings are sometimes able to achieve intimacy.

Each situation is unique. The overall task or focus is set for the interpreter by the situation and, hence, the register, but modified by the cultures between which one is interpreting (the limits and possibilities of those cultures and languages) and by the background of the interlocutors. A *cross* cultural discussion of register is thus more complex than simple register alone.

CULTURE **AND** REGISTER

Dominant American Deaf culture is a socic-centric culture, a culture focused on synthesis, an "artistic" culture. Dominant American (non-Deaf) culture is not. It is an analytical, "scientific" culture. Edward T. Hall first noticed this pattern and called socio-centric cultures "High Context" or "polychronic" cultures and analytic cultures "Low Context" or "monochronic" cultures. It was for other anthropologists, however, to elaborate the elements and their expressions in a variety of cultures.

Deaf discourse is socic-centric. It is a close, an intimate, discourse of the familiar, one which emphasizes feelings and interpersonal relations. It is the discourse of people with much shared knowledge and sentiment.

The sigruficance of these characteristics in a discussion of regster is that ASL texts appear at each level to be more intimate than their English counterparts. Thus intimate register in ASL hardly uses any Signs moving even more than English into non-manual communication. Even conversational register is relatively intimate. Conversants share much of the same knowledge and constantly inform one another so that they all remain "insiders." Think of consultative register, how much Deaf ASL teachers in a college setting involve their students during class time compared with

non-Deaf English teachers in a similar setting, how often they use personal experiences or anecdotes to convey concepts, how often they include feelings in their discourse of even inanimate objects or abstract principles. Perhaps the function of rhetorical questions (found so much more commonly in ASL formal register than in English formal repter) is a mark of this intimacy, an involvement, an inclusion of the audience even when they cannot be expected to respond personally. ASL texts include more personal experiences and more feelings than their equivalents in English.

Hearing people often remark these differences. If they are learning Sign, they will likely think of ASL speakers as engaging and "delightful" (i.e., artistic) comparing them favorably to lectures by non-Deaf professionals which they characterize as "dry" or "uninteresting" (i.e., more formal, more distant). Hearing people who are not so positively disposed wonder just why they are having to listen to all these stones in what is supposed to be a professional or business setting.

The goal is not to make Deaf people sound Hearing or Hearing people sound Deaf. The goal is to represent the identity, the status, and style of the speaker as well as to match the situation and its task.

Cultural Adjustment in the Interpretation

New interpreters going from voice to Sign hesitate to give up fingerspelling for what seems to be a "lack of precision" while they struggle to render ASL into English without having it lose its "color." The danger is that we try to preserve the cultural flavor of the original (precision versus color) and in so doing distort the audience's perception of the speaker.

Because the dominant culture is (a particular variety of) Hearing culture, our strategy must accommodate issues of power. It is not simply a matter of adjusting for the formality of English and the intimacy of ASL. That members of the dominant culture seem detached and dry has an entirely different impact than making the Deaf speaker seem inappropriately folksy and casual. The former leaves the Deaf audience reinforced in their view of Hearing professionals as cold and uncaring. The latter leaves the Hearing audience reinforced in their view that Deaf people are entertaining but not educated.

The basic challenge is to make a competent Deaf linguist sound like a competent Deaf linguist; an articulate, caring AIDS worker sound like an articulate, caring *AIDS* worker; a well informed Deaf speaker, well informed and so on.

Finally, our challenge is to convey the speaker's personality and style.

MORE COMPLEX: MULTIPLE IDENTITIES, MULTIPLE FUNCTIONS, PARTS WITHIN THE WHOLE

Texts come in parts or sections, and often these sections have different regsters (and functions). Before a speech, there is an introduction to the speaker. A speech is often followed by a question and answer period. Business meetings often begin and end with a social time, a time to maintain human connections. Some groups do this more formally than others, but the focus is on the personal relationshps, not the content. Courtroom proceedings include the frozen "Hear ye, hear ye"; the formal listing of charges; and the consultative discussion of procedure and questioning of witnesses.

Thus, knowing the setting is not enough to determine the register and style. Librarians are more formal than counselors. The informality of counselors is different from that of artists. A court room session is not, plain and simple, a court room setting. Identity is not simple, it is complex. I am not only an American; I am a bi-cultural, bi-lingual American. I am a woman, over fifty and White. I am a scientist, a teacher, and an interpreter. I live in the Northwest. All of this is represented in subtle and obvious ways in my language, my style of speaking. The formality is determined not only by the setting but by

- the subset of the culture,
- the individual participants, and
- the segment of the text.

How can these variations and subtleties be conveyed through an interpretation? This goes beyond the application of theory or formula to a sense of the music. Ultimately, interpretation is an art not a science. The interpretation of style is a dance. Interpreters must focus and **try** to absorb the rhythms and melody of a variety of speakers, become comfortable with them *so* that these rhythms and melodies can be drawn out and used in the work of interpretation.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

Teaching this complex concept should be approached through lecture (theory), modeling (video tapes of various samples) and discussion. Students should observe

community events with register in mind, attending meetings of all Deaf people, meetings of a variety of non-Deaf people (e.g., faculty meetings, staff meetings, project planning meetings, and so on).

Focus Questions

Students should be asked the following questions:

- Who is this speaker (by category or identity group). How is that reflected in her / his language? What is the relative status of the speaker's referent group? What would you guess is her / his status within that group (and why)? What are the styles and rhythms of the speech, particular lexical items, or formulaic ways of talking that are characteristic of this group? What marks an insider?
- What is the focus or point of the larger text, of this (and each) segment? What does it mean (culturally); what is its function?

Teachers can help by asking the students these questions as they view texts both in advanced ASL classes and as they view texts in preparation for interpretation.

Role Play

We have long felt the value of dramatic training (acting skills) in our field. Often, we have used it to help students become more comfortable with their bodies. We have used it to help students mobilize their faces. We have used it to help students develop the fundamentals for the part of ASL discourse called "Role Shift." Here, we find yet another reason for encouraging students to take on the characteristics, the rhythms, and styles of others.

Formal acting is not the point *so* much as the ability to get inside another, to feel where he /she is coming from but also to wear his / her skin. Some exercises include going to a public place, such as a park or shopping mall; selecting a subject (a person to study); and attempting to walk, sit, stand, gesture like that person. Radio and especially television offer opportunities, i.e., sample texts, along with their repter and style from a variety of people. Listening with attention over and over will help students inculcate and be able to draw on them when the time comes in a more natural manner.

Evaluation

Finally, when it comes time to evaluate the students on their accurate use of register, we can focus more broadly. We will be interested in their correct use of discourse to represent the speaker accurately not only in content, not only in status, but in style. This does not *so* much mean that the interpreter is able to "become" the

speaker, but that the interpreter is able to accurately "convey" the speaker. The listener who is totally dependent on the interpreter (which is rarely actually the case) should be able to have an accurate sense of who this speaker is—not just because of vocabulary choice but because of the form (including organization of the text) and the style.

CONCLUSION

We have seen that register is a very complex concept. We have seen the importance of considering function if we are to be true to the regster. We have seen the influence of interpretation and the reflection of cultural style or ethos. We have been reminded that subgroups within a particular culture have different ethos and styles, that sections of text within a particular setting have different functions and, hence, different regsters.

As an interpreter it is helpful to consider the three aspects of communication:

1. identity, identity as a member of a particular group or sub-group (e.g., Americans, psychologists, recovering alcoholics, golfers);
2. the task or focus of the content; and
3. the footing, the relationship between and among the interlocutors. An interpreter would ideally be infinitely fluent in the registers used by the persons being interpreted, able to follow and match them at every turn, infinitely flexible and artistic in the manifestation of style wh c h is both personal and communal representing the status and persona of the speaker.

This is a big challenge, perhaps too big. Whether or not we can ever achieve a perfect register match, thinlung about and exploring register more deeply allows us a window into culture where we can see (once again) how Deaf and Hearing people are the same and how we are different. It can help us think of better and better ways to bridge those differences and help convey not only what the speaker says but who she / he is, not only as a personality, but in relation to the others in the group.

A HIGHLY EFFECTIVE SEQUENCE OF TRAINING EXPERIENCES

Sharon Neumann Solow

INTRODUCTION

There are intuitive and logical approaches to the sequencing of training experiences in the education of interpreters. Research and scientific experimentation will surely yield greater understanding of our students' developmental stages. Curricular and pedagogic concerns are complex. We wish to offer realistic and challenging practice, yet, on the other hand, we need to regularly provide tasks that allow us to focus on a particular slull area or strategy. To be most effective, we must also provide practice that leaves students with a sense of successful completion of the task.

CONFIDENCE-BUILDING

So often, in the early stages of their learning and beyond, students experience themselves as failing at the overall task of interpretation. It is such a huge task, and it is rare that even seasoned interpreters leave a job fully satisfied with their performance. We can counteract this to a certain extent by creating experiences whch allow them success at portions of the task of interpretation. Deeper analysis of the developmental stages may allow us even greater opportunities to remforce training of these stages. It will also help us to create training experiences whch are congruent with that awareness.

