Proceedings of the 15th National Convention

Conference of Interpreter Trainers

CIT:
STILL SHINING AFTER 25 YEARS

Elisa M. Maroney, Editor

September 29-October 3, 2004

Washington, D.C.

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Elisa M. Maroney, Editor

Conference of Interpreter Trainers

Mission Statement

Preamble

The CIT recognizes the minority status of D/deaf people and the long history of linguistic and cultural oppression that have endured. We therefore publicly proclaim our respect and support for D/deaf people's right to self-determination and true communication access.

The mission of the CIT is to promote quality education for interpreters working with American Sign Language and English (including English influenced forms of signing).

As a professional association of interpreter educators, the CIT

- Provides opportunities for the professional development of interpreter educators;
- Serves as a vehicle for sharing information among interpreter educators;
- Promotes high standards in institutions, faculties, programs and curricula for the education of interpreters;
- Advocates for research relevant to the practice and instruction of interpretation; and
- Encourages collegial relationships with professionals in other related disciplines and organizations.

The CIT welcomes participation by other educators of foreign signed languages, foreign spoken languages and other professionals who feel an affinity for our goals and an interest in our activities.

California, 1990

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The Implementation and Administration of American Sign Language Programs for Foreign Language Credit in Public Secondary Schools

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Abstract

There is a growing trend toward acceptance of American Sign Language (ASL) for foreign language credit at the secondary (high school) level. A problem exists in that there is little research contributing to a body of knowledge to provide background information on the implementation and administration of these high school ASL programs. What are the qualifications of the teachers and those who supervise them? What are the biggest concerns regarding these programs, as perceived by teachers and administrators? What curricula are used and who chooses them? What level of skills and knowledge do students who take two or three years of ASL in high school bring to a post-secondary interpreter training program? These questions and more were answered in Pfeiffer's (2002) mixed-method dissertation study.

Educational administrators nationwide make decisions daily regarding curricula and personnel in anticipation of optimizing each elementary, middle school, and high school student's education. One decision that administrators face, particularly those responsible for foreign language programs, is selecting appropriate foreign language offerings. This decision became more complex in the last two decades when at least 15 states passed legislation that recognized American Sign Language (ASL) as a full and legitimate language and allowed state boards to approve the provision of instruction in ASL for foreign language credit (American Sign Language Teachers Association, 2003). A 1997 survey conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics indicated that of those schools responding, there was a 100% increase since 1987 in the number of elementary and secondary schools in the U.S. teaching sign language (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1997).

Many students are attracted to learning ASL (Reagan, 2000). Adults in the Deaf community, special education personnel, and parents of deaf children in school divisions may promote its acceptance. Most administrators, however, have limited knowledge regarding the language and often are unprepared to implement and supervise such programs (Belka, 2000; Wallinger, 2000). They have numerous questions about ASL. Is ASL a true language, or simply gestures and movements that convey English? If it is “American”, how can it be offered as a *foreign* language? Foreign language studies at the secondary level require students to acquire knowledge and understanding of cultures using that language (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996). Is there a culture associated with ASL? How would advisors begin to implement an ASL studies curriculum? Are specific ASL teacher qualifications necessary? What is involved in the administration of an ASL program? How is the success of an ASL program measured at the secondary level?

Offering ASL at the post-secondary level received considerable attention during the 1980s. Between 1995 and 1998, the number of ASL courses in institutions of higher education grew 165% (Prime Numbers, 1999). Many studies were published regarding the status of ASL at the post-secondary level (Cokely, 1986; Cooper, 1997; Corwin &Wilcox, 1985; Delgado, 1984; Jacobowitz, 2001; Shroyer & Holmes, 1980; Sinett, 1995). Interest in the acceptance of ASL at both the secondary and post-secondary levels was demonstrated by the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL) as evidenced by publication of a special journal issue in the fall of 2000, dedicated entirely to ASL. The perception of authors published in the NECTFL journal was that educational administrators continue to lack the knowledge needed to make informed decisions regarding the implementation and administration of an ASL curriculum.

Teaching of ASL

Until William C. Stokoe, Jr. and other linguists recognized ASL as a true language in the 1960s and 1970s, sign language was taught informally in churches and community centers, and for credit in training programs for teachers of the deaf and interpreters. In the 1980s some colleges and universities offered ASL for elective and foreign language credit (Wilcox & Wilcox, 1997). As of January, 2003, twenty eight states had passed legislation recognizing ASL as a foreign language, and over 100 colleges and universities, including Harvard, Georgetown, Brown, and The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, accepted ASL as a foreign language for academic or elective credit (Kreeft-Peyton, 1998). During the last two decades, legislation was passed in at least 15 states allowing state boards to offer ASL for foreign language credit in public secondary schools. Two other states allow one year of ASL for foreign language credit, and eight additional states allow ASL for elective credit in high schools. Similar legislation regarding the teaching of ASL in public schools has been proposed in several other states.

Legislation approving ASL for credit must be followed by approval from state boards. Following this approval, administrators in individual school divisions make the decision of which languages to offer. If an ASL program is implemented, the curricular framework must be aligned with the current vision for foreign language education in the United States as presented in the work of the National Standards of Foreign Language Education Project (1996).

National standards established five goal areas for the teaching of foreign languages: (a) communication, (b) cultures, (c) connections to other bodies of knowledge, (d) comparisons of the second language to the structure of English, and (e) opportunity to interact in multilingual communities (American Sign Language Task Force, 1998). Much debate arose over the perception of ASL as a true language (Armstrong, 1988; Baker & Cokely, 1980) and whether or not the study of ASL could satisfy the goals established for the study of foreign languages (Belka, 2000; Reagan, 2000; Wilcox, S., 1989; Wilcox & Wilbers, 1987). Special concerns were evidenced over the questions of whether or not ASL was foreign, if there was a culture related to deafness, and, because ASL is typically not written, whether or not there was a body of literature that can be studied (Frishberg, 1988; Rutherford, 1988; Wilcox, S., 1989; Reagan, 2000). Because opportunities to study the linguistic structure of ASL were not available to the general population until recently, there remains a general lack of knowledge among most public school administrators regarding ASL as a language, and the implementation and administration of ASL programs (Reagan, 2000; Wallinger, 2000).

Need for This Study

There are many ways to approach a study regarding ASL instruction. Some researchers focused on curriculum and instruction (Baker & Cokely, 1980; Cogen & Mosely, 1984; Delgado, 1884; Kemp, 1988; Leviton, 1982; McIntire, 1981; Smith, Lentz & Mikos, 1988; Wilcox & Wilcox, 1997). Others debated the merits of studying ASL as a foreign language (Armstrong, 1988; Battison & Carter, 1982; Shroyer & Holmes, 1980; Wilbers, 1987: Wilcox, S, 1989; Wilcox & Wilbers, 1987). Akamatsu and Stewart (1987), Bienvenue (1983), Kanda and Fleischer (1988), Jacobowitz (2001) and Newell (1995) examined teacher qualifications and training programs available for teachers of ASL. Studies were conducted on the perceptions of ASL students, and the differences between learning ASL and other foreign languages (Conrad, 1991; Humphries & Padden, 1992; Peterson, 1999; Shroyer & Holmes, 1982). Cooper (1997) published a comprehensive account of the academic status of administering ASL programs in institutions of higher education. The majority of these studies have examined ASL programs at the postsecondary level, possibly because ASL has been offered longer at that level than at the secondary level.

Many states are approving ASL for foreign language credit in their secondary schools; however, there is a lack of research focusing on what is being done at the secondary level regarding curriculum, teacher training and qualifications, administrator qualifications, and instruction and evaluation of students and teachers. In personal communications, researchers (S. Cooper, 2001; L. Wallinger, 2001; L. Jakobowitz, 2000; J. Kreeft-Peyton, 2001) and state directors of foreign language education (D. Harki, October, 2001; F. Hoch, October 25, 2001; F. Rollings-Carter, 2001, S.Wang, October

25, 2001) noted the need for research focusing on ASL programs at the secondary level. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to examine practices used to implement and administer secondary ASL programs for foreign language credit to fill this identified gap in the growing body of knowledge regarding the study of ASL.

Research Questions

What are current practices in the implementation and administration of ASL programs at the secondary level? This question was operationalized through the following subquestions:

1. Why are ASL programs implemented in public secondary schools?
2. How are ASL programs implemented in public secondary schools?
3. What are the pertinent issues regarding the general administration of the ASL programs as identified by administrators and personnel directly involved in the programs?
4. What are the qualifications of ASL teachers?
5. What are the characteristics of ASL curricula used at the secondary level in Virginia?

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a mixed method, descriptive approach to describe current practices utilized to implement and administer ASL programs for foreign language credit in public secondary schools. The sample selected consisted of the 14 school divisions in the Commonwealth of Virginia that offered ASL for foreign language credit during the 2001–2002 school year.

In its initial phase, telephone surveys were used to collect basic, descriptive information from 13 of the 14 school divisions in Virginia that offered ASL for foreign language credit during the 2001-2002 school year. A survey developed by Cooper (1997) to survey administrators of ASL programs at the higher education level was used with permission, with adaptations for use with secondary administrators.

Data gathered from the survey guided the second phase of the investigation, the qualitative segment. Following the survey, programs were chosen for site visits based on administrators' expressed interest in further participation in the study, size of the program, and program diversity. Visits included in-depth, semi-structured interviews with key participants in the ASL program including the lead ASL teacher, one other foreign language teacher, a guidance counselor, and the principal or assistant principal. Interviews allowed the researcher to gather information on each aspect of the program from that person directly responsible for that part of the ASL program. Interviews also supplied different perceptions of programs and processes, depending on the role of the person providing the information. As with all qualitative studies, the unfolding of information and themes from interviews guided the gathering of additional data. Content analyses of relevant documents were also conducted.

Results and Conclusions

Research Question #1: Why are ASL Programs Implemented in Public Secondary Schools?

Reagan (2000), in discussing the decision-making process that an administrator experienced when deciding whether to implement an ASL curriculum, noted "the ignorance involved in the question" (p. 17) regarding the nature of signed languages in general and especially of ASL, and the confusion about purposes of studying sign language as a foreign language. Wallinger (2000) noted that she had received communications from other state foreign language supervisors indicating their concern regarding the status of ASL as a foreign language and its impact on the enrollment in other traditional foreign languages. The results of this study indicated that the concerns expressed above also existed in the Commonwealth of Virginia. The group perceived as more difficult to gain approval from were the foreign language teachers. It should be noted that during on-site interviews guidance counselors, foreign language teachers, and building-level administrators reported that the ASL program did not cause a permanent decrease in enrollment in other foreign language programs. Reportedly, no foreign language teacher lost a job as a result of the implementation of the ASL programs. It is possible that school divisions that experienced a decline in enrollment in other languages discontinued the ASL program and were not a part of this study.

Respondents to the survey were those administrators in divisions already offering ASL. Perhaps the divisions that met greater resistance from individuals and groups never implemented ASL programs or discontinued programs and so were not a part of this study. Administrators at the division-level provided more optimistic responses regarding the ease of getting approval than did some ASL teachers involved on a daily basis when the ASL program began. It is speculated that division supervisors of ASL programs took time to educate those in authority positions, and had few problems gaining their approval to implement the program, but that the task of program development at the building level was met with some attitudinal opposition due to lack of knowledge at that level regarding the nature of signed language.

It was apparent that school divisions implemented ASL programs for many reasons. As any other foreign language, ASL was taught to assist students in acquiring an objective view of their own language and realize the interdependence of language and culture (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996). In some cases, it was added to the language courses because of student demand. Programs were also initiated to assist in the inclusion of students who were deaf or hard of hearing in the mainstreamed classroom, and to develop skills in students that would be valuable as they entered the workforce. Parents of students who were not succeeding in other foreign languages provided an impetus to implement ASL programs so that their children would have a chance to earn foreign language credits needed for certain diplomas. Responses of principals, special educators, and even teachers of the more traditional foreign languages repeatedly avowed this notion that ASL classes might be a more appropriate placement for students who were lower functioning or having problems succeeding in other languages. Their attitudes may have reflected common misperceptions held by postsecondary administrators (Corwin & Wilcox, 1985; Sinett, 1995) that ASL was a derivative of English, or that it was a “shortcut language” (Baker & Cokely, 1980, p. ix). Teachers of ASL in 2 of the 13 school divisions reported having a disproportionate number of students with special needs in their classes, possibly as a result of this perception.

Research Question # 2: How were ASL Programs Implemented in Public Secondary Schools?

The lack of qualified ASL teachers appeared as one of the largest problems facing administrators in implementation of ASL programs. This problem was anticipated, based on the literature. Loux (1996) and his task force recognized the problem when they studied the feasibility of establishing coursework in ASL for language credit in Nevada. They recommended that the task force assist in developing and implementing policies and procedures for teaching ASL and for offering instruction in ASL in the state's system of higher education, and that the state recruit qualified ASL teachers from out-of-state, including deaf instructors. Wallinger and Scebold (2000) recognized the shortage of foreign language teachers in general and the paucity of ASL teacher-training programs compounding the problem for ASL programs.

A division sometimes utilized an interpreter or teacher of the deaf to teach ASL because they did not have a full-time position that year due to a low number of deaf students. When more deaf students enrolled in the division, the ASL program was discontinued because the teacher was needed back in the special education department. Difficulty in hiring another qualified ASL teacher led to discontinuation of the ASL program. The program was not implemented with longevity in mind. Implementation without proper preparations caused at least one ASL teacher to quit in frustration.