As students continue on the path of their growth, it is essential that they garner actual interpreting experience. Yet, in order to teach effectively, we must have unrealistically isolated texts for them to practice specific slulls and to build confidence and poise. It has been my experience that interpreters who regularly experience themselves as successful are less fearful of trying new approaches and of being monitored and critiqued. These are essential aspects of a healthy, growing and slulled interpreter.

CRITERXA FOR SEQUENCING OF MATERIALS

We have the responsibility of offering students of interpretation the opportunity to practice with actual texts and yet wish to build their practice experience in a logical and structured way. We can approach this challenge in a number of ways. By selecting a naturally produced stimulus text for its level of difficulty, we can build practice challenges in a way that is realistic and not totally overwhelming. By going through audio and video libraries, one can find texts that are possible to rate according to a number of criteria and then sequence accordingly.

Some of the criteria by which texts and tasks may be sequenced include speed and ease of understanding. Clearly enunciated speech or signing in a relatively easy to hear or see environment might be used for earlier tasks whle accented speech or signing, or other texts with obstructions to easy access might be used in later texts for practice. In addition, texts can be assessed for familiarity of topic, content, speaker, style, or language, and / or terminology. Complexity can be assessed for the same areas. Linguistically and / or Culturally challenging texts can be sequenced with earlier tasks including texts with more grammatical structures in the source text parallel to those in the target language. More sophsticated texts would have a higher percentage of grammatical structures different from those of the target language. Soplusticated, highly fluent text and, ironically, child or cluldlike language are perhaps equally challenging to portray. When speakers or signers have severely limited fluency in the source text, interpretation is more difficult.

Challenges such as techrucal topics or language, humor, irony, sarcasm, and puns offer opportunities for higher level training. Accurate portrayal of various registers is again a hgher level task.

Difficult settings or environments in whch to work can also be introduced into training experiences to increase realistic practice. Some of the challenges to introduce might be unknown protocol, a highly stressful environment, unpleasant topic or participants, multiple participants (i.e. group discussions), uncooperative participants, discomfort with observers, complex role shift requirements, or any number of other common complications to the simple interpreting task.

FOCUS AREAS

As we analyze these challenges, we can find and create materials to allow practice in specific aspects and which increase in difficulty in one parameter, or in controlled parameters, over time. The significant task before us is to build exercises which not only become more challenging in a single area, but also do not have too many distracters in other areas of expertise which the instructor does not wish to focus on at the time. It means that ideally an early text might be rated as simple regarding all the above criteria. A second or third exercise text might be simple in all the other areas, but slightly challenging in a single targeted area, such as temporal sequencing. Another early exercise might be simple in temporal sequencing, but challenging for role shift, while more advanced texts would include more than one area of challenge. . . moving toward texts that are filled with a variety of these sorts of challenges.

One of the greatest distracters in our teaching is that there are so many things we might give feedback about. It is helpful to remain focused in our feedback, but we can help ourselves further by using materials and exercises that are themselves focused on the area being taught.

SEQUENCING AND SEGMENTING OF TASKS

Exercises can also be sequenced in such a way that they offer whole task or segmented aspects of the task of interpretation. For example, in programs which teach language slulls along with interpretation skills, memory work can begin before fluency. By focusing on a single skill area, we can lift the pressure somewhat so that students feel safe in trying a new technique or challenge. It is useful sometimes to ask students simply to make sure they complete all thoughts they begin. It is no longer essential in this exercise to produce complete detail accuracy. This exercise stresses the value of whole thought interpretation, processing and lag time. A sort of opposite exercise would be one in which only detail was the goal, while completion of thoughts would be less important.

Another example might be that when working on improving use of space, the goal of a particular exercise may be specifically to focus on and express the spatial relationships in the text as clearly as possible. No other portion of the task need be concentrated on.

Exercises may be created for the purpose of highlighting classifiers and SASSes. Learners can then focus on this area of knowledge and skill and apply it in a practical exercise. Texts may be chosen that are rich in opportunities to use classifiers and SASSes. Students can be gven a directive to strive for accuracy in the one area of SASSes and classifiers and be gven more leniency in the other aspects of interpretation of the text.

Transitions and pausing can be the focus or one aspect of a training exercise. Confidence building, processing, and memory work can each be central or of partial focus.

Fingerspelling and sign clarity are often the areas that interpreting students get the most feedback about. Nonetheless, we must mention it as an area of potential focus. Temporal or sequential clarity is a more sophsticated task whch may require texts that offer opportunities to refer to time or sequence.

Register and / or style match exercises can be naturally or artificially introduced. Natural exercises have challenges interpreters must meet in order to represent appropriately the speaker / signer vis-à-vis register or style. Artificial exercises might be neutral sounding / looking material over whch the instructor lays information regarding setting, relationshps, dress, emotions, and other influences on repter and / or style.

Work on purpose and intent is deep and complex. It is sometimes best handled in discussion about a particular text. Training experiences in this area can manipulate variables so that a more neutral text has an overlay of purpose or intent which changes the overall effect in a variety of ways. This exercise can build awareness of the power of bias and influence of the person spealung or sigrung.

Role shift, characterization, direct address, and such can be practiced with anecdotal material as well as with conversational text with more than one speaker/signer. Another source of text for this focus area is theatrical material, with actors playing roles.

Specialized and technical topics are often content centered. It is advisable for students to be exposed to examples of technical or specialized texts. They can practice research and preparation for texts, coping strateges for such tasks, and reliance on back-up team members on the spot. These kmds of texts remforce the importance of being well-read and mformed.

Segmented, clearly established exercises help the students and instructor to stay focused on specific areas, to feel good about their progress, to build slulls in a deliberate and reliable way and to track their progress as well.

MATERIALS GRID

It is helpful to know one's materials in order to fit exercises to educational objectives. It is also an opportunity to clarify what we are looking for in any one practice exercise. By keeping a clear sense of the areas of focus, a session can be more productive. Specific teaching can be done in which students experience first hand the effects of the topic they are being taught. For example, it is more effective to have students work with culturally challenging text w i t h the time frame of teaching about it. Once they have the opportunity to see the effect in one another's work, the concept is more likely to be internalized.

Texts can be placed on a grid that allows the instructor to select practice texts more deliberately. One can fill out such a grid for materials in the resource library and make it available for students to select practice materials specific to their focus and/or skill level at any one time. Instructors can collaborate in rating materials. In this way the rating of various media and materials might be a little less subjective. Many educators of interpretation have already created such grids or guidelines in a formal or informal way. Resource libraries and labs sometime have such dormation available in grid or list form. Due to time limitations, sometimes material is rated after it has been used as a training tool. It might be wise to keep a blank grid with areas the instructor wants rated nearby when workmg with new materials.

An example of a materials grid follows. The areas are rated between 1 and 5, 1 being simplest and 5 being most complex or challenging within the rating category. **A** text rated *5* for speed would be a very fast moving one. **A** piece marked 1 for "techrucal / other level" would contain little or no specialized language or technical mformation.

Title	Type	Speed/ Clarity	Com- plexity	Ling adj. needed	Cult adj. needed	Familiar Spkr/ topic	Tech/ Other level
"The Trouble with Pete"	AT Eng.	2/3	1	3	1	2/5	1
"Love Beads & Pyramids"	VT Eng.	3/1	3	1	3	1/4	2
"Left-handed Scissors"	VT Eng.	2/1	4	2	1	3/3	4
"Grandpa's Stitches"	VT ASL	2/2	3	2	5	2/2	3
"Personality Plus"	AT Eng.	5/3	4	3	4	3/4	5

SEQUENCING TASKS

Sequencing of tasks applies to short- and long-term interpreter education. The sequencing I am suggesting can be applied cyclically. The construct I have been working purposes to build logically to fully processed interpretation. I use it with interpreters who have already developed habits in which they do not regularly process as well as with neophyte interpreters.

While I believe it is an excellent idea to order activities in a logical step-by-step fashion, I also believe it is essential to regularly build actual, real-life interpretation practice into the educational plan regularly. This practice would have the unplanned pitfalls we run into all the time in the real world of interpreting. Thus, the students are allowed an opportunity to experience the hazards of real-world interpreting in the safety of the classroom or workshop. Along with the need for exposure to those hazards, all students should have plenty of experience with actual clients genuinely relying on them for a message before leaving the cloistered environment of a training program.

GESTURE

I have been experimenting with a sequence of activities that builds logically to the total task of consecutive and / or simultaneous interpretation. It has been my experience that gesture is a powerful aid in interpreters' integration of processing. It is so easy to fall back on a quick and dirty solution to interpretation challenges by fingerspelling a word or reverting to an initialized sign. For true processing to occu, it is very helpful to be required to analyze deeply the whole meaning of a text. When we cannot immediately rely on fingerspelling or English signs, we are forced to process more deeply. Therefore, using gesture as the stimulus or, particularly, as the target language in training exercises has been incredibly useful. There is nowhere to go but to *meaning.* Gesture is an incredible processing tool and can remforce excellent processing habits. It disallows "pat" and surface solutions to communication of ideas and pushes us to process the text thoroughly. We cannot merely go for surface and simple equivalents; rather we must analyze the intent and meaning and then build an interpretation that takes into account the full meaning of the stimulus text.