Research Question #3: What Were the Pertinent Issues Regarding the General Administration of ASL Programs?

The National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages listed five areas of administrative duties, including staff recruitment and development, curriculum design and implementation, location of instructional materials and resources, division-wide activities, and dissemination of information and advocacy (NADSFL, 2002). Cooper (1997) identified the areas of greatest concern to postsecondary administrators of ASL programs as lack of support, funding for program expansion, and lack of qualified instructors.

Individuals administering secondary ASL programs at the division level were highly educated individuals, but did not have backgrounds in ASL. The majority held multiple responsibilities in their divisions for large numbers of students, with the ASL program as a small part of their tasking after initial implementation responsibilities were completed. They shared some common concerns with those expressed by postsecondary ASL administrators (Cooper, 1997). The biggest issues facing them were recruiting, hiring, and retaining qualified ASL teachers. The results of this study indicated that increased funding was needed the first year after implementing an ASL program to purchase audiovisual equipment, instructional materials, and assistive devices for deaf teachers, but was not considered a problem in subsequent years by most administrators at the secondary level, except to expand the programs. Providing support to ASL teachers and opportunities for professional development were high priorities, and were a cause for concern among administrators because of self-professed unfamiliarity with ASL as a language and lack of resources. Deaf teachers posed special challenges because of communication differences and cultural diversity from hearing personnel.

Belka (2000) expressed concern over whether students of ASL learn about another culture, saying, "They live in the U.S; they are subject to the same laws and customs; they share the same history, philosophies and religions; they see the same movies and TV programs " (p. 50). Ironically, a majority of administrators of ASL programs at the secondary level identified "knowledge of Deaf culture" as a critical skill for individuals in their role. Perhaps they shared Belka's concern, and thought it imperative to learn about Deaf culture to be able to educate others about the culture associated with deafness.

Research Question #4: What Qualifications Were Held by ASL Teachers?

The results of this study supported assertions by Baker and Cokely (1980) and Smith (1980) that most ASL teachers were not specifically trained as language teachers. This study concluded that most secondary level ASL teachers were also not trained specifically to teach ASL. Most developed their ASL skills because they had prepared to teach deaf children (32%), were deaf or hard of hearing (24%), or had some skills in interpreting (27%).

Results of Newell's (1995) survey indicated that knowledge of and ability to explain the linguistic structure of ASL, proficiency in ASL, and knowledge of Deaf culture and history were the most important job-related areas as perceived by ASL teachers. The results of this study showed that administrators agreed with Newell's respondents. Although an overwhelming majority (92%) of administrators stated that the most important skill for an ASL teacher to possess was proficiency in ASL, the applicants' proficiency was not always assessed. Most administrators assessed teacher-applicant proficiency in ASL by referring to their certification through VQAS, RID, or

ASLTA, but at most, 45% held such certifications. Slightly more than half of the responding administrators depended on observations of the candidates' signing during the interview to determine their proficiency in ASL. The question arose as to whether the interviewees were using simultaneous communication; that is, voicing their answer for the hearing, non-signing administrator while signing. If this were the case they were not using ASL. A second factor determining the efficacy of that method would be the ASL proficiency of the person observing the candidate.

Olsen (1988) stated that members of the Deaf community were concerned that the sudden popularity of ASL classes could lead to the hiring of unqualified teachers who might not even be teaching true ASL. This study did not support the conclusion that unqualified teachers have been hired, but did indicate that methods utilized to assess the qualifications of ASL teachers in the Commonwealth's high schools were not consistent.

With only one ASL teacher in the sample trained specifically to teach ASL, one would hope for a plethora of in-service training opportunities to increase competencies of other teachers of ASL. Many ASL teachers complained of the paucity of chances for professional development specific to teaching ASL available to teachers, and even fewer that were specific to the needs of teachers of high school students. Most administrators expressed an unfulfilled desire to be able to assist in ASL training efforts, with 77% selecting "provision of in-service training for ASL instructors" in the top three greatest areas of need if extra funds were received. Support for ASL teachers and the occasion to receive mentoring from a more experienced teacher were rare. Teachers were often dependent on their own resourcefulness to find training and support. A great deal of ingenuity was noted during interviews with ASL teachers and analyses of curricula, lesson plans, and evaluation strategies. Many teachers presented as highly motivated to locate resources, increase their competencies, and to provide high quality programs.

Research Question # 5: What Were the Characteristics of ASL Curricula Used at the Secondary Level in Virginia?

The National Association of the Deaf reportedly has been concerned that an increasing number of ASL classes were being implemented "haphazardly" (Wilcox & Wilcox, 1997, p. 80) across the country. Recognizing that the development of standard curricula models for the high school and college levels were of high priority, leaders of the organization established a committee on ASL curriculum development. At the time of this study, no curriculum had been developed and there appeared to be no agency actively directing program planning, placement guidelines, and evaluation of ASL instruction. The *Framework for Instruction in American Sign Language* (American Sign Language Task Force, 1998) appeared to provide a useful guideline to many in developing a curriculum in the Commonwealth and for articulation during the secondary years.

The findings of this study document the desire by some for a model high school ASL curriculum as well as the development of instructional materials more appropriate for secondary students that would articulate with postsecondary level classes. Vista's *Signing Naturally* (Smith, Lentz, & Mikos, 1988) was used as the primary text in all but 1 of the 13 responding divisions, as reported by the division-level administrator. Eighty five percent of administrators reported that there was no stated policy regarding the use of spoken English in ASL classes in their divisions' programs. Despite this, a large majority of the responding administrators and ASL teachers indicated that voiced English was used on a limited or a very limited basis by the ASL teacher and students, with the rule enforced more in ASL II and ASL III classes. Sixty two percent of the administrators agreed that the optimal size for ASL classes was 15 students or less, 1 replied that 17 was ideal, and 31% responded that 20 students per class would be optimal. In reality, class size was usually larger.

Wallinger (2000) noted that one of the keys to widespread acceptance of ASL as an academic subject would be the maintenance of a rigorous curriculum, and that this responsibility would fall largely to the school divisions. At the time of this study, in many divisions the development of quality curricula that aligned with national standards for the teaching of foreign languages, the procurement of resources that ensured adequate instruction, and the use of effective evaluation of student progress was the responsibility of the ASL teacher or teachers. Only a few school divisions ensured the rigor of the curriculum by requiring approval from different levels of committees, and background and experience of ASL teachers varied greatly.

The placement of more students with special needs in ASL classes may have supported the age-old misconception that ASL is a system that represents English through pantomime or that it is a "shortcut language" (Baker & Cokely, 1980, p. ix). The fact that approximately 38% of the ASL teachers in Virginia were certified as teachers of students who are deaf or hard of hearing, a division of special education, may encourage professionals' and parents' beliefs that students with special needs may perform better in the ASL classes.

When California Assembly Bill 51 was passed allowing California high schools to offer foreign language credit for ASL courses, an Academic Advisory Committee recognized that although high school students satisfied graduation requirements by taking ASL classes, they would be unable to meet most universities' entrance requirements with that language (Selover, 1988). They started a campaign to convince universities that ASL should be accepted to meet entrance requirements. The results of this study support the assertion that unless institutes of higher education (IHEs) move uniformly to accept ASL credits as satisfying entrance requirements, students who are college-focused may be less likely to enroll in secondary ASL classes for three years, but may take ASL as an elective or for two years as part of the two plus two requirement for advanced studies diplomas. This may affect the status of ASL programs.

Methods of evaluating student progress in ASL, in most school divisions, were left to the discretion of the ASL teachers. Only one school division shared a division-wide assessment tool used at the end of each semester by all foreign language teachers including the ASL teachers to document student performance of specified tasks on tape. Individual student progress could then be reviewed over time. Utilizing a standardized method gave ASL equal status with other more traditional foreign languages, and provided a tenable means for documenting progress.

Limitations

This study was limited to the Commonwealth of Virginia and to 13 of the 14 divisions offering ASL programs for foreign language credit during the 2001-2002 school year. Findings should not be generalized to other locations.

Administrators in 11 of the 13 responding divisions invited further, onsite study in the schools; however, in-depth qualitative data were based on visits to 6 of those school divisions, selected for maximum variation in hopes of representing diversity. Although it was believed that saturation of information was reached, it is possible that data retrieved from the divisions not visited may have provided different results. It is also possible that those individuals interviewed onsite were not representative of the total population.

Recommendations for Action

Results of this study support the following recommendations for action.

- The first person who should become educated and convinced of the value of ASL as a foreign language is the division-level supervisor of foreign languages, as they will become the program's greatest emissary.
- Division-level administrators should plan on spending considerable time during the implementation phase and less time later on the ASL program.
- School division administrators who are preparing to implement an ASL program should first educate all stakeholders regarding ASL as a language, the reasons that ASL is being offered, and acceptance of ASL for foreign language credit by the Virginia Board of Education and by some IHEs. Foreign language teachers, in particular, should have access to articles and workshops describing the linguistic structure of ASL, Deaf culture, literature, and how the ASL course can be aligned with national standards for teaching foreign languages.
- In hiring an ASL teacher, state certification requirements should be reviewed by a knowledgeable individual. It should not be assumed that because a candidate is deaf or is certified to teach deaf children, that he or she is proficient or knowledgeable about ASL.
- Candidates should be chosen with a view to the longevity of the program. It is preferable not to utilize personnel from within the division's special education or interpreter pool when the number of students that they usually serve has decreased. This may cause discontinuation of the ASL program when the population normally served increases again.
- If a deaf person is hired to teach ASL, the school should be willing to provide the accommodations necessary to make the setting accessible for all.
- The individual hired as the first ASL teacher in a school has a large role in determining acceptance of the program. That person's ability to educate others, to become part of the foreign language team, and to earn the respect of others will be critical.

- A curriculum should be developed or adopted and sufficient resources should be purchased before ASL classes begin.
- If possible, a limit should be imposed on the number of ASL students in each class.
- Support is essential for the ASL teacher. Administrators of ASL programs should attempt to become linked with organizations that provide or disseminate information on training opportunities for ASL teachers. Divisions may network with other school divisions to provide training and mentoring opportunities. Some workshops provided for interpreters may be appropriate for ASL teachers, and connections should be made with administrators of nearby interpreter training programs to join in providing trainings. Funding should be made available for ASL teachers to attend training offered outside of the division.
- Teachers should be encouraged to earn ASLTA certification.
- Local divisions of ASLTA should include the supervisors of secondary foreign language programs in their area on their mailing list, so that they are informed about training events. A special networking session and training for secondary teachers of ASL should be included in the annual ASLTA conference.
- Division- and state-level administrators should encourage the development of ASL teacher training programs to address the shortage of ASL teachers.
- Those desiring to elevate the status of secondary level ASL programs should promote IHEs to accept ASL credits for foreign language entrance requirements.
- Standardization of assessments across foreign languages should be considered, with ASL students included. Some adjustments may be necessary to make the tool appropriate for evaluating student progress in ASL.
- Those designing instructional material for ASL classes should develop resources specifically for high school students. Activities and conversations should be appropriate for teenagers. These resources should achieve vertical articulation with college level courses and horizontal articulation, connecting ASL with additional and appropriate bodies of knowledge at the secondary level.

Summary

In conducting telephone interviews during the initial phase of this study, it was uncertain whether any administrators would invite further scrutiny of their ASL programs through onsite, in-depth interviews with not only the ASL teachers, but also principals and assistant principals, guidance counselors, and other foreign language teachers. The enthusiasm that they showed for the ASL programs and their welcoming invitations to visit and observe was the first indication that the study of ASL in the Commonwealth of Virginia's public secondary schools has been successful in many divisions. It appeared that the biggest problem facing administrators was hiring and retaining qualified teachers for the program. Once education of stakeholders regarding ASL as a language was completed and if a qualified teacher was found, the administrator's responsibilities were largely relegated to the building-level administrator, as with any other program. The majority of principals interviewed were delighted with the ASL programs in their schools, and saw ASL as a learning opportunity that they could offer to a great variety of students. The desire for a model secondary curriculum was identified by some, as was instructional materials more appropriate for secondary students. Although many ASL teachers had not earned their ASLTA certification, most were working toward the provisional level.

A list of recommendations for action followed the results of this study, which included the need for more ASL teacher training programs, in-service training opportunities, and support specific to secondary ASL teachers. With guidance from optimistic administrators, ASL is well on its way to achieving equal status to the more traditional foreign languages in many of Virginia's public school divisions

About the Author

Dr. Debbie Annony Pfeiffer earned her bachelor's degree from Syracuse University, her master's degree in Deaf Education from Gallaudet University, and her doctorate degree in Educational Administration and Policy Studies from the George Washington University. As the wife of an Air Force officer, she has had the opportunity to work in many positions in the field of deafness as they moved around the country including: teaching deaf students of every age in state residential and public schools; doing freelance and educational interpreting; acting as associate director of a multi-service center for deaf adults; performing language assessments for all deaf students in Boston Public Schools; and developing programs for families of deaf infants in Mississippi and Virginia. She currently is the Specialist for Deaf and Hard of Hearing Students for the Virginia Department of Education and supervises the professional development grant for Virginia's educational interpreters.