In the training of interpreters, gesture work can be an early and on-going part of the skill development. At early stages, would-be interpreters can get a feel for the process of interpretation before they are fluent in a second language by interpreting between their native language and gesture. This applies also to the involvement of consumers. In training the community this sort of experience can help consumers begin to understand the complexity of interpreting and to gain greater respect for the work we do.

A further advantage to training interpreters using gesture as a tool is that they develop strategies that will serve them for their entire careers. Should a deaf person of limited or different language slulls be involved in a situation the interpreter is called upon to serve, s/he is prepared with experience and training.

PARAPHRASING

Paraphrasing is another task that can be done before second language fluency is in place. Within the task of paraphrasing, many aspects of interpretation can be taught and reinforced. Processing the whole idea is still at center of such activity. Paraphrasing can also build memory slulls and confidence as well as allowing educators to assess and work on linguistic fluency and communication skills.

Paraphrasing Exercises can take several forms, and work within any languages, English to English, ASL to ASL, Signed English to Signed English. Any language the students bring to the experience could be built into this sort of exercise as well. Paraphrasing can be prepared, almost like a translation. In that case students can prepare the text and create a sophisticated and fluent second version of the source text. An exercise more similar to consecutive interpretation builds confidence in memory and allows students to see the value of processed dormation for fluency and completeness. A more challenging task parallels the experience of simultaneous interpretation. The student paraphrases material while still taking it in.

SHADOWING

Students can be encouraged to shadow a fluent signer in his / her every movement, without necessarily having the sign fluency to produce such a text. Even if the student does not yet know why s / he is moving a certain way, s/he shadows the fluent signer and, without even having the requisite fluency, practices role shft, facial grammar, use of space, and more. Tlus is one more opportunity for the learner to experience her/himself as successful.

TRANSLATION

Translation can be used as a sophisticated exercise and yet can be applied to the training of neophytes. Translation allows interpretation-like practice before full fluency and speed are within the repertoire of an individual interpreter. This is not to say that translation is a lesser task; it is just one in which preparation can be done and knowledge can be gained during the task, whle such is not the case with interpretation. Students can be given days, even weeks or months, to complete a translation. Thus, students can create full and satisfying second language versions of source texts even whle they have not yet attained that level of slull for interpreting.

Students should experience translating between Gesture and English, ASL and Signed English, between English and ASL, Signed English' and English, and maybe even between ASL and Signed English.

THE FIVE STAGES OF POETIC TRANSLATION

In teaching poetic signing—song-sign, poetry translation, and the like—I found it useful to use the following construct in developing more thorough and deep translations. First, worlung at the surface level, analyze word choices, meanings, and feelings evoked by the piece and by specific words and phrases. Discuss each word's meaning. Consider why the particular lexical choices were made by the author. Then continue examining the text from the surface level down deeper. Analyze possible signs for each concept and determine equivalents for the text. Then sign the piece for meaning without concern for visual effect. The next phase involves analysis of images in the piece and opportunities for visual interest. A fourth step is to use pantomime or mime to show the images discussed. This requires portrayal of the entire piece without the use of any signs. In this stage, if working with others, use each others' bodies to create images. The final stage is a synthesis of the entire process up to this point. In effect, the groups combine the above steps and use signs, mime, pantomime, and human sculptures to create the images in the source text.

These five steps allow students to loosen their habits and approaches to interpretation and to become open to another way of thinking. It is a constant goal to encourage thinking that is not a machine *gun,* "hear-a-word, throw-out-a-sign" habit. The more students realize that it is *meaning* that they are worlung toward, the less they will be tempted by pat, shallow solutions to interpretation challenges. The sequencing of these stages again builds from meaning through non-language to a final product which is fuller and deeper, but still a translation into the target language.

For more ordinary interpretation, translation is an essential step in building storehouses of strateges, vocabulary, and more within an interpreter. By creating a translation where time pressure is reduced and resources are expanded, students have the opportunity to genuinely experience themselves as fluent creators of an interpretation. This "fills their mental file drawers" with resources, approaches, successful strateges, and good habits.

CONSECUTIVE TO SIMULTANEOUS

In the stages of training, it is useful to introduce time pressure into the students' experience in a progressive and deliberate way. Before doing simultaneous work, it is important to expose students to consecutive tasks. The earliest of these can

have almost no externally imposed time limit. Later exercises might incorporate more stringent time limits. I've come to believe that we unintentionally train students to *not* think, process or generate full interpretations by throwing them into simultaneous, time-pressured tasks too early.

Consecutive interpretation is a very important area of slull in and of itself; however, it can also be a fine tool for the development of processed simultaneous interpretation.

Time pressure can be reduced systematically over time until the interpretation is in simultaneous mode. Stimulus materials can be artificially or technically paused for the opportunity to practice with less time pressure, building up to simultaneous interpretation.

Students should practice consecutive and simultaneous interpreting between Gesture and English, ASL and Signed English, between English and ASL, Signed English and English, and maybe even between ASL and Signed English.

STIMULUS MATERIALS:

Much of what we do can be practiced in workshops or classes using one another as resources for practice. There are also a variety of materials that can be purchased, created, and collected for use in training.

I have listed a number of possibilities that can serve as stimulus materials for exercises.

Stimulus Materials for Sequenced Exercises

A. Stories, Anecdotes, Lectures, etc.

- i. Live—unprepared / prepared
- ii. Videotaped / Audiotaped—unprepared/prepared
- iii. Simple text to Complex text
  - a. Topic—easily understood to challenging
  - b. Use of Language—simple to challenging
  - c. Content—easily understood to challenging
  - d. Grammatically and / or Culturally varied
    1. Structures parallel target language
    2. Structures different from target language
    3. Sophisticated, highly fluent text

e. Technical, Humor, Irony, Sarcasm, Puns

B. Articles (simple-to-complex), i.e. Reader's Digest

C. Wordless / Foreign Comics / Storybooks, i.e., 'Wordless Workshop,"
"The Snowman"

D. Silent Movies and Cartoons

E. Participant generated materials

i. pantomimes, sluts, drawings, stories

ii. Familiar stories, i.e., "Three Pigs"

F. Previously screened / Impromptu stimuli

G. Materials created / selected for focus areas

H. Commercially produced Video / Audio tapes

There are tremendous advantages in using recorded media. Teachers can control the focus of practice sessions, level of difficulty, and other variables. I am still a firm believer in building a great deal of "live" practice into the training of interpreters. It allows for realistic practice, more like what students will encounter in their work, and it provides visual or auditory feedback. I believe that interpreters must learn early and reinforce often that they must look to the clients for their feedback. They must lock on to a variety of clients' ways of communicating understanding, confusion and other feedback. This can be done best in live interactive interpreting.

CONCLUSION

Isolation of individual tasks and focus on areas of slull can help students to understand better their improvement and leaming. It allows us as teachers to do likewise. It has the further benefit of reducing the sense of being overwhelmed, natural in a learner who is approaching a huge and synthetic task such as interpretation.

By starting with gesture and building up to actual interpretation, students have the opportunity to develop excellent processing habits. Inclusion of translation exercises allows students to build a repertoire of successful resolutions to interpretation challenges and to experience themselves as successful at their goal. It is helpful to carefully mix situations in whch students feel competent and those in whch students are forced to stretch so that they can continue learning and feeling good about themselves and their work. Long periods of being overwhelmed seem less than healthy

and long periods of sitting back on one's laurels can lead to false confidence and slothful habits. It is the happy marriage of both that leads to authentically confident, ever-striving professionals who are willing to risk in order to grow and yet generally feel good about themselves and their work.

*The term Signed English is used in this paper generically as shorthand for the English sign system used in a particular setting or within the repertoire of the training or trainee.

TEACHING ASL-ENGLISH INTERPRETATION: THE KEY TO EFFECTIVENESS IS IN THE SEQUENCE

Candace Steffen, CI and CT

ABSTRACT

As interpreter trainers, we typically have our students exercise certain component tasks involved in the process of simultaneous interpretation (e.g., prediction, cloze, paraphrasing, etc.). These isolated tasks are building blocks toward the mastery of ASL-English interpretation. But why do we teach which ones we teach when we teach them? This project recommends a model teaching sequence of some of these component tasks, along with a justification for that sequence in accordance with a process model of interpretation.

BACKGROUND

At the Northern Virginia Community College, Woodbridge, VA (NOVA), I have been a teacher's assistant, a teacher, and a team-teacher in several courses in the Interpreter Training Program. I have taught pre-interpreting, consecutive interpreting, and simultaneous interpreting courses. I have also reviewed the development of the instructor and student manuals for these courses. Although we seemed to be headed in the right direction, there was still something missing.

We discussed the Colonomos Model (Colonornos, 1992), or other process model, as a t e a h g *point,* but did not use it as a teaclung *tool.* Instead, we taught a variety of isolated slulls, or component tasks, involved in the process of interpretation (such as paraphrasing, abstracting, regster, etc.). Students questioned why they had to perform such exercises. We could not explain it. They had been part of the curriculum when we were students, and remained in the current curriculum. Because the tasks were not ordered, we could not see how they fit into the overall process of interpretation. Therefore, I undertook a project to identify a more tangible sequence of teaclung the component tasks in the hope of improving not only my own teaching, but also providing students with better tools for learning the process of simultaneous ASL-English interpretation.