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A National Perspective on Entry-to-Practice Competencies for ASL-English Interpreters

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Abstract

A project to identify essential competencies required for individuals entering the field of ASL/English interpretation as generalist practitioners began in January of 2004. The Distance Opportunities for Interpreter Training Center (DO IT Center) brought together a group of seven interpreter educators from across the United States and one from Canada. Representing pre-service and in-service education, they collaborated to draft a document defining the essential domains and competencies for practitioners entering the profession. The competencies identified are categorized into five domains: Theory and Knowledge, Human Relations, Language Skills, Interpreting Skills, and Professionalism. Several rounds of review with various stakeholders were conducted and the feedback integrated into the content of this document. This paper will introduce the process through which the competencies were defined, and the five domains with the associated competencies. The purpose is to engage in

review and discussion regarding possible applications related to 1) delineation of graduate outcomes for Interpreter Preparation Programs (IPPs) and, 2) application of competencies to IPP curricula.

Introduction

Conceptualizing entry-to-practice competence has been the focus of a wide range of professions during the past two decades towards the goal of planning and advancing professional education (Gonczi, Hager, & Oliver, 1990). The importance of any such endeavor is that it captures and articulates desired and currently recognized standards of a particular discipline by describing them fully, stating them in a manner that allows flexibility for mastery beyond minimum, provides guidance or the basis for guidance on how to assess, and that competencies are representative of the real work of professional practitioners. One significant benefit of such an endeavor is that it can provide guidance to educational programs in planning and articulating graduate outcomes.

All interpreter preparation programs have outcomes, whether by design or default. The question is whether the outcomes achieved by the graduates represent the intentions of the program/faculty, the vision of competence held by the fields of interpreting and interpreter education, and the communities that these fields serve. A survey of IPPs conducted by the DO IT Center during 2003-2004 indicates significant variance between program exit competencies. A common standard, a targeted outcome, is not evident across IPPs. This is true among associate degree programs, as well as between associate and baccalaureate programs. It is interesting to note that of the 102 programs surveyed, only 41 reported having a documented set of exit competencies. Further, the variation in stated outcomes between these 41 programs indicate that as a field, interpreter education is operating without a common standard of what the entry-to-practice practitioner should be able to do. In the absence of such a standard, the field does not have a common starting place for defining the scope and sequence of curricula.

Further, based on the results of an Authority Opinion Group (AOG) comprised of interpreters, interpreter educators and deaf consumers, the marketplace experiences significant gaps between expected and actual performance competence. The Expert Work Group that participated in the competencies project defined in this paper verified this gap. This gap is evidenced in a number of ways—the most apparent being the lack of readiness for meeting Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) certification standards, the minimum standard of professional competence articulated by the profession itself. This gap was further reinforced through a series of focus group outcomes where various stakeholder groups—including IPP students, recent IPP graduates, employers, consumers, practitioners and leaders in the fields of interpreting and interpreter education—expressed common concerns about the lack of readiness of entering practitioners to successfully meet the demands of the marketplace. There have been dramatic changes in marketplace demands, leading to a current state of market disorder (Dean & Pollard, 2001; Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2004).

How do we move beyond this current dilemma to advance the state of interpreter education? Certainly it will take a multi-faceted approach. This paper will discuss one contributing effort. As part of a Rehabilitation Services Administration Grant of National Significance (#H160B000003), the DO IT Center sought to identify a set of essential competencies for entry-to-practice interpreters and to build consensus regarding these competencies towards the ultimate goal of translating these competencies into a model baccalaureate curriculum. This project was undertaken based on two of the grant's goals: 1) to ascertain the current state of the field of interpreting, and 2) to define a model interpreter education program.

Theoretical Foundation

The competence of professionals derives from their possessing a set of relevant attributes such as knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes. These attributes that jointly underlie competence are often referred to as competencies (Masters & McCurry, 1990). A competency, according to Hager, Gonczi, & Oliver (1991), is a combination of attributes underlying identified aspects of successful professional performance. When this combination of attributes has been identified for a range of areas or domains of practice within a profession, the result is a set of competency-based standards for the profession.

Identifying a set of professional, competency-based standards provides the field with a set of explicit statements of what people need to be able to do to successfully practice. Having a clear set of standards helps to remove misunderstandings both inside and outside of the profession. Competency-based standards offer a sound basis for judgments about entry into and progression within the profession (Toohey, Ryan, Mclean, & Hughes, 1995; Benner, 1984).

Competency-based standards offer a number of advantages to professions while at the same time furthering important national objectives—particularly maintenance of professional standards, labor market efficiency and equity (Toohey, Ryan, Mclean, & Hughes, 1995; Masters & McCurry, 1990). For example, by focusing on competence, competency-based standards provide a common frame of reference that can be used and applied by a wide range of stakeholders. Another benefit is that the identification of competencies promotes discussion of professional practice among colleagues. Drawing attention to the complexity and richness of professional knowledge has the potential to encourage excellence and boost morale among practitioners (Hager, Gonczi, & Oliver, 1991).

According to Gonczi, Hager, & Oliver (1990), there are three broad approaches to conceptualizing the competency analysis of professions. These are: 1) Analyzing professional work in terms of roles (or, alternatively, domains), and thereafter tasks and subtasks. This approach focuses on the performance aspect of competent professionals; 2) Analysis of the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by the individual professional. This approach focuses on the attributes aspect of a competent professional; 3) Analysis of professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in the context of the performance of realistic professional tasks. This third approach—also referred to by Masters & McCurry (1990) as the integrated approach —integrates both attributes and performance into a single framework. The goal of this approach is to identify those areas of professional practice in which it is essential to demonstrate minimum competence. These areas can then be analyzed in terms of knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes displayed in the context of realistic professional tasks (Toohey, Ryan, Mclean, & Hughes, 1995).

According to Leung (2002), a fourth approach has emerged in more recent years—a holistic approach that takes into account the cultural and social context in determining and valuing competence and focuses on how personal attributes are used to achieve outcomes in real life scenarios. This approach focuses on defining competencies of a higher order—meta-competency—and has been used to describe the general ability to learn and apply competencies effectively in many different aspects of a person's activities (Fleming, 1993). Elements of both the integrated and holistic approaches were utilized in the DO IT Center Entry-to-Practice Competencies Project. The project sought to define:

> A common standard for an entry-to-practice interpreter that possesses a variety of technical, academic, emotional and creative competencies, as well as personal and professional attributes, ensuring they can effectively work as an entry-to-practice generalist in low-risk, routine situations (Witter-Merithew, 2004, p. 11).

The integrated and holistic approaches of defining entry-to-practice competencies have been applied in the field of medicine (Burg, Lloyd, & Templeton, 1992), nursing (Fabb & Marshall, 1994), law (Ayling & Constanzo, 1994), teaching (Ally & Coldeway, 1999; Pechman & Laguarda, 1993; Porter, 1993; Cohen & Spillane, 1993), and the broader field of human resources (Freeman, 2001; Chong, Ho, Tan, & Ng, 2000), among other professions. Given that a competency standard approach has application to a wide range of professions, and that the majority of the efforts cited herein began the process of defining competencies in an effort to advance education programs, it is an approach that is attractive to the field of interpreter education.

It is also important to consider the criticism that is often expressed related to competency-based initiatives. For example, the roots of competency-based initiatives are in a behaviorist model and if applied inappropriately, such initiatives can result in a reduction in the educational content. Leung (2002) states:

> It is difficult to identify a range of competencies that truly cover work roles in their broadest sense and to represent adequately the types of knowledge relevant to the competency identified. The assessment of competencies is by no means value free, and people who use it shape its meaning. The competency approach is based primarily on the behaviorist framework, which attempts to break down work roles into small discrete tasks. It ignores the connections between individual tasks and the meaning underlying each task. It therefore cannot represent the complex nature of situations in the real world. The danger is that these narrowly defined competencies will dominate the curriculum, which would not be suitable for learning in higher education (p. 694).

We should be cautious of applying the competency-based approach too broadly unless robustly defined higher order competencies are available. Leung discusses that because a behaviorist approach to learning would be inappropriate for professions requiring complex skills, a range of broader competency approaches flourished—such as the integrated and holistic approaches previously described. These approaches attempt to make the competency-based model less reductionist in nature and have made successful advances in the competency-based standards movement.

In an effort to avoid some of the concerns expressed by Leung, the DO IT Center project sought to adapt elements of the more contemporary integrated and holistic approaches. Including elements of the integrated and holistic approach results in a balance between specific and higher level competence. The end product is well suited to designing courses in which higher-level competencies are emphasized (Fleming, 1993). We anticipate that it will also assist in better understanding the gap between IPP graduation and readiness for national certification, as well as be helpful in articulating the differences between levels of competence (e.g., para versus professional competence). It is an approach that allowed the DO IT Center Expert Work Group to simultaneously focus on both essential tasks and essential competencies, and to create a set of entry-to-practice competencies that could be adaptable to both entry-to-practice assessment and outstanding performance assessment.

The DO IT Center's methodology drew on the work of Benner (1984, 1996) who conceptualized nursing in terms of seven domains in which expert clinical performance is required. She focused on the most challenging and essential aspects of nurses' professional work to avoid the problem of a lengthy list of tasks. Benner's methodologies included surveys, interviews on critical incidents and participant observation. Her methodologies are detailed in Gonczi, Hager, & Oliver (1990). Since several thorough task analyses have previously occurred in the field of Sign Language interpreting (CIT, 1984; Grant MacEwan Community College, 1994; AVLIC, 1996; NAD-RID National Interpreter Council, 2004), and a general framework of competence is offered by the CIT Interpreter Education Standards (1995), the Expert Work Group had a foundation to draw from for the purpose of explicitly capturing and defining a set of essential interpreting competencies for entry-to-practice. Ultimately, it was the aim of the Expert Work Group that the competencies defined be validated by successful completion of an academic course of study culminating in a baccalaureate degree and the passing of a national written and skills examination—such as currently implemented by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

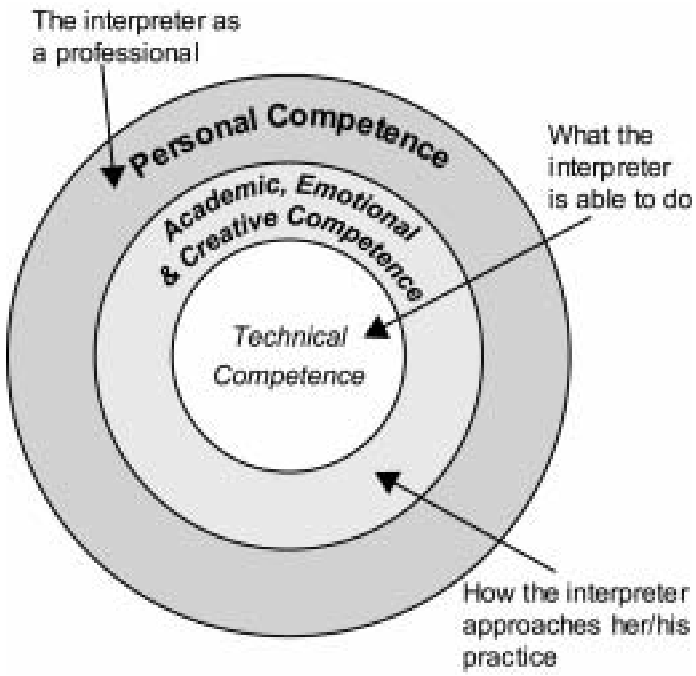

Illustration 1. Three-Cycle Model of Competence

In approaching definition of entry-to-practice competencies, a three-cycle model of competence was explored. This model is represented in Illustration 1.

Since the current system of interpreting practice relies heavily on the ability of interpreters to work autonomously (Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2004), it is important that entering practitioners possess a wide range of abilities and attributes that address technical competencies, academic, emotional and creative competencies, as well as personal competencies. The layer of technical competence refers to what an interpreter is able to do. This layer of competence involves an exploration of the requisite language competence and cognitive processing competence required to generate an accurate interpretation. The next layer of academic, emotional, and creative competence relates to how interpreters approach their practice. Exploring this layer of competence involves determining whether or not interpreter practitioners can perform well and make the right decisions as part of their ongoing work responsibilities. The final layer of competence relates to the interpreter as a working professional. This encompasses the personal competencies of the entering practitioner and fosters the exploration of whether the individual entering the field has the right attributes and personal characteristics to do the work of an interpreter.

These layers of competence were considered in approaching the task of capturing the set of entry-to-practice competencies of interpreters. As well, using the foundational work of Benner (1996), the following is the additional criteria adopted for the specification of the entry-to-practice competencies:

- Competencies reflect the vision of the field and community derived from the work of an Authority Opinion Group and reinforced during a series of focus groups through a process of appreciative inquiry;
- Competencies are clear and unambiguous statements that can easily be discussed by a broad range of stakeholders because they are based on agreed upon common core values;
- Competencies are specific and manageable in accordance with industry standards for competency-based initiatives (Toohey, Ryan, Mclean, & Hughes, 1995);
- Competencies are defined at the appropriate level of generality stated in measurable terms with appropriate general indicators of measurement;
- Competencies indicate the relationship between different competencies clustered around domains; and
- Competencies are stated in a manner that assists with the development of the instructional process, program outcomes, and enabling objectives, which will be the next step in the DO IT Center process.

The Development Process

The roots of this project began in January of 2003, when the DO IT Center brought together a group of experts in the field of interpreting and interpreter education for the purpose of exploring the current state-of-the-fields of interpreting and interpreter education. This group of eight (8) experts brought well over 350 cumulative years of practitioner experience, over 250 cumulative years of teacher experience, and represented 2-year, 4-year and 5-year programs housed in both private and public institutions. They also brought experience as researchers in the field of interpreting, and a long linage of program graduates that documented their practice as teachers. Together they formed an

Authority Opinion Group (AOG). The key findings of the AOG will be discussed in a future publication of the DO IT Center.