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROJECT

As an elective course toward the completion of my Master's Degree in Linguistics at Gallaudet University, I undertook an independent study with Dr. Carol Patrie. The objectives were to find which component tasks to teach and when. My project included observing **Dr.** Patrie's "Simultaneous ASL-to-English Interpretation" course for an entire semester, and interviewing some of the instructors in the Master's Degree in Interpretation Program at Gallaudet. The majority of the data came from an extensive review of the relevant literature.

The two objectives were completed in two steps: the component tasks were identified and defmed; then a possible sequence for teaching them was outlined. These two phases are described in the next two sections of this paper and the results listed in Appendices A and B.

While the completion of an outlined sequence of tasks satisfied the credit requirements for the independent study course, it did not fully satisfy me. It was not tangible enough to apply to my own teachg. It did not provide the structure the left side of my brain needed. Instead, it provided me with the seed to develop a more cohesive sequence for the teadung of the component tasks. I was then able to pilot the sequence in the course I taught at NOVA in the Spring of 1998. This paper will address the development and evaluation of tlus model teadung sequence of the component tasks (see Appendix C).

COMPILATION OF **A** COMPREHENSIVE LIST OF COMPONENT TASKS

Before beginning to determine an "ideal" teaching sequence of the component tasks, I had to identify as many of the tasks as possible. The list grew quite long, having been developed from a plethora of literature of the world's foremost foreign language interpreter trainers, as well as the country's leading ASL-English interpreter educators. *(See* the bibliography.) The list also became confusing since distinctions between tasks were not easily identified. In some cases, one label for a task may have been described several ways. In other cases, one definition may have had several labels. To deal with these "synonyms," shades of meaning were noted, and similar tasks were categorized in order to have a more manageable fmal list.

To further confound the process of developing a comprehensive list of tasks, there were disagreements among the researchers. For instance, there are two views on "shadowing." Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989) and Gerver (1974) have provided evidence that shadowing is actually detrimental to the learning process. However, Gile (1995) views shadowing as mandatory, and it remains a part of the curricula of many ASL-English ITPs (including NOVA and Gallaudet). Should such a task still be included on a comprehensive list of component tasks? Rather than taking a side on this or any other issue, when conflicting views appeared, both were listed and the disparity noted with an asterisk. See Appendix A for the list of component tasks, with brief definitions of each task . The list is in no particular order and reflects the confusion found within the literature.

THE SEQUENCING OF COMPONENT TASKS ACCORDING TO THE LITERATURE

Converting the comprehensive list of tasks into a sequential list was even more difficult. It began with an analysis of the works of authors who have most directly addressed the issue of sequencing: Lambert (1988), Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989), and Patrie (1995). Seleskovitch and Lederer's A Systematic Approach to Teaching Intemretation (henceforth SOL) sequences training on a macro level: pre-interpreting, consecutive interpretmg, then simultaneous interpreting. Within each level, they discuss several component tasks, but not necessarily in any order. Patrie does the same thing. She divides learning into eleven major steps, breaking some of them into components which are not sequenced. Lambert, on the other hand, does list several tasks in a precise order. However, she limits her discussion to tasks which need to be mastered before actual interpreting practice begins (in other words, during the pre-interpreting stage). These three works provided a backbone for this study—a study which sought to be more specific.

The works of other authors were matched against this backbone to develop a more specific sequence. Since the issue of "order" was not directly discussed by the majority of authors, the process of putting the tasks into a sequence was troublesome. A mention may have been made as to when one task is taught in relation to the entire teaching process, but not in relation to other tasks. Plus, there were many differences among the recommendations of the researchers. (For

example, Lambert and Patrie both feel dual-tasking exercises are important early, while SILL believe we should wait until the students are ready to go from consecutive to simultaneous mode.) In fact, not only were there discrepancies among the authors, but also a given author may even contradict himself or herself. (For instance, Lambert teaches cloze skills near the end of her training even though she says that cloze is a measure of language competence which needs to be addressed early.)

From all the data, a rough sequence was listed, with major categories and similar tasks grouped together. Major discrepancies were noted with asterisks, and minor discrepancies were forced into some sort of resolution according to my own experience and intuition. This rough sequence was then validated through interviews with two instructors of the M. A. program at Gallaudet University.

Finally, a detailed outline of the sequence of tasks was developed. If you look at the outline in Appendix B, you will see that, although each individual task is listed in a sequence, there is still plenty of confusion due to overlap, duplication, actual disagreements among the researchers, etc. It was nearly impossible to synthesize the plethora of data. There was no real cohesion, no true rationale for the order. The backbone was strong, but the rest relied too heavily on my own interpretation of the data. In other words, I felt my research question had not truly been answered:

What is an "ideal" t e a h g sequence of the component tasks involved in the process of simultaneous ASL-English interpretation?

ASSOC IATION BETWEEN COMPONENT TASKS AND A PROCESS MODEL OF INTERPRETATION

Corollaries to the questions are to what lund of a framework can we attach the component tasks? Why were we teaching process models (e.g., the Colonomos Model, etc.) merely as teadung points, but not using them as teachmg tools? Could a process model of interpretation provide the framework for the teadung sequence of the component tasks? Even though the two are not strictly linear, my hypothesis was that optimal learning would take place if the learning process parallels the cognitive process, or a "process model."

For purposes of this project, a simple five-step process model was chosen as the framework for the model sequence of component tasks. This particular process model is actually Dr. Carol Patrie's Error Analysis Model. According to Gile (1995), as part of the learning process, students should be required to critique their own interpretations by identifying the reasons for their own errors. The model Dr. Patrie has developed lists five underlying reasons errors can be made in interpretation: comprehension, transfer, reformulation, expression, or monitor. This "Error Analysis Model" is clearly a "cognitively sequential Process Model" (Gile, 1995). Each step depends on the mastery of the previous step. Obviously, what students are really being asked to do is to find where, in a five-step process of interpretation, the process broke down. Although other process models could provide a framework for a model sequence for teaching the component tasks, I chose *to* use "Patrie's Model" (as I will call it) due to its simplicity:

An interpreter must comprehend before she can transfer the message into a short-term memory store. Then she can reformulate it into the target language and make choices as to how to actually express it, at which time she monitors her own interpretation.

THE MODEL TEACHING SEQUENCE OF COMPONENT TASKS

According to this model, student development parallels the cogrutive process of interpretation: a mastery of comprehension is required before moving on to exercises at the transfer level, etc. Students cycle through the same five steps of Patrie's Model three times: first at the pre-interpreting stage, then during the consecutive interpreting (CI), and simultaneous interpreting (SI) stages. Each step is developed during each cycle by exercising component tasks which apply to that particular step (e.g., in the reformulation step, students complete coding, transcoding, and digit processing exercises). Appendix C lists the model teaclung sequence of component tasks in outline form.

During the pre-interpreting stage, students learn how to apply Patrie's Model and how to develop related component tasks withm each of the five steps of that process. In the CI phase, students follow the same order, repeating similar associated component tasks at each step. Each step is practiced first with relatively lengthy processing times, then with shorter processing times before moving on to

the next step. Upon mastery of CI skills, students transition to the SI stage where they repeat for the third time the same exact five steps of Patrie's Model, with the same component tasks within each step. This model resolves much of the confusion among the literature where the same or similar component tasks crop up at various times since this sequence calls for similar tasks to be exercised during each of the three major stages of learning. The only major difference between each stage is simply the amount of processing time allowed.

The model sequence also bridges the gap students typically encounter between the CI and SI stages. Students who have mastered CI suffer from all types of errors in the simultaneous mode, especially comprehension errors (Patrie, 1997). According to this model, students go back through the same learning process again—beginning with the initial stage, comprehension, and working sequentially through all five steps of Patrie's Model again, until mastery of simultaneous skills is acquired.

Of course we need to keep in mind that each component task is a building block: each one on top of the last, integrating into a solid foundation for the mastery of simultaneous interpretation. Realistically, of course, building blocks can weaken over time, in which case they need to be remforced, affecting the teaching sequence. Finally, tlus "ideal" sequence is, of course, a baseline model. Countless intervening variables affect the teadung and learning process: resources, time, individual learning rates / styles, etc. Any one or more can change the structure of a course. Tlus model is also a living document. It includes as much data as constraints would allow, but remains open to additions, deletions, and modifications.

EVALUATION OF THE MODEL TEACHING SEQUENCE

This new model has been put into practice in a class at the Northern Virginia Community College at Woodbridge. In "Consecutive English-to-ASL Interpreting," Spring, 1998, we began with a short description of "Patrie's Model", and followed throughout the course. Each week, we referred to which of the five steps we were working on, linking it to the individual component tasks we were exercising. The confusion we had experienced in previous courses melted away. We had cohesion. I had the framework the left side of my brain wanted, and the adult learners had the justification they had been demanding for performing each task.