One of the outcomes of the AOG was a more thorough analysis of the current state-of-the-field of interpreting in accordance with Trait Theory analysis (Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2004). The work explores the degree to which the profession of Sign Language interpreting in the United States has achieved elements of professionalization as characterized by Trait Theory. The strength of each trait was considered in terms of how the current status of the trait contributes to what the authors perceive as a current state of market disorder (Phillips, 1997). Market disorder in the field of interpretation is defined in this work as a market that reflects significant instability related to minimum standards for entry into the field, and a lack of consistent and reliable professional control over the variables impacting the effective delivery of interpreting services (e.g., induction into the field, working conditions, job descriptions, role and responsibility, wages). The trait theory analysis of the interpreting field furthered our realization that a clearly articulated and agreed upon standard for entry-to-practice was lacking.

Simultaneously to the Trait Theory analysis, between January through November of 2003, the DO IT Center brought together a group of interpreter educators and administrators from seven (7) colleges and universities for the purpose of exploring the feasibility of a national alliance to form a collaborated online degree program—a model IPP. This group is referred to as the Model Building Team (MBT). Within this group, a sub-group formed to explore graduate outcomes from a model IPP. The work of this sub-group became the focus of further inquiry by an Expert Work Group that was assembled in January of 2004. Several members of the original AOG and MBT sub-group served as members of the Expert Work Group. The names of the Authority Opinion Group and Expert Work Group members, as well as other contributors to this process, are listed in the acknowledgement section of this paper.

In approaching their task, the Expert Work Group relied on a variety of existing resources, such as the 1995 CIT Interpreter Education Standards, several thorough task analyses, and one DACUM (Designing a Curriculum process) that have previously occurred in the field of Sign Language interpreting (CIT, 1984; Grant MacEwan Community College, 1994; AVLIC, 1996; NAD-RID National Interpreter Council, 2004). The Expert Work Group sought to incorporate the collective wisdom in these documents, as well as the most current research in the field of interpreter education that has occurred since the development of these documents. The goal was to utilize the theoretical framework related to defining competency-based standards for the purpose of capturing a set of explicit and clearly defined entry-to-practice competencies.

The Project Outcome

The following is the list of competencies defined by the Expert Work Group and reviewed by some stakeholders, as of April 2004. Since that time, a variety of additional stakeholder groups have provided further review and feedback on the competencies. This additional feedback will be integrated during a meeting of the Expert Work Group planned for August of 2004—after the CIT proceedings publication deadline. The most current version of this work will be available during the CIT Convention, September 29-October 2, 2004 and elaborated more fully in a monograph planned by the DO IT Center.

Essential Domains and Competencies for Practitioners Entering the ASL-English Interpreting Profession as of 4/10/04

1. Theory and Knowledge: *The cluster of competencies that reflects the academic foundation essential to effective interpretation.*	**2. Human Relations**: *The cluster of interpersonal competencies necessary to establish effective communication and productive collaboration with colleagues, consumers, and employers.*
1.1 Demonstrate world knowledge through a discussion of current and historical events in regional, national, and international contexts and by describing systems that support society (e.g., government, education, religious, social, and judicial).	2.1 Demonstrate respect and sensitivity for all consumers (D/deaf, hard-of-hearing and hearing, native or foreign born) through cooperation and the application of culturally and situationally appropriate norms (e.g., introductions, turn-taking, follow-up) in authentic situations.
1.2 Demonstrate knowledge of linguistics, cross-cultural, and interpretation theories (e.g., approaches to the process, approaches to analysis of the task) by discussing the implications of each for the work of interpreters.	2.2 Demonstrate a positive self-image by presenting a professional demeanor, acting with respect and courtesy to all, acting proactively, and taking responsibility for one's work.
1.3 Apply linguistic, cross-cultural, and interpretation theories by effectively using several theoretical frameworks to analyze samples of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting work and discussing the work in a non-evaluative manner that reflects recognition of the inherent limitations of the interpreting process.	2.3 Treat co-workers and colleagues with respect, fairness, and good faith, and advocate conditions of employment that safeguard the rights and welfare of consumers and interpreters.
1.4 Compare and contrast the linguistic characteristics associated with transliteration and interpretation as evidenced in a variety of work samples generated by the practitioner or her peers and discuss observations in a non-evaluative manner that reflects recognition of the inherent limitations of the interpreting process.	2.4 Demonstrate respect for ASL, English, and contact varieties of ASL by using appropriate cultural norms when interacting, by accepting feedback and corrections and asking for clarification when appropriate.
1.5 Identify and discuss personal and professional demands occurring during interpreting activities and utilize controls leading to effective outcomes.	2.5 Recognize and respect cultural differences among individuals and groups of diverse backgrounds by demonstrating appropriate behavioral and communicative behaviors both while conversing and interpreting in authentic situations.
1.6 Discuss effective professional and ethical decision-making in a variety of settings in a manner consistent with theoretical models and standard professional practice.	2.6 Collaborate with participants and team members in a manner that conforms to cultural norms and professional standards during all phases of assignments—pre-, during, and post—and implement changes where appropriate.
1.7 Compare and contrast majority and minority cultures in the American society through the lens of oppression, self-actualization, and the various elements of culture (e.g. social norms, values, identity markers, humor, art forms, language use).	2.7 Demonstrate an understanding of internal and external professional limitations during association with consumer groups (D/deaf, hard-of-hearing and hearing) at a variety of events by evidence the ability to maintain professionalism and professional boundaries.
1.8 Identify and discuss the major historical eras, events and figures in the D/deaf Community (e.g., audism, DPN, Clerc, Milan), that impact D/deaf and hard-of-hearing people, and the resulting implications for interpreting.	
1.9 Discuss and use technology and equipment unique to D/deaf and hard-of-hearing people and demonstrate awareness of technology advancements within the D/deaf Community.	

3. Language Skills: *The cluster of competencies relating to the use of American Sign Language and English in a manner that promotes respect and effective communication in both personal and professional settings.*	**4. Interpreting Skills:** *The cluster of technical competencies related to effective ASL-English interpretation of a range of subject matter in a variety of settings*
3.1 Demonstrate superior (native-like) L1 proficiency and flexibility by effectively communicating (e.g., follows cultural norms that recognize different language variations) in a wide range of personal and professional situations (e.g., routine, technical, emergency, interactional and monolog) with native and non-native speakers of varying ages and backgrounds (e.g., race, gender, education, socio-economic status, ethnicity).	4.1 Apply academic and world knowledge during consecutive interpretation of source language messages (e.g., interactional with some monolog interspersed, moderately technical and/or moderately technical, moderately-paced monolog in low-risk setting), using appropriate cultural adjustments while managing internal and external factors and processes (e.g., norms, rituals and protocol, turn-taking, power structure), in a manner that results in accurate and reliable interpretations in the target language (both ASL and English).
3.2 Demonstrate near-native like communicative competence and flexibility in L2 by effectively communicating (e.g., follows cultural norms that recognize different language variations) in a variety of routine personal and professional situations (e.g., primarily interactional with some monolog interspersed) with native and non-native speakers of varying ages and backgrounds.	4.2 Apply academic and world knowledge during simultaneous interpretation of source language messages (e.g., non-technical interactional with some monolog interspersed or non-technical, moderately-paced monolog in low-risk setting), using appropriate cultural adjustments while managing internal and external factors and processes in a manner that results in accurate and reliable interpretations in the target language (both ASL and English).
3.3 Demonstrate superior and effective public speaking skills in L1 through the spontaneous delivery of informal and a prepared formal presentation.	4.3 Demonstrate sufficient stamina and physical strength by consecutively interpreting a one-hour low-risk interactional assignment with some monolog interspersed or simultaneously interpret a thirty minute, low-risk non-technical, moderately-paced interactional or monolog assignment.
3.4 Demonstrate advanced and effective public speaking skills in L2 through the spontaneous delivery of informal or a prepared formal presentation.	4.4 Demonstrate the ability to effectively team interpret during consecutive and simultaneous low-risk interactional assignments.
3.5 Demonstrate the ability to read and write at a level that allows critical analysis of current research in the interpreting discipline and writing a paper of publishable quality.	4.5 Demonstrate flexibility to transliterate or interpret by observing the language use of D/deaf or hard-of-hearing consumers and/or make adjustments based on consumer feedback.
	4.6 Negotiate meaning in ASL and English while interpreting in a manner that conforms to recognized linguistic, cultural and professional norms of the speaker(s).
	4.7 Discuss and use technology and equipment specific to ASL-English interpreting (e.g., video remote interpreting, video relay services, microphones, audio/video conferencing, lighting, CART).

5. **Professionalism:** *The cluster of competencies associated with conforming and contributing to the standards and practices of the profession.*	
5.1 Demonstrate a commitment to life-long/career-long learning and critical self-assessment by creating an on-going professional action plan that addresses knowledge, skills and attitudes related to ASL and English communication skills and interpreting competence based on self-evaluation, feedback from supervisor, mentor, peers, clients and/or diagnostic evaluation.	5.6 Demonstrate commitment to the interpreting profession through becoming a member of and participating in professional organizations and activities (e.g., in-service training, mentorship programs, political activism) at the state, local, and/or national level.
5.2 Identify and discuss a range of probable factors (e.g., format, logistics, subject matter, goals of participants, language variations, power relationships) and decisions associated with interpreting in a variety of settings and plan with participants accordingly (e.g., read print materials, research subject matter, locate travel route), adapting expectations, assumptions and decision-making when things go differently.	5.7 Demonstrate commitment to the Deaf Community through supporting and contributing to d/Deaf related organizations and activities (e.g., volunteer service, Deaf Club events, sports, and recreation) at the local, state, regional and/or national level.
5.3 Demonstrate self-awareness and discretion by assessing readiness for specific assignments, declining those assignments she is not qualified to take, and articulating professional boundaries in a clear, concise, and professional manner.	5.8 Discuss community resources by identifying community agencies and organizations that serve or could serve D/deaf and hard-of-hearing persons living in the area (e.g., relay services, Schools for the D/deaf, D/deaf Commission or D/deaf Service Center, interpreting referral agencies, churches, community-based social service programs, remote interpreting services) and the associated contact information.
5.4 Demonstrate self-awareness and discretion by monitoring and managing personal and professional behaviors (e.g., personal filters, intrapersonal factors, reactions to a variety of situations and subject matter, requesting breaks, accepting assignments, working with a team interpreter, facilitating replacement in a responsible manner), and applying professional conflict resolution strategies when appropriate.	5.9 Discuss state and national interpreter certification and/or licensure and the implications of these systems on the employment of interpreters.
5.5 Demonstrate personal and professional integrity by avoiding conflicts of interest, adhering to the code of ethical conduct, and applying standard professional business practices (e.g., working conditions, setting of appropriate fees, bookkeeping).	5.10 Identify and discuss the scope and authority of state and federal laws and legislation impacting D/deaf people and interpreters (e.g., who is responsible for implementing the law, who is qualified to interpret under the law).

Building Consensus

Through a process of stakeholder analysis, conducted in the form of interviews and focus groups, the DO IT Center has sought to build consensus around this set of essential entry-to-practice competencies. The interview process involved one-on-one or small group discussions with key individuals about their vision for competent interpreting practice and the values they hold as essential aspects of competent practice. Each individual interviewed was asked to review the competencies document developed by the Expert Work Group and to determine if their vision and values were sufficiently represented and where gaps existed. The focus groups provided a structured discussion about the competencies for larger audience participation. In the following chart, the various stakeholder interviews and focus groups are identified, along with a brief indication of the core values that emerged through the process of appreciative inquiry.

When/Where	Who	Core Values
Feb-March 2004 Local communities	Interviews with deaf colleagues by each member of the Expert Work Group	Bilingual competence, respect and courtesy, team work, voice interpreting skills, cultural competence, discretion and professional judgment
March-April 2004 Washington, DC	1-on-1 interviews: National leaders in interpreting, interpreter education and the Deaf Community and employers of interpreters	Interpreting *and* transliterating competence, cultural competence, discretion and professional judgment, professional and personable attitude, quality IPPs of appropriate scope and sequence, team work, supervised induction, consistent employment standards
April 2004 CIT members-only Online Discussion Board	Conference of Interpreter Trainers focus group 78 Registrants	Quality IPPs of appropriate scope and sequence, bilingual, interpreting, and cultural competence, interpersonal competence, team work, broad world-view and experience, professional/ethical decision-making
April 2004 Montrose, Colorado	Colorado RID − IPP graduate focus group 28 Interpreters from 3 IPPs	Bilingual and interpreting competence, time to internalize and synthesize skills, longer programs, more diverse practica, supervised induction, professional decision-making skills
April 2004 Ogden, Utah	Deaf Studies Conference 1-on-1 interviews with consumers & ASL Teachers	Bilingual competence, respect and courtesy, team work, voice interpreting skills, cultural competence, discretion and professional judgment
June 2004 Hebron, KY	National Alliance of Black Interpreters (NAOBI) focus group 12 practitioners & educators	Professional and ethical decision-making, bilingual, interpreting and cultural competence—including diversity, strong foundation in authentic learning experiences, broad world view and orientation, competent interpreter educators, supervised induction
June 2004 Hebron, KY	1-on-1 interviews with NAOBI interpreters/leaders	Bilingual, interpreting and cultural competence, quality IPPs with appropriate scope and sequence and competent/diverse faculty, authentic learning experiences, supervised induction
June 2004 Denver, CO	DO IT Center Advisory Group 22 members representing employers, consumers, practitioners, educators, and RID affiliate chapters	Interpreting and transliterating competence, cultural competence, discretion and professional judgment, professional and personable attitude, quality IPPs of appropriate scope and sequence, team work, supervised induction, consistent employment standards, professional decision-making skills
July 2004 Kansas City, MO	NAD Convention-Deaf consumer focus group 36 consumers, practitioners, educators and students	Bilingual and interpreting competence, professionalism, interpersonal skills, supervised induction
July 2004 Oklahoma City, OK	RID Region IV-IPP graduate focus group 37 students & educators	Bilingual and interpreting competence, time to internalize and synthesize skills, longer programs, more diverse practicum, supervised induction, professional decision-making skills, access to resources for lifelong learning

Closing

How can this work impact IPPs? There are a variety of applications that are envisioned for the entry-to-practice competencies project. The most valuable application relates to providing a starting place—the targeted outcomes—for determining the appropriate scope and sequence for the professional education of interpreters. To this end, IPPs can use the competencies to stimulate discussion and review of curriculum by faculty teams. As well, the DO IT Center is seeking funding to create a model IPP curriculum in collaboration with experts in the fields of interpreting and interpreter education. A Learning Object Repository (LOR) for use by interpreter educators in accessing resources and materials for teaching would support this model IPP curriculum.

The field of interpreter education stands at a critical juncture in time because of the exciting convergence of multiple collaborated endeavors—such as the NAD-RID National Interpreting Council, the CIT's movement to establish the Collegiate Commission on Interpreter Education (CCIE), the increasing number of states and employers adopting standards to govern the hiring of interpreters, and the advancements in technology to support distance education for interpreters and interpreter educators. As well, the challenges facing interpreter education have been identified and discussed, along with our growing realization of the gap that exists between program graduates and the demands of the marketplace. It is time to capture our collective expertise and move towards meaningful solutions. The entry-to-practice competencies project offers one contribution towards more effective preparation of interpreter practitioners who more confidently and competently meet the needs of deaf individuals and the broader marketplace. When translated into an appropriate scope and sequence of professional education, the competencies can provide a model of interpreter education for the 21st century.

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Exploring Signed Language Discourse with Interpreting Students: Promoting an Effective Pedagogical Approach

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Abstract

This paper details the effective pedagogical approach used in a unit of the Postgraduate Diploma in Auslan/English Interpreting at Macquarie University entitled 'Discourse Analysis of Auslan Skills'. The unit provides students with the opportunity to explore discourse features of signed languages and acquire an understanding of, and skills in, a range of genres in Australian Sign Language (Auslan) in order to effectively carry out a range of interpreting work. Drawing on discourse and pedagogical theory, students are exposed to a range of teaching strategies, including discourse analysis, contrastive analysis, language shadowing, language output and input, and negative feedback and positive evidence. Students analyze, discuss and experience different discourse genres and relate them to their work as interpreters.

Setting the scene: Interpreter education in Australia

The only university sign language interpreter education program in Australia, which provides a route to professional accreditation, is offered at Macquarie University in Sydney[1]. Students can enroll in the Postgraduate Diploma in Auslan/English Interpreting, which takes two years to complete part-time. Students come to the program with Paraprofessional accreditation[2], and therefore with a minimum level of fluency in Auslan. The aim of the program is to further develop students' interpreting skills to professional level, and thus enable them to achieve the highest level of accreditation.

Students enrolling in the Diploma are required to complete four core units in the Linguistics of Auslan, Discourse Analysis of Auslan Skills, Interpreting Techniques and Interpreting Practice; plus a further three electives choosing from Languages and Cultures in Contact, Pragmatics, Advanced Auslan Interpreting 1 & 2, Theory of Translation, Community Interpreting, or Social, Language and Cultural Studies of Deafness. This paper focuses on the pedagogical approach taken in the unit 'Discourse Analysis of Auslan Skills'. The outline of the unit can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Course outline – Discourse Analysis of Auslan Skills

In this subject students will develop linguistic analysis skills and explore their own Auslan production in different contexts for the purposes of interpreting. 'Discourse analysis of Auslan skills' will provide students with the opportunity to analyze the lexical, grammatical and discourse features of Auslan texts, by contrasting with equivalent English texts. In particular, the course will draw on discourse analysis in spoken languages and other signed languages, and apply them to the description and production of selected Auslan texts. Students will be encouraged to consider how Auslan is used in different contexts of situation to identify different discourse features in relation to register, style, form and function. Various discourse types (including narrative, conversation) and registers (including formal, informal, consultative) will be analyzed, with students applying theoretical discussion to the practical development of their own Auslan skills. This unit will provide students with the fundamental language analysis skills needed in interpreting, as well as language skill development itself. This unit will be a core subject for all students enrolled in the Postgraduate Diploma in Auslan/English Interpreting.

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[1] See www.ling.mq.edu.au/translation/

[2] See Napier (2002) for more information about the accreditation system for translators and interpreters in Australia. Or alternatively, the website of the National Authority for the Accreditation of Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) at: www.naati.com.au

Pedagogical theory as a foundation

Higher education teaching philosophy is now focused more on meeting needs of students generally, especially professionals undertaking vocational-related courses; such as interpreting. Knowles, Holton, and Swanson (1998) advocate for an androgogical approach to adult education. They define androgogy as 'the art and science of helping adults learn', adopting a process-based, rather than content-based, approach to teaching and learning. Teaching is guided by students' self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn. Vella (2002) outlines twelve principles for effective adult learning: learners providing assessment of what needs to be learned, safety in the environment and learning process, a sound relationship between teacher and student, sequence of content and reinforcement, action with reflection, respect for learners as decision-makers, recognition of ideas, feelings and action related aspects of learning, immediacy of learning, clear roles and role development, teamwork and use of small groups, engagement of learners in what they are learning, and accountability (i.e., how do learners know they know?).

A constructivist approach to learning highlights the importance of reference to the student's own experience and embodies the notion of active learning, wherein the main interest is in the process by which the learner reaches an understanding of the structure of the learning tasks. Wilson (1981) supports the consideration of the nature of the learner's individual experiences, and how he or she interprets those experiences, in the teaching and learning environment. Thus in order to constructively encourage students to derive meaning from the learning process, it is necessary to establish a good learning atmosphere with varied teaching strategies (Druger, 1996). Effective learning requires the process to be "an ongoing active learning experience", where the students are "intellectually engaged throughout the process, constantly reflecting on and assessing their understanding" (Evensky, 1996, p.17).

According to Arendt (2003), "Constructivism is… a theoretical framework for carrying out didactically effective second language teaching… [which] recognizes the importance of didactic procedures enabling students the application of most successful learning strategies and techniques" (p.2).

The notion of collaborative learning supports an active learning approach, by allowing students to work together where they can be immersed in challenging tasks

(Leigh Smith & MacGregor, 1992). By recognizing that learners are diverse, variable collaborative learning tasks can be set for students that require them to explore or apply the new concepts they have been introduced to, in a search for understanding, deriving meaning and consolidation of learning (Leigh Smith & MacGregor, 1992). By combining a variety of interactive exercises, this caters for a range of student learning needs, and enables them to learn from each other as well as the teacher (Wilson, 1981).

In order to achieve realistic active learning, the interface between higher education and the workplace needs to be responsive to the real learning needs of individual students. Increased interaction between higher education and working life, with the integration of theory and practice, is more evident from four viewpoints: (1) student learning and development of expertise, (2) educational institutions and staff, (3) working life organizations, (4) society and the system of education (Tynjälä, Välimaa, & Sarja, 2003). In order to maintain and enhance the link between professional education and work-based experience and ensure the success of higher education programs, some kind of practicum experience is critical (Valo, 2000). This is particularly important in a course such as sign language interpreter training, as it provides students with an opportunity to relate theory to practice, and application of their learning in development of their professional practice skills.

Students are individuals with differing needs and interests, with unique contributions to be made to the teaching and learning environment (Wilson, 1981). In encouraging students to reach their personal goals, it is necessary first of all to help them identify their needs and realize their strengths. It is important to take interest in what they want to learn and why, and continually emphasize a mutually beneficial learning environment, where all students can bring their own experiences and knowledge and therefore can learn from one another (Wilson, 1981; Druger, 1996).

Different teaching strategies can be used to engage students in critical thinking about their own skills, experiences and knowledge, and establish a safe environment for them to experiment and develop their skills base. Students learn better when courses are experiential in nature (Wilson, 1981; Druger, 1996), so content can be introduced by relating to students' own experiences and understanding, so all discussions and exercises are meaningful and relevant. Nonetheless, students must take some responsibility for their own learning (Small & Lankes, 1996), thus they should be encouraged to engage in discussions by contributing from their own experience, which contextualizes the learning and facilitates independent learning. By considering the students' perspective when planning teaching programs, the learning experienced can be enhanced (Ramsden, 1992).

Higher education promotes critical thinking and reflective practice, which works most effectively within an active learning framework. Videotaping exercises which can be reviewed to reflect on learning outcomes either in a collaborative group discussion, or independently outside of the classroom is an effective active learning strategy (Van Gulick & Lynch, 1996), particularly for interpreter training, as interpreting students can analyze and reflect on the effectiveness of their interpretations.

In evaluating the literature, the following points are crucial to ensuring effective pedagogy: (1) active learning, (2) student-centered learning, (3) experiential learning, and (4) interface between learning and professional skills development (i.e., demands of the workplace).

Teaching signed language discourse: The pedagogical process

Students enrolled in the 'Discourse Analysis of Auslan Skills' unit have already acquired Auslan to a reasonable level of fluency, and are expected to develop their sophistication in the language use as a result of the course. Therefore it is not a conventional second language teaching course focusing on the development of vocabulary, but rather a course in exploring and enhancing understanding of the use of Auslan, and development of communicative competence in different discourse genres and text types. Drawing on linguistics and second language teaching theories, students are exposed to discourse analysis (Jǿrgensen & Phillips, 2002; McCarthy, 1991; Riggenbach, 1999), contrastive analysis (Chesterman, 1998; Hatim, 1997), language shadowing (Ilg & Lambert, 1996), language output and input (Shinichi, 2002), and negative feedback and positive evidence (Iwashita, 2003).

Initially students are introduced to theoretical concepts of register, discourse, genre and text types and provided with an overview of relevant research in Spoken English (such as Goffman, 1981; Grice, 1975; Halliday, 1994; Hymes, 1967; Joos, 1967; Schiffrin, 1987; Tannen, 1984) and signed languages (such as Ingram, 2000; Liddell & Metzger, 1998; Metzger, 1999; Metzger & Bahan, 2001; Roy, 1989; Stone, 2001; Winston, 1995; Zimmer, 1989). Students then engage in the identification of registers, discourse genres and text types in Auslan based on their own observations of, and experiences of using, Auslan as interpreters. The aim of the unit is to focus on a range of discourse types that interpreters typically encounter in their everyday work. These include Creative text (poetry), Narrative (child and adult), Informal text (jokes), Formal text (lectures, conference papers), and Informal/ Formal Interaction (conversation, interview).

The pedagogical process then concentrates on each of these discourse types/genres, and follows the same format:

- Discussion of relevant readings (e.g., Rayman, 1999) (group).
  This provides students with an opportunity to explore the theoretical perspective of discourse, which provides them with a foundation for practical application.
- Brainstorm of discourse features in spoken English within the genre (e.g., use of terminology, use of pausing, use of colloquialisms) (group).
- Brainstorm of discourse features in Auslan within the genre (e.g., use of spatial mapping, use of fingerspelling, size of signing space) (group).
- Watch example(s) of Auslan text in this genre (e.g., a conference paper presented in Auslan) (group).
- Discuss any key discourse features noticed (group).
- Watch text again with students shadowing signing (individual). This allows students to 'feel' the discourse features that are being used, which makes them more tangible and more easily noticeable. For example, a deaf native Auslan user may use a certain discourse marker that a student has never thought of using before in that context.
- Discussion regarding how it felt – reflection on key discourse features, which are then compared with those identified in the brainstorm (group).
- Students work to produce their own Auslan text within the genre (e.g., a children's narrative) (pairs).
- Presentation of text to the rest of group. Students then receive feedback from the teacher and other students on the discourse features used and their appropriateness for the genre, with suggestions given for improvement through positive role-modeling.

- Discussion of implications for interpreting in different contexts through identification of hypothetical interpreting situations (group). For example, "Imagine you are interpreting for a deaf child at storytime in kindergarten. What have you learned from this process that would impact on your linguistic decisions when interpreting?"

At the very end of the course, students work in small groups to develop their own 'model' of Auslan register and discourse types, which consolidates all of the discussion and practice they have experienced during the course.