We began the semester with comprehension exercises. We continued to promote slulls the students had practiced during the pre-interpreting stage: cloze / anticipating, abstracting, attending, predicting, applying extralinguistic knowledge, paraphrasing, and maintaining fidelity. Upon exhibiting mastery of these tasks, students were asked to perform a second task while comprehending the source message (dual-tasking). Seleskovitch and Lederer feel dual-tasking exercises should be done only when students are ready to make the leap to SI. However, they teach foreign language interpretation, a field in whch interpreters who never seem to be able to master SI can still earn a living by worlung in consecutive mode, a luxury we ASL-English interpreters do not have. For us dual-tasking is a central slull requiring early mastery.

The second step, transfer, was developed through picture drawing exercises: listening to the source message (in this case spoken English), then drawing comic strips representing what was heard. This involved a series of exercises beginning with short "lag" times and long drawing times, and ending with long lag times (requiring better short-term memory storage) and short drawing times. We repeated the process, substituting the pictures with paraphrasing in the same language (English) and requiring more use of short-term memory by using larger "chunks" of English source texts and reorganizing the message into a logical sequence.

The students then listened to the same chunks of the English text again, then reformulated each chunk into the target language (ASL). We began linking the content of the message to its new form by coding the message into the target language (ASL). Sign choices, grammatical structure, and register were NOT addressed yet. Students were allowed to make non-native speaker mistakes as long as the message was still understandable, even if it took a certain mount of "interpretation" to understand their target message. At this point, special attention was paid to transcoding, or the production of fingerspelling and numbers. Once they could accomplish these tasks comfortably with familiar source texts, students worked with unfamiliar source texts of increasing difficulty.

When they could finally listen to a brand-new English text, wait, and then put out a discernible ASL message, they were ready to move on to refining their expression. At this stage, they again began by worlung on familiar texts to improve upon their previous reformulations. They corrected linguistic output, grammar, and

sign (word) choices. They worked to convey confidence and professional demeanor. They also had to provide two interpretations, each in a different register, of the same source text. Again, once they mastered familiar texts, they moved through the same process with increasingly more difficult and unfamiliar source texts, allowing for less processing time.

The final step in the process was for the students to monitor their own performances. Recognition of one's own error in interpretation can negatively impact comprehension (Gile, 1995). Once comprehension is diminished, the entire process can break down. Up to this point, students had been allowed to correct their interpretations before moving on the next "chunk" so that there would be a minimum of interference from error recogrution. At this point, students were allowed less and less processing time between chunks of source texts. They not only had less time to correct themselves, but they also began building toward simultaneous interpretation skills. They had to deal with the stress and repair the interpretation while comprehending the next part of the source message. As in each step, they began with familiar texts and were ready to move on to unfamiliar texts of increasing difficulty, employing less processing time. Unfortunately, we ran out of time and were not able to fully develop monitoring tasks, especially repair techruques.

In the next course, "Simultaneous English-to-ASL Interpreting," students repeat the entire five-step process of Patrie's Model (for a tlurd time), refining the component tasks associated with each step. Although level of complexity increases at each of the three stages of learning, the major differencebetween each stage is the element of time. Less and less processing time is allowed until students master SI. This manipulation of processing time occurs within each of the five steps in progression. For example, as soon as students can perform transfer slulls while simultaneously comprehending the next part of the source text, they can move on to the next step, reformulation, and so on.

CONCLUSION

Applying this new model teaching sequence of the component tasks brought noticeable improvement to the teachmg of the course in which it was piloted, a course which had previously lacked order. Following the model improved the

classroom dynamic over previous classes, and increased the level of student satisfaction. Students remarked that their skills—and confidence--notably improved. Course evaluations reflected very favorably on the new model. In addition, having an understanding of the process of interpretation, and how to exercise certain component tasks within each step of that process, allowed them to grasp the tools they needed to practice either on their own or in formal training.

This model sequence of component tasks is flexible. It can apply to any course: CI, SI, English-to-ASL, ASL-to-English, etc. The process is the same no matter the mode or language. Moreover, any process model of interpretation can provide the framework for sequencing component tasks. Patrie's Model just happened to be chosen for this example because of its simplicity, but the component tasks can be arranged to fit other models as well.

RECOMMENDATION

Further evaluation of the model teaching sequence of component tasks needs to be conducted. At the Northern Virginia Community College, we will be measuring its success in other courses. We hope to see improved student achievement and retention as we use the model to unify and standardize our curriculum. Instructors elsewhere are encouraged to apply this model to their courses, and evaluate its success. Feedback on the model's effectiveness and questions on its application are welcome: Candace Steffen, 29 Canterbury Square #202, Alexandria, VA 22304.

APPENDIX A

COMPREHENSIVE LIST OF THE COMPONENT TASKS INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF TEACHING ASL-ENGLISH INTERPRETATION

(listed in no particular order)

1. cloze (ability to fill in missing lexical items, phrases, or entire utterances intralingually) (Oiler, 1988; Patrie, 1995, others')
   a. predictor of language proficiency
   "b. ability to predict (Winston) "prediction listed independently
   c. evidence of cognitive flexibility (Schweda-Nicholson, 1990)
2. cognitive flexibility (ability to use left hemisphere of brain for tasks usually done in the right hemisphere, and vice versa) (Schweda-Nicholson, 1990)
3. language competence in L1 & L2 (first and second language skill) (Gile, 1995; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; Patrie, 1995; Moser-Mercer, 1983)
4. cultural competence in L1 & L2 (Patrie, 1995)
5. comprehension
6. attending (Patrie, 1995, others); endurance (Patrie, 1995, Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; others); selective watching listening (Winston)
7. applying extra-linguistic knowledge (Gile, 1995, Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989, Patrie, 1995); long-term memory; schema
8. abstracting (Isham, 1986); conveying metanotative qualities (Cokely, 1983); recogruzing "sense" (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989); getting the point (Gish, 1986)
9. fidelity maintenance (Gile 1995); message preservation (Patrie, 1995) (remaining true to the message)
10. separating form and content / meaning; transfer (Gile, 1995; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
11. overcoming interference from source; breaking form; deverbalization
12. utterance boundary identification (Isham & Lane, 1993; Winston)

13. discourse mapping (reconstruction of text into major and minor topics) (Winston); recall links between logical sequences of discourse (Patrie, 1995)
14. functional chunking *(chunk* info based on comparisons, temporal mapping, narratives, **and** constructed dialogues) (Winston)
15. non-verbal storage; visual memory; visualization (Daro, 1989)
16. linking content to a new form; reformulation
17. automaticity; turning technique into reflex* (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
    *a. may be impossible—even comprehending one's own first language is not automatic during the process of interpretation (Gile, 1995)
18. dual tasking; multi taslung (e.g., watching story whle writing numbers) (Lambert, 1988; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; Patrie, 1995)

*19. shadowing *seems to be used as a label for a variety of exercises:
    a. L1 to L1 (or L2 to L2 –Patrie, 1995) lexical items only, then L2 to L1 (Lambert, 1988)
    b. then phrases (Winston)
    c. without lag time (Patrie, 1995), then with" (Winston)
    d. consecutively, then simultaneously* (*simultaneously only, Lambert, 1988)
    *e. should not be done at all (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; Gerver, 1974)

20. processing time; lag time; decalage (the interpreter can be anywhere from 10 seconds behind the speaker to being ahead of speaker) (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
21. short-term memory storage (Daro, 1989)
22. paraphrasing (rephrasing lexical items or phrases intralingually (Patrie, 1995; Winston, others)
23. coding (paraphrasing interlingually)
24. predicting content; accessing background mformation; using contextual clues; pre-conferencing
25. anticipating (a *cross* between 'prediction' and 'cloze'—knowing what the speaker will say before he says it.)
26. transcoding (terms whch require a 1-for-1 equivalent) (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)

a. corresponding terms

b. monoreferential terms (terms which cause reformulation problems) (Gile, 1995)

c. digit processing

27. digit processing (Lambert, 1988; Winston)

a. numbers (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)

b. plus fingerspelling (Winston, Smith, 1983)

28. expression

a. word and grammar choices

b. pronunciation / enunciation / production of signs

c. confidence and pleasantness (Patrie, 1995)

29. matching register (Isham, 1986, others)

30. monitoring message accuracy of interpretation (Gile, 1995; Patrie, 1995); self correcting

31. managing stress (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; Patrie, 1995)

NOTES

Component tasks with similar definitions are listed together, separated by a semicolon

'Other' represents agreement among several sources

"Represents disparity within the literature

APPENDIX B

TRENDS IN THE SEQUENCING OF THE COMPONENT TASKS

I. PRE-INTERPRETING PHASE

A. Language Skills (Moser-Mercer 1983) / Language Competence (Patrie, 1995) (and others[1])

1. fingerspelled words; numbers
   a. recogrution
   b. transcoding

*2. cloze (Oller, 1988; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989) "(much later, Lambert, 1988)

*3. Restructure different grammars (Smith, 1983) "(belongs later as 'reformulation')

4. cultural competence | Patrie, 1995)

B. Comprehension = Knowledge of the Language + Extra-linguistic Knowledge (Gile, 1995)

1. knowledge of language
   a. attending and endurance (Patrie 1995); selective watching / listening (Winston)
   b. utterance boundary identification (Isham & Lane, 1993; Winston)