This pedagogical process has proven to be effective in getting interpreting students to concentrate on identifying features of, and developing skills in, Auslan (which is invariably their second language), before exploring the impact on their interpreting. The ultimate goal is to ensure that interpreters are producing Auslan discourse features appropriate to the context when interpreting from spoken English into Auslan. Examples of evaluation comments from students in response to the question 'What I found most useful/interesting and why' can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Student evaluation comments

- Discussion of the different approaches to discourse analysis as it linked with the reading and explained the concepts.
- Shadowing signed texts provided opportunity to pick out discourse features more so than watching the text.
- Opportunity to see examples of a variety of discourse types in Auslan.
- Watching and shadowing the videos.
- It was a learning curve for me and I will now go away and do lots of reading to consolidate it all and apply it to my signing abilities.
- Analyzing video texts and applying what was learned in theoretical discussion.
- Great to have the opportunity to 'perform' and receive feedback.
- I think the analysis of existing texts and relating to the brainstorming session was most useful as it gave us an opportunity to apply the theory.
- I have really enjoyed the whole course and feel inspired about interpreting/exploring/analyzing Auslan.
- Analysis of sample texts and then analysis of our own Auslan production helped relate theory to practice.
- Feedback on presentations.
- Designing model of Auslan discourse/register – helped to consolidate everything I have learned.

Conclusion

This paper has outlined the effective pedagogical process used to enhance the Auslan skills of sign language interpreting students in relation to the identification and use of appropriate discourse features. The pedagogical approach used draws on linguistic, second language teaching and educational research and theory. The education of interpreters in Auslan discourse is essential to ensure their linguistic skills and professional competence. In doing so, interpreters develop an understanding of appropriate discourse features to use in different contexts when conversing with, and interpreting for, deaf people.

This effective pedagogical process can be applied to the teaching of any signed language discourse, as the theories and teaching elements are applicable to all languages. Developing an understanding of, and the ability to produce, signed language discourse features appropriate to different contexts of situation is an essential part of the interpreter's "tool kit" (Pollitt, 2000; Roy, 2000), and ideally should be an inherent part of any interpreter education program.

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Observation-Supervision in Mental Health Interpreter Training

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Abstract

In 2003, the University of Rochester's Deaf Wellness Center (DWC) was awarded a federal grant from the National Institute on Disability and Rehabilitation Research which, in part, was designed to examine the effectiveness of mental health interpreter training through *observation-supervision*, based on the "demand-control schema for interpreting work" (Dean & Pollard, 2001). This training/research project involves 40 certified, working interpreters, and four mental health interpreter trainers and takes place sequentially in four cities across the US. The observation-supervision training methodology proposes better outcomes in setting-specific training by allowing interpreters to observe the dynamics and nuances of work settings, without the constraining presence of deaf consumers or working interpreters, in a structured manner followed by expert interpreter supervision. This report describes the current status of the project, which has concluded two of the four training segments (in Rochester, NY, and Minneapolis).

Many of the newer philosophies in education emphasize the need for and benefits of student-centered learning, where students are responsible for, invested in, and drive the learning process. Unfortunately, for many educators who might ideologically embrace this type of learning approach, the application and the practicality of this philosophy can be challenging. Problem-based learning (PBL), which began in medical schools in the early 1960s, is a teaching methodology which created a student-centered classroom, where medical students were no longer treated as passive vessels into which information was poured and later regurgitated, but where students were required to participate actively in their learning, most of which took place in a contextualized manner involving real patients.

PBL-style medical courses are not designed didactically, where the instructor or the textbook dictate the direction of the course or the content of the learning. Learning is instead organized around “problems” or patient cases that the medical students are assigned during their coursework. Medical students are required to investigate, diagnose, and recommend treatment options for simulated and real patient cases while the teacher elicits and monitors the teaching topics and facilitates student learning during the students' investigative process. This more accurately reflects what the practice of medicine eventually will be for these students -- patient-based learning seamlessly leading to patient-based practice.

Our new teaching approach, *observation-supervision*, borrows from PBL in that it strives to create a learning environment for interpreters which looks like situations in which interpreters actually practice. This learning technique was developed by Robyn K. Dean and Robert Pollard of the University of Rochester (UR) for their research with the University of Tennessee’s (UT) Educational Interpreting Program and is a complimentary teaching methodology to their demand-control (D-C) schema for interpreting work (Dean & Pollard, in press; Dean & Pollard, 2001). The UR/UT project, “Reforming Interpreting Education: A Practice Profession Approach” (www.urmc.rochester.edu/dwc/scholarship/Education.htm) was supported by the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), a branch of the US Department of Education. (See Dean, Pollard, Davis, et al., in this volume for further information about the FIPSE project.)

Observation-supervision is a departure from the usual method employed in the training of interpreters for work in specialized settings like legal, mental health, or medical environments. Instead of taking a survey course or attending a weekend workshop/lecture on setting-specific content, observation-supervision requires interpreters to observe such specialized assignment settings when *no* deaf consumers or working interpreters are present, i.e., they shadow a physician, psychologist, or other service provider and observe hearing people engaged in routine dialogues and behaviors in these settings. Learners conduct a structured analysis of observed events to gain greater insight into the challenges and "thought worlds" of professionals and consumers in these settings. Interpreter learners are guided in this task by an observation form structured in accordance with the D-C schema, where questions regarding the four categories of demands (environmental, interpersonal, paralinguistic, and intrapersonal, or EIPI) are explored. Completed observation forms then are brought to group supervision sessions, led by a teacher or mentor who is well-versed in the *teaching* application[1] of the D-C schema. The supervision leader uses the data from the observation forms to facilitate learners' setting-specific education and consideration of job challenges (demands) and how one could respond (i.e., employ "control options") in light of those demands. Control options include knowledge acquisition, skills growth and application, and potential translation and behavioral decisions. Highly emphasized in these supervision sessions is learners' consideration of the consequences of various control options. The goal is to draw out and critique various translation and behavioral decisions that might apply to an array of hypothetical deaf consumers, in the context of the actual observed situation and the specific dialogue that took place between the hearing individuals.

Unencumbered by the constraining influences of a *specific* deaf consumer and the pull to observe a working interpreter's sign choices, observation-supervision expands upon traditional methods of interpreter training and reinforces the D-C schema's emphasis on consumers' thought worlds and EIPI factors in interpreting work. Observation-supervision allows broader consideration of varied types of deaf consumers

[1] We have learned that familiarity with the D-C schema does not necessarily equate to competence in teaching the schema to others or employing it in supervision. Our research findings indicate that mastery of the schema's concepts and vocabulary must precede the acquisition and practice of specific D-C schema teaching methods, such as picture analysis and observation-supervision. Attempting to teach with the schema prior to achieving such mastery has resulted in poorer student learning outcomes in our ongoing studies.

who *might be* in the given interpreting situation (as hypothesized by the supervision leader). It also fosters advanced learning about the observed situation's normal social and dialogic realities prior to the supervision leader superimposing aspects of ASL translation and Deaf culture onto this foundation knowledge.

Outcomes of Observation-Supervision

In the FIPSE project, observation-supervision was first piloted in medical and educational environments with interpreting students, not working interpreters. The UR/UT project collaborators have documented the benefits of this type of training for interpreting students (Dean, Davis, et al., 2003; IAE, 2003). Most noteworthy were the benefits students gained through their interactions with professionals (medical staff and educators) and their clientele (patients and students). Students not only observed a wide variety of direct interactions between professionals and clients, they also were privy to behind-the-scenes observations and discussions with professionals that provided unique insights into the goals of the environment, the goals of specific interactions and communications with specific types of clients, and professional and client "thought worlds". Interpersonal skills are an important aspect of the work of interpreters. The twenty-five hours of observations that were required in both the educational and medical observation-supervision courses in this UR/UT project allowed students to develop, practice, and hone these skills. Especially in the often-sensitive nature of doctor-patient appointments, students were challenged in the complex skill of balancing compassion with professionalism.

Unlike most interpreter training methodologies, observation-supervision provided students with far greater insights into the "other side of the story" -- the hearing professional's "thought world" and communication needs and goals -- than traditional classroom or even practicum training leads to. It often is the case in interpreter training that due attention is given to the unique linguistic and sociocultural aspects of deafness, but, too often, the ways in which hearing people function within their professional or personal realms is insufficiently explored and understood, despite their equal importance given that they, too, are consumers of interpreter services and, moreover, typically "steer" the interactions with deaf consumers. Especially in the medical observation-supervision course, the medical staff would share information about the patient with the student, an overview of the patient's disease and treatment needs, the specific purpose of the appointment, and even the personal opinions of the staff. Students learned that clinicians must develop personal and professional insights and boundaries that allow them to balance the feelings they acknowledge having about patients (e.g., like, dislike, empathy, frustration) with their professional responsibilities. We believe that interpreting, like medicine or law enforcement, is a practice profession involving a similar need to acknowledge the personal-professional balance and develop insightful judgment skills that take personal feelings into account, not deny them or view them as inappropriate or unethical.

When students were not observing direct actions between professionals with their clientele, they were observing professionals interacting with one another. For example, in the medical settings, students were able to follow physicians into their offices or conference rooms where they dialogued with one another about patient cases. Students were privy to rather complex decisions that practice professionals must make. Similarly, during supervision sessions, the students were able to discuss with each other and the supervision leader how the behavior and translation decisions of the interpreting profession also involve complex factors where benefits and drawbacks are weighed rather than stark, black-and-white views of interpreting decisions. Students noted that they felt more “on par” with the practice professionals they observed.

It also was reported by the UT students that the professionals they observed were curious about this approach to training. Students had the opportunity to articulate the philosophy of observation-supervision and also why certain types of information would be helpful to them in their future interpreting work. Invariably, the professionals involved in the project reported that they learned a great deal from the interpreter-observers and that they gained a much better understanding and appreciation for the work that interpreters do.

The experiences of the working interpreters in the NIDRR mental health training project have been similar to these experiences reported by the students in the FIPSE project. But, as detailed below, the participants in the NIDRR project reported other unique learning benefits as well.

NIDRR Interpreting Project Beginnings

Observation-supervision as a teaching methodology was a natural extension of the occupational paradigm shift regarding the nature of interpreting work that Dean and Pollard envisioned with their D-C schema. They view interpreters as practice-professionals -- more akin to doctors, teachers, and police officers, for whom work dynamics and environments are constantly shifting and involve considerable human and momentary situational judgments -- as opposed to technical professionals like architects or engineers for whom knowledge and skill acquisition is emphasized in training more so than nuanced human interaction and rapid situational judgment (Dean & Pollard, in press). If the work that interpreters do is more like that of a practice professional than a "technician of translation," then interpreters should be educated in ways that are similar to how other practice professionals are trained. Further, their own daily practice and ethical judgments also should mirror the process employed by practice professionals. The D-C schema and observation-supervision as a specific learning methodology, both reflect this practice-profession view of interpreting work.

After observation-supervision showed promising results with UT's interpreting students, the question of its potential effectiveness with working interpreters was posed. A research project was designed to answer this question, specifically focused on the utility of observation-supervision to enhance interpreting practice in mental health settings. In 2003, the project was funded by NIDRR as a part of the DWC's larger NIDRR grant project, "Toward Equity: Innovative, Collaborative Research on Interpreter Training, DBT, and Psychological Testing" (www.urmc.rochester.edu/dwc/scholarship/Equity.htm).

The NIDRR interpreter training project examines the effectiveness of observation-supervision as a training technique for working interpreters who accept assignments in mental health settings. Many interpreters receive no training to help them work effectively in mental health settings, especially since on-the-job learning is so common in the interpreting field (Dean & Pollard, in press). When interpreters are able to avail themselves of specialized training for working in mental health settings, such training opportunities typically involve lectures or workshops focused on content information regarding mental illnesses, diagnosis, and treatment. While such content information is important, the most challenging and important aspects of mental health work stem from the relationships between professionals and consumers. These relationships are directly manifested in complex communication styles and objectives, which invariably fall squarely on the interpreter's shoulders to understand and manage successfully. In no other field of medicine is communication so important as in mental health, for mental health diagnosis *and* treatment are nearly completely dependent on communication, unlike other medical specialties. Experienced mental health interpreting trainers emphasize the need for interpreters to work in close partnership with clinicians. We believe that observation-supervision is an excellent method for fostering both contextualized content learning and clinician partnering skills and judgment in the mental health practice arena.

NIDRR Interpreting Project Specifics

Four cities, Rochester (NY), Minneapolis, New York City (NYC), and San Francisco and four mental health interpreter trainers, Robyn K. Dean, Mark Alan English, Jody Gill, and Dan Veltri (respectively, by city) are collaborating on this project. Each site is training approximately ten interpreters and gathering data on the training's effectiveness. At the time of the 2004 CIT convention, two sites (Rochester and Minneapolis) have completed their training. The remainder of this manuscript will discuss essential elements of the research design and the preliminary findings at the project's midpoint.

Before the first (Rochester) training session began, the remote site supervisors (English, Gill, and Veltri), the project director (Dean), and the principal investigator (Pollard) convened in August of 2003 for three days of training and planning regarding the project. The remote site supervisors already were familiar with the D-C schema as a theoretical construct. During the August meeting, the site supervisors learned how to employ the D-C schema in the teaching of specialty topic content and fostering judgment skills through the dialogic work analysis process that the schema involves (see Dean, Pollard, Davis, et al., this volume). The goal of this meeting was not to create a rigid curriculum to be used at all four sites, although important mental health topic areas to be covered over the course of each sites' training were agreed upon. Instead, since each supervisor already had expertise in mental health interpreting, the goal of this initial meeting was to become familiar with how to impart their mental health interpreting knowledge and expertise through the PBL-style mechanism of observation-supervision (and the D-C schema). It was the philosophy of the UR researchers that maximal trainee benefit would result from modification of traditional teaching styles (i.e., employing a PBL approach rather than a didactic approach), not standardization of the training sites' mental health interpreting content. There are other opportunities within the interpreting field to access content-focused curricular materials. The observation-supervision approach was to be radically different than didactic, content-driven learning and was to make maximal use of the teacher's inherent expertise within the context of actual, recent student observations and their resulting learning needs/desires. In short, process was to drive content, not the other way around.