2. extra-linguistic knowledge (Gile, 199S; Patrie, 1995): long-term memory; schema
   a. background info
   b. predication
   c. anticipation
   d. contextual clues

"3. abstracting; context *(also listed toward end of SI stage, Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
   a. discourse mapping (Winston)

4. fingerspelling; numbers (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989 and Patrie, 1995)

C. Cogrutive flexibility (Schweda-Nicholson, 1990)

D. Fidelity maintenance (Gile. 1995)

*E. NO Shadowing (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)

*F. Shadowing (Gile, 1995; Lambert, 1988) / Selective Shadowing (Winston)
1. phonemic - no time lag (Lambert, 1988; Winston)
2. phrasal — short lag (Lambert, 1988; Winston)

G. Short-term memory / Processing Time
1. shadowing with lag time
2. paraphrasing with lag time
3. chunking / functional chunking (Winston)

H. Dual / Multi-tasking

I. Transfer
1. separating form and content; breaking form
2. deverbalization; visualization
3. discourse mapping (Winston)
4. overcoming interference from source message

J. Reformulation
1. linking content to new form
2. paraphrasing
3. coding; interlingual paraphrasing

K. Expression -appropriate hguistic output

L. Monitor
1. stress management
2. speed, density, complexity
3. message accuracy (Patrie, 1997)
4. comprehension after monitoring an error

II. CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION PHASE "CI"

A. Understanding 'sense' (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989) / Comprehension
1. abstracting
2. work on content, not form (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
*3. draw on context and extra-linguistic knowledge (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989) "also later under Long-term memory'
4. prediction (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)

B. Language slulls (spontaneous expression (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)

C. Attention

D. Memory

*1. Short-term memory *(alsoseen earlier and later under decalage)

2. Long-term memory "(alsoseen earlier and later as extra-lingustic knowledge)

3. chunking—small phrases (Moser-Mercer, 1983) [Processing Time]

E. Visualization (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

1. must overcome interference from source language by or during CI

*F. Cloze (Lambert 1988) *(also in pre-interpreting stage as proof of language competence)

G. Endurance

H. Register—broad intro, do not be picky yet (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

*I. Transcoding *(Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989, says to do this later? just develop –sense' first)

*J. Dual-tasking *(Seleskovitch & Lederer suggests to use as a segue to SI) (see below? D)

K. Reformulation (Gile, 1995)

*L. Expression *(Seleskovitch & Lederer suggests not to be picky until later)

III. SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION PHASE "SI"

A. Mastery of CI techruques using extemporaneous source text (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

*B. Automaticity—turning technique into reflex (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989) (*Gile, 1995, says it's impossible)

C. Increasing difficulty from one phase to the next (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989, Patrie, 1995)

1. comprehension; topics

2. transfer; discourse analysis; complexity of arguments

3. transcoding—more dense

4. reformulation—more complete

5. expression—increased quality

6. endurance—attending—longerthan 15 mins. (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

7. prediction—from less dense to more dense topics (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989)
8. speed—extemporaneous, natural -> read, non-thinking (Bowen & Bowen, 1984)

D. Dual-tasking (what our brains do, Daro, 1989)—segue to SI after CI mastered (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)*Lambert, 1988, teaches this much sooner

*E. No Shadowing (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

**F. Shadowing *Lambert 1988 teaches much later as part of 'lag time'

G. Decalage (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

1. abstracting, if need to catch up (Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

*H. Abstracting / 'Sense' (also as first step toward comprehension)

*I. Extralinguistic Knowledge (Gile, 1995)"(overlapswith predictions background, but continues to apply during interpreting event)

J. Anticipation / Prediction

K. Transcoding (Gile, 1995; Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989) taught after expressing 'sense' is mastered

L. Register (Gile, 1995; Seleskovitch& Lederer, 1989)

*M. Stress management—last phase (Lambert, 1988) ("Moser-Mercer, 1983 addresses stress much earlier, during pre-interpreting stage)

NOES

*Representsdisparity among the literature.

[1] 'Others' represents agreement among several authors.

APPENDIX C

THE MODEL TEACHING SEQUENCE OF SOME OF THE COMPONENT TASKS INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF ASL-ENGLISH INTERPRETATION

REPEAT THE FOLLOWING SEQUENCE DURING EACH STAGE:

1) PRE-INTERPRETING STAGE

2) CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING STAGE

3) SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING STAGE

FIVE STEPS OF PATRIE'S MODEL; ASSOCIATED COMPONENT TASKS

COMPREHENSION

anticipating; cloze (and other measures of language competency) abstracting;

recogruzing sense; getting the point

attending; endurance

predicting; applying background information; pre-conferencing

applying extra-linguistic knowledge; schema

paraphrasing

maintaining message accuracy; fidelity

dual / multi-tasking

TRANSFER

separating form and content

extending lag time; decalage

short-term memory

non-verbal storage; visual memory; visualization

recalling links between logical sequences of discourse

chunking

REFORMULATION

- linking content and new form
- coding; paraphrasing interlingually
- transcoding
- digit processing (numbers and fingerspelling)

EXPRESSION

- Register
- linguistic output
  - word choices
  - grammar choices
- pronunciation / enunciation / production of signs
- confidence and pleasantness

MONITORING

- message accuracy
- stress management
- repair techniques

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KEYS TO HIGHLY EFFECTIVE ETHICAL DECISION-MAKING: AN APPROACH FOR TEACHING ETHICAL STANDARDS AND PRACTICE

Anna Witter-Merithew and Kellie Mills Stewart

INTRODUCTION

Graduates of interpreter training programs (ITP) frequently work in isolation, without benefit of direct supervision or access to experienced practitioners. As the field of interpreting continues to evolve, new challenges related to cross-cultural conflicts, business practices, and diversity among consumers are presented. The combination of these factors creates the need for entry-level practitioners to possess well-formed and informed attitudes about the nature of interpreting and role boundaries. A review of published course offerings of over forty (40) Interpreter Education Programs (IEP) indicates that instruction regarding ethical standards and practices occurs as a topic with other coursework, rather than as a formal, independent course of study. It is our belief that the process of developing the critical thinking and analysis shlls necessary to make mature ethical decisions cannot be achieved when ethical standards and practices are addressed as a topic with a broader course.

Historically, ethical decision-makmg has been taught as rule-based learning, with the RID, Inc., Code of Ethics serving as the source of rules. This has resulted in a right / wrong orientation to solving dilemmas, which is an insufficient model given the cross-cultural / cross-linguistic complexities of interpreting. In more recent years, the work of Gish (1990) has fostered a paradigm shft, recognizing the need for students to engage in value clarification as part of their understanding and appreciation of ethical standards and practice. This focus encourages students to gain insight into their own belief and value systems and to gain appreciation for how beliefs and values influence ethical conflict and decision-making.

It is our goal to contribute to the furthering of this paradigm shft by relating the development of attitudes regarding the ethical standards and practice of interpreter practitioners to a model of moral and ethical development. This model, based on the work of William Perry, represents moral and ethical maturity as a process requiring cultivation through a series of academic experiences and opportunities. The maturing

process can be cultivated by a variety of principles offered by Rushworth Kidder in his book, How Good People Make Tough. This body of work defines four paradigms representing the conflicting core values at the source of true ehcal dilemmas. An understanding of these four paradigms and their manifestation provides a model for understanding ethical conflict and guidance towards resolution. In addition to using these resources to establish a theoretical framework for a course in Ethical Standards and Practice, we will offer suggestions for strategies that could be used to design and format such a course.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR AN ETHICAL STANDARDS AND PRACTICE COURSE

The challenges of role definition and boundaries within the field of Sign Language Interpreting, as well as an appreciation for the paradigm shifts we have experienced, can be illuminated by examining the work of Perry (1970) in defining a scheme of intellectual and ehcal development. Perry's work charted the intellectual and ethical development of students as they moved through undergraduate studies at Harvard University. He focused on how students' conception of the nature and origin of knowledge evolved and were cultivated through a series of academic experiences and opportunities. The result was that as their sense of themselves as KNOWERS matured, so did their ability to understand, appreciate, and manage difference.

Perry defines a sequence of epistemological perspectives that he calls positions. These positions serve as the interpretative framework used by students to give meaning to their experiences. He defines four basic positions: Basic Dualism, Multiplicity, Relativism Subordinate, and Relativism. Perry suggests that learners start from an initial position of ethical dualism, where decisions are dictated by authority figures. In this position, the learner is dependent on authorities to hand down THE TRUTH, while they function in a more passive state intellectually and ethically. The student in this position interprets experiences within a black / white, good / bad, we / they, and right / wrong orientation. Belenky et al. (1986.), refers to this position of dependency as a state of received knowledge.

As learners are confronted by diverse ideas, their trust in absolutes is shaken, and they begin to seek a degree of personal freedom in defining their experiences. This shift is to a position of multiplicity, where the learner begins to grow beyond

dependency and trust for external authorities. The learners must explore their own opinions when conflicting perspectives muddle their sense of absolutes. In this stage ambiguity seems overwhelming, and strongly stated opinions seem prejudicial or biased (Bennett, 1994). In an effort to resolve feelings of conflict, the learner determines that one opinion is as good as another, and that their own opinions are as good as those of others. Belenky et al (1986) refers to this position as a state of subjective knowledge.

In Perry's scheme, learners move beyond this confusing point through reception of the inevitability of ambiguity and of their own responsibility to think autonomously, based on an assessment of the context (Bennett, 1994). This position is referred to as relativism subordinate. This awareness comes from the insistence of peers and teachers to support opinions with evidence and facts. As learners begin evaluating opinion based on the credibility of evidence, they begin to think more critically and analytically. Belenky et al. (1986) refers to this position as the state of procedural knowledge. In this position the learners begin to embrace responsibility for making their own decisions, and acquire strategies for evaluating and assessing conflicting perspectives.

Once learners have achieved this recogrution of context as a central factor in determining the meaning of events, as well as differences in "world-views" which contribute to how individuals interpret events, they are prepared to move into the final position of the model, referred to as commitment in relativism. In this position, the learners are able to express respect and appreciation for alternative opinions while making conscious, responsible, and critical choices about their own decisions and actions within any given context. This movement into intellectual and ethical maturity begins to pervade all aspects of their life—not just academics.

Appendix A provides an illustration of how these positions equate with the progressive development of the role identity of interpreter practitioners. We can frame many of our historic paradigm shifts in terms of Perry's work and the terms used by Belenky et al. (1986). For example, Perry's initial stage of basic dualism (received knowledge) can be applied to that stage in our development when we did not have a sufficient workforce to contribute to a body of theory regarding the practice of interpretation. We depended on the authorities (Deaf Educators) of that era to define our role and responsibilities as practitioners and to tell us how to distinguish between right and wrong. As the number of practitioners increased and the work of interpreters

shifted from occasional, part-time work to a career option, we were confronted with the social, cultural, and intellectual conflicts centered in the view of an interpreter as a conduit. We sought other ways to define our role. The shift from a role of conduit to that of an emerging professional and communication facilitator can be attributed to a shift from the position of basic dualism to the positions of multiplicity and subordinate relativism. As we have learned more about language use and cultural orientation within the Deaf Community, we have developed an appreciation and respect for the differences in world-views of consumer groups. This growing awareness has fostered more contemporary perspectives on role defirution. As our intellectual and ethical understanding has matured, so has our ability to accept responsibility for our ethical decisions and behavior. Thus, we can use this framework to understand our own intellectual and ethical development and also to assist interpreting students in progressing through their own stages of intellectual and ethical development.

OVERVIEW AND GOALS OF A COURSE IN ETHICAL STANDARDS AND PRACTICE

The overarchmg goal of a course in Ethical Standards and Practice is to develop ethical fitness—to enhance students' skills and judgment in ethical and moral decision-making. Rushworth Kidder defines ehcal fitness as, "the capacity to recognize the nature of moral challenges and respond with a well-tuned conscience, a lively perception of the difference between right and wrong, and an ability to choose the right and live by it" (1995). Fostering the development of ethical fitness is no easy task! In fact, it requires great effort and attention. In order to gain maturity into ethical fitness, we must engage students in thinking about it, discussing it, focusing on it, analyzing it, comparing it, and applying it. There are a variety of ways to accomplish this overarchmg goal and a myriad of tools available to teachers.

There are five objectives we would propose for any course in Ethical Standards and Practice. One objective, which sets the foundation of the course, is to heighten students' awareness of moral and ehcal issues currently facing our society. Many interpreter education programs do not require students to take a course(s) in phlosophy or moral reasoning. Given that fact, students tend to be much better at applying ethical and moral issues within a professional realm after they have first had the opportunity to explore these issues from the world around them. Current affairs

focusing on moral and ethical issues abound in newspapers, magazines, journals, and on the Internet. A valuable activity is to ask students to identify a moral or ethical issue being discussed in any publication and bring a copy of the article to class for group discussion. Through this activity, students can enhance their ability to identify the dilemmas involved, as well as talk about their opinion on the issues. Students begin to discover how strongly they feel about tough subjects and how comfortable they are discussing their opinions openly. They also begin to take note of how the opinions of other students may or may not affect their thinlung.

A second, and related, course objective is to enhance students' awareness of themselves by exploring their own values and beliefs. We all carry personal value systems within us that must be explored and understood in order to appreciate how our experiences impact on our approach to decision-making and conflict resolution. Traditional methods used in interpreter education programs have fostered rigid, rule-based learning about ethical conduct. These methods encourage students to ignore everything about us, which is human. In fact, it fosters a position of basic dualism where behavior must be black or wlite, right or wrong, good or bad. This position is still evidenced in the majority of seasoned and novice interpreters we encounter in continuing education classes. Likewise, the reason many interpreters today call for a revised code of ethics, whch would include detailed guidelines for behavior, is that traditional teaching methods ask us to make ethical decisions in a vacuum. By helping students discover what they hnk and feel about various topics, teachers can begin to make connections between personal values and beliefs versus the values and beliefs of deaf consumers, hearing consumers, and colleagues. After all, conflicts between value systems are at the heart of ehcal and moral dilemmas.

Several activities can be used in an Ethical Standards and Practice course to help students develop an awareness of their values and beliefs. One such activity is to have the class read The Apology and Crito, by Socrates. Extensive discussions can be generated by asking students pertinent questions, such as whether or not they agree with Socrates' choice to drink the hemlock and die for his beliefs. Parallels can be drawn between Socrates' choice to maintain his integrity and professional choice interpreters will face. For example, how much of my reputation and professional angst am I willing to risk for the sake of an accurate interpretation?

Another activity for developing self-awareness is directed journaling. Directed joumaling provides students with a series of questions or situations to explore which require reflection on their family of origin, significant life experiences, and the origin of beliefs they hold. The sharing of journal entries within the class structure fosters the development of trust, self- revelation, and risk-taking. This process increases awareness of themselves and the experiences of others, whde fostering an appreciation for the vulnerability consumers experience when exposing intimate parts of their life in the presence of interpreters. This process can encourage an increased appreciation for the importance of privacy and confidentiality, as well as helping to identify unresolved issues that may need to be addressed.

Another course objective is to enhance students' ability to recogruze, identify, and discuss theoretical models of intellectual, moral, and ehcal decision-making. Traditionally, interpreters have viewed the IUD Code of Ethics with a right versus wrong paradigm. This is evidenced by our typical, literal interpretations of the code and our professional rhetoric. Often, interpreter practitioners discuss ethical scenarios in terms of "breaking the code of ethics." This phrase, first and foremost, suggests ethical issues are dichotomous, when in fact most ethical dilemmas have multiple dimensions. It further suggests that there is an imaginary fine line, which, when crossed, plunges an interpreter into unethical purgatory. Kidder delineates between Right versus Right dilemmas and Right versus Wrong temptations. In our experience, students and practitioners often struggle to separate the two. Yet, when interpreters are faced with a moral temptation, there is clearly a right and wrong choice (e.g., If a company pays me twice for the same interpreting job, should I keep the check or send it back?) Ethical dilemmas are more complex, however. They involve two or more choices, which are all right or valid. (e.g., it is right that Deaf people have interpreters who possess the highest level of skill to interpret for them. It is right that interpreters have opportunities, as part of their professional growth, to stretch their shlls in situations where they lack experience.) These dilemmas require careful analysis to discover what our values tell us, what the Deaf Community would value and expect, and what non-deaf consumers would value and expect. It is important to provide an opportunity for students to explore professional choices and to learn that professional choices affect opinions about the profession, about deaf people, and about the effectiveness of the interpreting process. Attention to this objective is well worth the class time required because it

fosters critical thinking skills, provides a framework for evaluating choices, and provides a foundation for the rest of the course.

Related to the course objective above, it is our observation that the RID Code of Ethics includes tenets which relate directly to ethical behavior and tenets which would fit better under a category of professional responsibilities. For example, the Code requires interpreters to keep assignment-related information confidential, interpret accurately, remain impartial, etc. At the same time, it includes requirements for dressing and behaving appropriately, remaining current in the field, etc. Learning to recognize, identify, and discuss theoretical models of moral and ethical decision-making can be directly applied to how we view the RID Code of Ethics, or any other code for that matter. Learning to separate the impact of choices surrounding confidentiality, accuracy, impartiality, etc. on our consumers versus the impact of choices surrounding how we dress and our continued professional development can help students better understand that all tenets of our Code are not necessarily equal. One way to demonstrate these differences is during case study reviews. Part of the discussion can focus on whether the scenario exemplifies an ethical or professional issue. Depending on the answer, the choices and consequences of those choices will change.

Another strategy for introducing models of intellectual, moral, and ethical decision-making is to explore other codes of conduct. Samples can be drawn from the published codes of corporations (e.g., IBM, Xerox), organizations (e.g., the Boy Scouts), and other professions (e.g., teachers, attorneys, counselors, and court interpreters.) These samples can be used to explore the values and beliefs that are communicated by the stated tenets and to consider the implications for decision-making. Considering case studies from the perspective of several different models and codes of conduct fosters an awareness of alternatives and differences in world-views.