Training Program Design

Both the Rochester and Minneapolis sites successfully recruited 11 interpreters, all of whom were certified by the RID and/or NAD. They represented a broad range of general work experience, experience in mental health settings, and other employment characteristics. The interpreter participants were initially trained in the concepts of the demand-control schema for interpreting work. Subsequently, they each observed approximately 15 hours of mental health service provision situations (between hearing clinicians and hearing patients), across a variety of settings. One or two observation hours were required in settings such as acute care, outpatient group therapy, family therapy, child therapy, partial hospitalization, chemical dependency treatment, psychopharmacology, and psychological evaluations. Guided by a detailed mental health observation form, the interpreters documented and analyzed the EIPI elements of these observations. The observation forms were submitted to the site supervisor prior to supervision sessions. After 8 to 10 observation hours were completed, the supervision sessions began. Further observation hours and supervision sessions overlapped for the remainder of the teaching period.

Data Collection

A variety of outcome data are being collected. Participants are asked to complete a demographic questionnaire where they list their certifications, information about their interpreter preparation program (if any), how long they have been interpreting, and their primary work setting. Next, they are asked to provide information about how much mental health interpreting work they have done in the last six months, in which specific mental health settings, and to rate their confidence in their work performance within these settings. Participants are asked to complete this demographic and confidence rating scale every six months until the end of the project (2008) to see if this training is associated with an increase in mental health interpreting hours and/or confidence.

Participants also complete a test of mental health content knowledge before and after the training. These pre-test/post-test results are providing the researchers with information about learning and retention of mental health content knowledge via observation-supervision. The Rochester and Minneapolis pre- and post-test results are discussed below. These results (and those from NYC and San Francisco) will be compared with a group of sign language interpreters who engaged in mental health training for the same number of hours (approximately 40) but using a didactic format. (These comparison group results are not available at the time this is being written, but they will be discussed during the 2004 CIT presentation.) Following completion of their training, participants are asked to complete a comprehensive evaluation of their learning experience. This evaluation is helping the researchers understand the advantages and disadvantages of this training methodology and which elements might be improved upon as the project evolves.

Finally, the project participants are asked to take a practical exam (these have not yet been graded), designed specifically for this study, but with similarities to other practical exams designed by the UR researchers to document the effectiveness of D-C schema training. Such practical exams are modeled after the judgment-focused exams being employed by other practice professions. The exam developed for the NIDRR project is interview-based and allows the examiner and examinee to dialogue about mental health interpreting situations and demonstrate both content knowledge and judgment skills. While demonstration of the participant's content knowledge is an aspect of this exam, its broader purpose is to determine how well the participant understands and employs the D-C schema for interpreting work as a theoretical construct and as a tool for analyzing their work and decision-making in mental health settings. This type of practical exam is unique in the interpreting profession. While content knowledge is often tested vis-à-vis written exams and interpreting/transliterating skills are often tested vis-à-vis performance exams, the ability of an interpreter to recognize the demands and controls of a specific assignment and to demonstrate their ability to think through their decision-making in an analytical and critical manner previously have not been a prominent focus of interpreter assessment. Each of the four project sites will serve as a pilot for the administration and grading of this practical exam. The results and feedback from each site will be used to make improvements in the practical exam before it is administered at the next subsequent site. At the end of the project, a final version of this mental health practical exam will be completed and made available for dissemination.

We are also intending to obtain data from deaf and hearing consumers who work with interpreters who have been through our observation-supervision training. These data collection efforts will take place later in the study period.

Securing Mental Health Observation Sites

Since the UR researchers work for a large Department of Psychiatry, it was not difficult to secure over twenty observation sites, including chemical dependency, inpatient units, the psychiatric emergency room, group therapy, family therapy, psychopharmacology, and outpatient day treatment. The populations observed in these settings ranged from low-functioning (psychiatrically and/or cognitively) to high-functioning. We were required to submit a variety of documents and follow other procedures to comply with medical center policy for observers. Mark Alan English, site supervisor for Minneapolis, works as a freelance mental health interpreter. His relationships with numerous mental health providers allowed for easy access to a variety of observation settings. There were seven different sites with over 90 programs around the Minneapolis area available for participants to observe, including outpatient day treatment, court commitment hearings, domestic abuse programs, group homes and Dialectical Behavior Therapy groups. English was required to submit clinical observer data sheets for the Hennepin County Medical Center site. All participants signed health and confidentiality statements that were on file and made available to all sites.

Observation Dynamics

At the UR Medical Center, many psychiatry programs are outfitted with one-way mirrors, allowing observers to see (and hear) the clinician-consumer interactions in an adjacent room. Other observations occurred with the interpreter in the same room as the clinician and patient(s). In all cases, patient permission (verbal, not written) was required before the observation began. Sometimes, the interpreter was asked to introduce her/himself to the patient and explain briefly the purpose of the observation. We encouraged the interpreters simply to refer to themselves as "a trainee learning how to work effectively in mental health services settings" or, if they were asked to explain further, to discuss their professional background as briefly as possible. This was done to curtail lengthy conversations about sign language, deaf people, etc., which would interfere with the goal and time allotted for the patient's appointment. Observers from other professions are introduced to patients in a similar “matter of fact” way. This gives the patient the sense that student observers are a normal occurrence in a teaching hospital and conveys that there is little to be concerned about. Very few observers in the project were turned away by patients.

Interpreter observers were discouraged from filling out their observation forms during the appointment. It was suggested that if it was appropriate or inconspicuous enough, then taking brief notes would be fine. Interpreter observers were strongly encouraged to complete as much of the observation form as they could immediately following the observation to foster clearer and more comprehensive recall. Observation forms were shared with the clinicians ahead of time so that they were aware of the kind of information being recorded. All clinicians and patients were assured that names and other identifying information were never recorded.

Almost always, clinicians took time before the appointment to brief the interpreter about the patient case, the status of treatment, and the plan and goals for the upcoming meeting. Following the appointment, if there was time, interpreter observers were given the opportunity to debrief with the clinician and ask questions. There were a few occasions during evaluation appointments when the clinician turned to the interpreter observer and asked if he/she would like to ask any questions of the patient. Being treated as a colleague in this way by the clinician was a rare and powerful experience for the participants in this project.

Many observations also allowed interpreters to interact with clinicians and observe clinical staff interacting with one another, both formally and informally. For example, in the psychiatric emergency room, psychiatrists, psychiatric nurses, social workers, and other student learners convened in a conference room when they were not interviewing patients. The interpreter observers listened to how these mental health professionals talked about patients and how they made ethical and practical decisions about patient care. On a few occasions, interpreter observers were allowed to attend supervision sessions where clinicians and their students discussed the diagnosis or treatment plan for a complicated case. Again, these experiences were highly valued by the participants.

Supervision Sessions

In the mental health profession, the term *supervision* refers not to "oversight by one's boss" or other such punitive concepts, but to discussions between practicing professionals (whether or not they are peers in terms of work experience or where they fit on the employment hierarchy), aimed at furthering the effectiveness of one of the professional’s work. Supervision of this sort is a regular aspect of mental health professionals' training and their ongoing professional development. "Seeking supervision" on complex cases, ethical issues, etc., is a fundamental and common practice that all mental health professionals engage in. In fact, ethical standards in the mental health professions mandate that such supervision be obtained whenever needed. Failure to do so is considered an ethical breach. Patient confidentiality is understood as applying to supervision, not in the sense that patient specifics cannot be discussed -- they often must be -- but in the sense that the confidentiality commitment the clinician makes to the patient is "extended" to include the individual providing supervision. This perspective on the mandatory nature of peer supervision and the presumption that such confidential supervision is an extension of provider-consumer confidentiality is one that many interpreters find unusual, even uncomfortable, even though it is the norm among practice professionals.

In our project, supervision is the time where the learners’ unanswered questions and unprocessed experiences drive the group discussion. It is when learners thoroughly explore the “So what?” of the events they observed, i.e., “While these observations were interesting, how is this information helpful to me directly as an interpreter?” Supervision is the time when the supervisor facilitates learners making connections between what they saw, heard, and felt during the observations and how this information will help them increase their competency as mental health interpreters. In keeping with the language of the D-C schema, if observations are about identifying the demands of various mental health encounters, supervision is the time to explore, evaluate, and increase controls.[2]

It also is true that just from the experience of being present in observations, the participants were gaining controls. They were gaining new knowledge about psychiatric disorders, mental health professionals, and various treatment approaches. Many participants also acknowledged new controls like respect, appreciation, even a new attitude about patients, clinicians, and mental illness itself. Through their frequent interaction and dialogues with clinicians and patients, participants had opportunities to hone their interpersonal skills. Further, interpreter participants were gaining a level of familiarity and comfort with psychiatric patients, staff, and environments. This is in keeping with the broad definition of controls and participants noted its impact on their confidence in working in mental health settings.

Of course, the main opportunity for participants to gain controls was during supervision sessions. In Rochester, supervision sessions occurred five times over three months. In Minneapolis, they occurred five times over five months. (These differences in supervision frequency had different benefits and drawbacks from the viewpoint of the two site trainers). The Rochester participants were divided into two groups due to scheduling needs, requiring two, parallel supervision tracks. Otherwise, at both sites, the nature of supervision meetings was similar. Participants gathered around a conference table for three and half hours to report on their observations (guided by their completed forms). The facilitators used a white board to document the demands of a given observation for all to see and discuss. Balancing the learning interests and opportunities presented by the group with the need to (eventually) cover the desired mental health content information was the job of the facilitators, who steered the supervision session

[2] "As adapted from Karasek, controls are skills, characteristics, abilities, decisions, or other resources that an interpreter may bring to bear in response to the demands presented by a given work assignment. Controls for interpreters may include education, experience, preparation for the assignment, behavioral actions or interventions, particular translation decisions, (e.g., specific word or sign choices or explanatory comments to consumers), encouraging "self-talk," or the simple yet powerful act of consciously acknowledging the presence and significance of a given demand and the impact it is having on an interpreting assignment. In the D-C schema, the term *control* is a noun, not a verb, and is preferably stated as *control options.* We define three temporal opportunities where control options may be employed: pre-assignment controls (e.g., education, language fluency, and assignment preparation), assignment controls (i.e., behavioral and translation decisions made during the assignment itself), and post-assignment controls (e.g., follow-up behaviors and continuing education)" (Dean & Pollard, in press).

dialogue as they saw fit in relation to these goals, but always in a manner consistent with the D-C schema.

As the group described and discussed their observations, the facilitators helped them hypothesize, “If this were an interpreting job, how would I handle (this or that element)?" During these discussions, demands were identified and controls were brainstormed. On many occasions, just the ability to name the demand and its source was highly valued by the participants. Many interpreters realized how often demands came from the intrapersonal category (stemming from something relevant only to the interpreter herself) and how often intrapersonal demands are misattributed to demand categories that pertain to the consumers. Correctly differentiating what is or is not an intrapersonal demand became a powerful control for many.

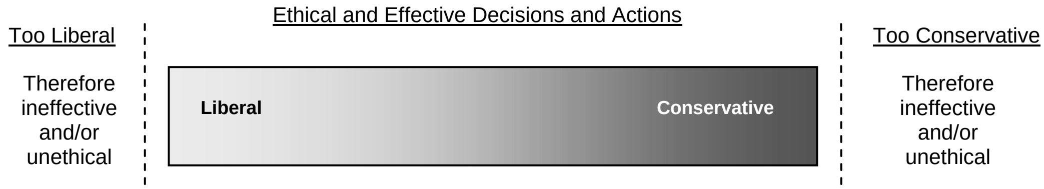
Sometimes, the acquisition of content information during observations or supervision was a sufficient control for meeting a demand that was being discussed. The most difficult challenges (demands) were ones that pertained to ethical decisions. In these supervision sessions (as in most D-C schema dialogues), a wide array of control options first were brainstormed, focusing on all the controls that might be possible, not which were better or worse. Subsequently, the group analyzed these control options for their positive and negative consequences. It was routinely noted that all control options potentially have some negative consequence, but that did not necessarily mean it was a poor choice and should be abandoned. Sometimes, it meant that augmenting the control option slightly or employing it and then responding to the resulting consequence (demand) with a new control was most desirable. At other times, the group would determine that the negative consequences (resulting demands) were undesirable, ineffective, or ethically questionable, <u>especially in light of the goal of the environment or the goal of the mental health professional</u>.

For example, in some therapeutic situations, expressing empathy for a patient is beneficial whereas in other situations expressing empathy can exacerbate the problem. Consider a patient who is addicted to drugs or alcohol and is being evaluated for admission to a treatment program. The patient is presenting as agitated, upset, and "in crisis." Some patients like this try to pull the clinician into their “crisis” (and minimize their addiction) by attempting to elicit an empathetic or shock response from the clinician. Instead, clinicians respond to such patients in a “matter of fact” way. The goal of this non-emotive approach is to diffuse the patient's agitated mood and convey that the patient's information is not shocking in light of the nature of addiction itself.