A fourth course objective is to enhance students' ability to structure logical, reasonable arguments and to express a point of view with other people. Practitioners are often required to discuss the nature of their work and the choices they make within the context of interpreting. Historically, practitioners express a lack of confidence or ability to describe and / or defend their behavior and choices. Professionals should possess dynamic communication skills—characterized by openness, the ability to listen, trust, objectivity, conciseness, and a positive attitude. Common barriers to good communication are poor listening skills, uncontrolled emotions, negative or defensive

attitudes, blaming, distractions, and work choices. Students benefit from ample opportunities to develop and express communication skills and the ability to contrast perspectives in a professional manner.

One strategy to help students with this skill is to have a set of organized debates on various topics. Students can be assigned a position they have to support. Part of the debate exercise is learning to argue in support of a position for which you disagree. Topics can be drawn from issues in the Deaf Community (e.g., cochlear implants, bilingual education, options regarding access to interpreting services), the interpreting profession (e.g., interpreter certification and credentialing, educational standards for ITPs, role boundaries), or the broader society (e.g., impeachment of the President, what constitutes harassment, accessibility in the sports industry.) This exercise helps students learn to analyze dilemmas from a more abstract position and to develop the tools to test and challenge their instincts.

Additionally, debate exercises enhance critical thinking skills and help students recognize that what constitutes reasonableness is influenced by what is familiar to us, what we have come to expect within our cultural references, what enables us to draw valid conclusions. Reasonableness is what we have been taught to *see*, what culture distinguishes as important and what we have been conditioned to expect. Therefore, reasonableness will vary depending on world / cultural view.

The final course objective is to enhance students' awareness of the personal and professional implications associated with ethical and moral decision-malung. As mentioned earlier, our professional choices affect deaf consumers, non-deaf consumers, our colleagues, and the field. Through discussions, role-plays, and case studies, personal characteristics–such as responsibility, integrity, respect, and attitude-can be explored. In a class composition, whch includes deaf and non-deaf students, opportunities are unlimited for exploring how values may differ between communities, as well as among other cultures. In the absence of diversity w i t h the class composition, diversity can be introduced by way of invited guests; the use of videotaped observations from within the Deaf community; and consumer interviews. The discussions, which emerge from such exercises help guide students in developing recogrution of "red flags," whch may serve to warn them when, as future practitioners, assumptions, judgments, and ethnocentric views begin to affect their decision-makmg.

Much of what occurs in the course structure targets attitudinal learning—the most difficult and challenging area of learning to effect. Covey (1989) states that, "attitude is the desire to do things in a principled way." It is critical for teachers of interpreting to recogruze that any effort to define ethical behavior without consideration of who deaf people are, both as a community and as individuals, will be unsuccessful, because deaf people and their experience within society are what INSPIRE the DESIRE part of student learning. One activity we have found to be extremely beneficial, not only in gaining insight into the Deaf Community's view of interpreters, but also their views on the subject of principled behavior, is to hold in or out of class discussions with deaf people about the term attitude. It is our experience that attitude is an important variable in a deaf persons' comfort with a practitioner. Such discussions help to define and mold students' attitudinal response to the role of an interpreter.

The five course objectives we've addressed are designed to support and achieve the overarching goal of developing ethical fitness and enhancing students' skills and judgment in ethical and moral decision-making. The exercises discussed offer a brief introduction of instructional strategies available to teachers of such a course. Appendix B provides a list of primary skills that could be addressed withm an Etl-ucal Standards and Practice course and some associated activities / strategies for fostering student acquisition of the primary slulls.

TEXTBOOK CONSIDERATIONS

In exploring textbooks for a course in Etl-ucal Standards and Practice, the book we have mentioned several times by Kidder, entitled How Good People Make Tough Choices, has been used with a great deal of success. The writing is clear and written in everyday vernacular. The book captures students through Kidder's use of scenarios, which illustrate his paradigms. These scenarios or short stories never go beyond the dilemma by giving us the sense that there is **an** answer to the question of what is the right choice. This is useful in helping students break away from the desire to know THE answer to an ethical challenge.

The chapters in the book focus on right versus right dilemmas, right versus wrong issues, ethical fitness, core values, paradigms, and resolution principles. He outlines four dilemma paradigms, which he offers as a way to identify true ethical issues versus moral temptations. They are truth versus loyalty, individual versus the

community, short-term versus long-term, and justice versus mercy. He argues that if situations fit into these paradigms, they are, indeed, right versus right issues. These paradigms offer students a way to categorize situations and help them to begin to identify when situations involve true ethical situations and when, as he puts it, moral temptations are "masquerading in the lamb's clothing of a seeming ethical dilemma."

An excellent companion textbook is Covey's, The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People. This text introduces seven precepts that, when applied to daily living, help individuals to remain in a values-centered, win-win orientation. Each of the seven habits is introduced from a theoretical perspective followed by practical exercises for application. The principles promote planning, respect, fairness, self-awareness, and life-long learning. An effective strategy for integrating this text into the class is to relate journal activities to the exercises associated with each chapter. One such exercise requires the readers to write a mission statement for their life. Another exercise requires the readers to write their own eulogy. All the activities promote introspection, value clarification, and principle-centered character development. Another strategy for this text is to divide the students into teams and assign each team a chapter from the text. The groups collaborate to synthesize the chapter and engage the other students in the chapter-specific exercises.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS: TEACHING IN MIXED GROUPS

In the last decade, we have seen a dramatic increase in the need for qualified relay interpreters in a variety of settings. Because of this increase in need, we are also seeing more deaf students apply for admission to interpreter training programs historically designed for hearing students. Each student, whether he or she is deaf or hearing, will bring differing cultural perspectives and values into the learning environment. An Ethical Standards and Practice course provides a perfect venue for safely exploring ethical issues and role boundaries, while, at the same time, continuing to learn, first hand, about each other's cultural orientation(s) and values. Much of Bennett's work on cultural marginality mentioned earlier in this paper focuses on informing educators about how this learning occurs and on the stages learners experience in their development toward obtaining reflective judgment, boundary setting, critical thinking strategies, individual responsibility, etc. (Bennett, 1994).

Here are some special considerations for educators to review when thinking about issues related to teaching this subject to mixed groups of hearing and deaf students versus separating students into homogenous groups.

When teachmg an ethics course to a heterogeneous group of deaf and hearing students, an initial question to answer is in what language should I teach, American Sign Language or spoken English? Linguistic issues are pervasive in a course such as this. Discussing philosophical, and at times emotionally charged, issues in a students' L2 is always challenging. It is advantageous to teach the course solely in ASL, which provides complete inclusion of the deaf students into the course and reinforces ASL slulls for the hearing students. This is best achieved if the course is taught at or near the end of the program. Utilizing interpreters in the class, whether they interpret for the hearing students or deaf students, is an option; however, class discussions can be stifled even when using the best interpreters. Using interpreters may also mean discussion among students in small or large groups may be more impersonal.

One of the best ways to generate discussion and explore issues in an ethics course is through reading and writing papers. In a mixed student group, creative changes would need to be made to the curriculum so those deaf students would not be disadvantaged in the class. For example, one option is to allow deaf students to choose to submit papers and the final exam in written English or in ASL via videotapes. Due to the amount of reading in the course, teachers may deem some articles more cumbersome than beneficial in a mixed group. Course adjustments may need to be made to provide a level playing field for all.

When asking students to work in small groups, there may be times when it is best for groups to be homogenous and other times when heterogeneity is necessary. For example, groups with all hearing or all deaf students sometimes allow for a level of comfort and camaraderie when discussing community values or personal perspectives. Groups share their discussions with the larger class, providing the other students with their unique perspectives. Likewise, heterogeneous groups work well together in class exercises such as when students debate issues. Students can learn from each other the techniques used in the art of argument.

While the opportunities to teach this, or any, subject to a mixed group of hearing and deaf students has not been the norm; it is certainly on the rise. We advocate for teaching this course in a mixed setting at every opportunity. Bennett's research

regarding the development of intercultural sensitivity supports this approach (1994.) This course, like few others, provides an arena for deaf and hearing students to learn about each other. Discussions are much livelier in a mixed setting. Deaf students, often for the first time, realize the difficulty and conflicts which arise in separating their values and ethical responsibilities as a deaf person versus as a professional interpreter. Hearing students begin to confront hurdles within them which, if not addressed, may foster—as future practitioners—oppression and paternalistic attitudes. Finally, deaf and hearing students can begin to model the types of teamwork relationships they will need to call upon when they find themselves in the real world.

SUMMARY

In this paper we have provided the rationale and theoretical framework for specific coursework in Ethical Standards and Practice as part of interpreter education programs. We have offered recommendations regarding the goals, objectives, format, and structure of such coursework, as well as suggestions for instructional strateges. Additionally, the important characteristics of course textbooks have been discussed, and the special considerations and opportunities that arise from having both deaf and hearing students in the course have been addressed.

Interpreting students need well-formed and informed attitudes to make mature, reliable professional decisions. Such attitudes require time and opportunity to develop. **A** course in Ethical Standards and Practice provides fertile ground for beginning the process of guiding students through the positions of intellectual and ethical development addressed by Perry, and fostering a commitment to lifelong principled-centered living.

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