An interpreter who is not familiar with this therapeutic approach might be confused or put off by the therapist's seemingly cold reaction and attempt to counterbalance it by using facial cues, body language, or even specific translation choices that communicate empathy. Sometimes this is an unconscious reaction of the interpreter. Sometimes it is purposeful, when the interpreter assumes the clinician is unfamiliar with deaf people and not aware that deaf patients may need a more demonstrative expression of emotion, etc. In supervision sessions, the importance of understanding and working in concert with the goal of the environment and the goal of the clinician was repeatedly stressed. One group concluded that if an interpreter felt she could not work in support of the treatment goal, then the optimal, ethical decision was to tell the clinician this and possibly withdraw from the assignment.

Dean and Pollard (in press) state, "Ethical decision making in the practice professions must include consideration of the impact of the professional's decisions and actions on the consumer as well as other matters such as the concordance between the professional's decisions and actions with the principles and standards of practice in that profession. Figure 1 depicts our view of the relationship between ethics and work effectiveness in a practice profession such as interpreting. In the center of the figure, a range of ethical decisions and actions is depicted which includes those that are more liberal (i.e., active, creative, or assertive) to those that are more conservative (i.e., reserved or cautious). In this central range between the dotted lines any decision or action – from liberal to conservative – may be effective and ethical depending on the circumstances of the situation. Which decisions or actions within this range are *optimally* effective would be a matter of professional debate or perhaps interpersonal consumer or interpreter variation. Practice professionals commonly discuss liberal vs. conservative approaches to their work, be it medical care, law enforcement, financial investment or other topics. Neither end of this ethical and effective range of professional judgment and behavior is inherently better or worse, nor is the median necessarily optimal."

Figure 1. A practice-profession model of ethical decision-making



During supervision sessions, interpreter participants learned how to look at their own and others decisions (control options) in this manner. Many interpreters commented on how much they benefited from learning other's control ideas for job demands, especially when their own decisions tended to be constrained within a small area of the liberal to conservative spectrum shown in Figure 1. Many also commented on how this approach increased their professional respect for their colleagues, not only the others in the supervision sessions but colleagues outside of the project as well. This perspective on ethical and effective decision making was particularly beneficial when individuals or conversations began to bog down in "black and white," "I wouldn't do it that way" discussions of behavioral or translation decisions.

Balancing Judgment Skills and Content Knowledge

Throughout these supervision sessions, mental health content information also was taught, but unlike most didactic forms of teaching, it was interspersed throughout the discussions of observations and demand-control analyses, when such content topics arose naturally. One of the research questions we are investigating is whether imparting content information via this PBL approach is more or less effective for learning and retention than didactic teaching approaches. As noted earlier, the main similarity between the Rochester and Minneapolis trainings (and NYC and San Francisco) is not the curriculum employed nor the mental health content addressed but the process of the learning experience. While the site supervisors are monitoring supervision discussions so that they (eventually) impart the important content we agreed upon in the August, 2003, meeting, the goal of this project is not to standardize topical discussions, but instead to standardize the process of the training.

Interpreter trainers who are used to didactic-style teaching may find this process-oriented teaching approach challenging at first. Yet, based on the experience of the site supervisors in this project and others who have been trained to employ PBL-style methods in the classroom, the experience is energizing. Many say this type of exploratory, contextualized, dialogic information exchange benefits both teacher and learner; learning is bi-directional in such sessions.

Preliminary Results

Unlike the students in the FIPSE project, the working interpreters in the NIDRR project were able to comment on this unique style of specialty training in direct comparison to other types of specialty training. They also were able to compare the types of dialogues about interpreting work they had with their colleagues in the project with the types of dialogues that normally occur between interpreters about the complex work of translation. In response to ten open-ended questions on the final evaluation, the following themes appeared more than five times among both the Rochester and Minneapolis Project participants.

This type of training:

- allowed me to attend to the complete picture of what I was observing, including my feelings and reactions to the people and the dynamics and how these were impacting me. I was not otherwise attending to my own interpreting work or the work of other interpreters
- was more effective than other types of training because seeing something first-hand is a much better learning environment than hearing about something in a classroom
- allowed me to employ what I was learning immediately within my interpreting work
- was beneficial because it allowed me to talk with my colleagues, share my experiences, and control ideas and to learn about theirs
- was beneficial because it allowed me to learn how to use the demand-control schema
- caused me to be more analytical or critically-minded about my interpreting work
- encouraged me to consider the consequences of my decisions
- helped to create a sense of objectivity when thinking about, discussing, or analyzing interpreting work
- allowed me to develop a connection and new respect for my colleagues in and out of the training

The 17 individuals who completed the training in Rochester and Minneapolis responded to the following evaluation questions, designed to elicit objective, quantifiable feedback:

A. The observation-supervision approach to interpreter training in general was ______________ than other interpreter trainings/workshops that I have been involved in.

1. A lot less effective
2. Less effective
3. At the same level of effectiveness
4. More effective
5. A lot more effective

Average answer: 4.6 out of 5.0

B. The observation-supervision approach to <u>mental health training</u> was ______________ than other <u>mental health trainings/workshops</u> that I have been involved in.

1. A lot less effective
2. Less effective
3. At the same level of effectiveness
4. More effective
5. A lot more effective

Average answer: 4.6 out of 5.0

C. The observation-supervision training ___________ how I approach and perform my interpreting work in a general way.

1. Has not at all impacted
2. Somewhat impacted
3. Impacted
4. Greatly impacted

Average answer: 3.5 out of 4.0

D. The observation-supervision training __________ how I approach and perform my interpreting work in mental health settings.

1. Has not at all impacted
2. Somewhat impacted
3. Impacted
4. Greatly impacted

Average answer: 3.8 out of 4.0

Demographics and Pre-test/Post-test Results

While the written evaluation comments from the Rochester and Minneapolis projects showed striking similarities, the results of the pre-/post-test show a divergence between project sites. The pre-test results of mental health content knowledge were quite similar (45% and 41%) but the post-test gains in Rochester were almost twice those of Minneapolis.

	Rochester Project	**Minneapolis Project**
Average Years of Experience	8.1 years	7.6 years
Average hours of MH work	5 hours a month	8 hours a month
Average Pre-Test Grade	45%	41%
Average Post-Test Grade	79%	59%
Number of test points gained	34 points	18 points

As shown in the table, there was not a great difference in the average years of experience between the two project cohorts. The Minneapolis cohort averaged three hours more mental health work per month than the Rochester cohort, but this did not manifest in pre-test score differences. The post-test differences were marked, with the Rochester cohort scoring 20 points higher than the Minneapolis cohort. One possible reason was the differing schedule of observation and supervision sessions in Rochester and Minneapolis. The Rochester participants experienced five supervision sessions over three months. The Minneapolis participants also experienced five supervision sessions, but they were spread out over five months. Another distinction between the sites was the size of the training group. As noted above, the Rochester cohort was forced to divide into two approximately equal sized groups (4 or 5 participants weekly) whereas the Minneapolis supervision sessions had eight to ten participants. The smaller group size in Rochester may have facilitated greater content learning. Finally, the Rochester sessions were led by Dean, who developed the D-C schema and observation-supervision. Her experience with these teaching methods is greater than that of the other three site supervisors. The forthcoming project data from the NYC and San Francisco training sites will shed further light on possible outcome differences.

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Peer Mentoring: What is THAT?

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Abstract

For the interpreting profession, mentoring has traditionally looked much like an apprenticeship: a master practitioner dispenses knowledge to a novice in order to mold them into an effective professional. The structure was mentor-focused and the novice was seen as the primary beneficiary. This paradigm is highly effective in regions of the country where there is a critical mass of mentors and of mentees who share similar educational backgrounds and professional parlance. However, interpreter educators are often faced with a much different reality. Practitioners seeking professional growth can, as a group, represent the widest possible spectrum of professional skills, ethnic/cultural backgrounds, work experience, and progress in the credentialing process. The Peer Mentoring Model (PMM) was designed in an effort to address the diverse needs of such a population. The goal was to support individual skill and career development, as well as to create a community of learning that could be utilized for continued professional evolution. This paper will describe the program template designed to support these goals, as well as outline the seven guiding principles of the PMM.

Introduction

In Western culture, a typical mentoring relationship has an assumed hierarchy. There is the mentor: one who brings recognized expertise and experience, and the mentee: one who is seeking that knowledge. These roles are not seen as interchangeable, and are expected to remain clearly distinct. This duality is prevalent in our educational system, which is one that clearly defines right/wrong, pass/fail, known/unknown. The assumption is that mentees will achieve a definable and overt benefit, whereas any growth or wisdom that is achieved on the part of the mentor is incidental. When mentors operating under this paradigm wish to focus on their own skill enhancement, they will typically turn to someone designated as more knowledgeable or more experienced as their source of assistance. In areas of the country where there are sufficient numbers of trained professionals representing the full spectrum of experience and background, this approach can be highly effective. Personal and professional growth can occur and the hierarchy is successfully perpetuated. However, if a mentor does not have such a resource to turn to, the existing mentoring relationship maintains a "one-way" dynamic, the eventual result often being burnout or exhaustion on the part of the mentor. In this case one hears "I have given enough."

Another dilemma presents itself when there are those who do not see themselves as experts. Again, if those being asked to do the mentoring do not have their own mentor, they may experience the onus of responsibility to "know". To "not know" then is to fall short of the role of mentor. Thus the often heard refrain "Me, a mentor? No, no, I want to be a mentee!" It is far less daunting to be the one with the questions seeking answers, than to be the one expected to provide the guidance and support.

It is this exact scenario that gave rise to the creation of the Peer Mentoring Model (PMM). A group of practitioners were asking for mentoring. None were willing to self-define as mentors. How would one resolve this dilemma? What structure could be provided to support their professional growth? And, were there really no mentors out there?

The coordinators faced with this conundrum came to the project from a philosophical framework that asserts that every person has expertise and a means to make a contribution. If this is a given, then one who is a mentee can, in turn, *provide* mentoring. Within the PMM, practitioners have the capacity and skills to take on either role with any given colleague, depending on the requirements of the interaction at hand.

The challenge then is to create philosophical agreement on the part of the program participants. The solution to this challenge arrived at by the authors is two-fold: a programmatic template and a series of guiding principles. The template provides a structure by which techniques, tools, and strategies scaffold emerging competencies. The guiding principles create an environment in which participants can explore personal and professional areas of expertise and define areas needing enhancement without embarrassment or apology. This combination resulted in the hoped-for paradigm shift as well as concrete measurable results.

The PMM was developed from the coordinators' wide variety of training and experiences; and the model was formalized as “peer mentorship” under the Peer Mentoring Program (PMP), an offering of the Southeast Mentorship Project in Massachusetts. The template shared below is one that can be amended or customized to accommodate specific demographics. For the PMP, choices were made based on distances the participants needed to travel, options for meeting places and times, equipment available, etc.

Program Description and Template

Thus far, there have been two cycles of the PMP, the first during the fall of 2003, and the second during the spring of 2004. Each cycle extended over a period of ten weeks. Participants were required to be working interpreters and to attend all of the workshops in the cycle. Priority was given to interpreters living in the Southeastern portion of Massachusetts, but others were welcome to apply. There were seven registrants for cycle one, six of whom returned for cycle 2. There were seven new participants for cycle 2, for a total of 13. The participants’ length of service ranged from 1 – 23 years, and from those certified by RID/NAD to those not-yet credentialed. The age range was 21 – 55 years. Educational levels achieved extended from high school diploma to bachelor’s degrees in interpreting. All participants to this point have been female.

Under the PMP, participants worked in a series of dyads in 2-week rotations. Each pair was expected to work together for a minimum of 3 hours per week. The form that the weekly meetings took was determined by a given dyad, and typically focused on one or more of the following: practice of tools taught in the workshops, skill enhancement activities, ethical decision-making exercises and discussion, and videotape analysis. Meetings occurred via telephone, face-to-face, by instant messenger, or by web cam. From the journals, the coordinators discovered that on average, participants actually met four to six hours per week. In addition, they actively sought out assignments where they could work as a team and then meet afterwards to discuss their work.

Participants submitted evaluation forms assessing programmatic components twice during the 10-week period, at the end of the third and fifth workshops. The coordinators reviewed these, and feedback was integrated for subsequent workshops and cycles. A major portion of the initial workshop in each cycle was spent eliciting participants' goals for the cycle. Equal attention was given during the final workshop to creating individual action plans and program modifications for the next round.

Throughout the cycle, five workshops were held. The workshops were timed to coincide with partner rotation. These events provided opportunities for group dialogue, presentation of various tools for mentoring, and practice using those tools.

A structure for these workshops emerged over the first cycle. Each new tool or approach was first presented in detail, with accompanying visual aids. Application of the tool/approach was then modeled (by the coordinators or returning first cycle participants), and then an activity designed to provide practice with the new tool. The objective of this configuration was to present the material in as many modalities as possible, in order to satisfy a wide range of learning styles. The expectation was that participants would try out the new tools with their partner for the coming two weeks.

Examples of the tools presented include, but are not limited to, the Demand-Control Schema by Robert Pollard and Robyn Dean, a review of the Colonomos model of interpreting (1992) and of process dialogue, Sandra Gish's "Goal to Detail" approach to text analysis (1996), and mind-mapping.

The workshops provided opportunities for discrete skill development and identification of specific strategies for effective independent analysis of participants' interpreting work. Participants developed a consistent approach to talking about the work that was objective, constructive, and action-oriented. Less obvious, but equally important, was the development of a community of learning that provided a foundation for ongoing professional development. This community fostered mastery of the seven guiding principles, which then could be utilized for the rest of the participants' professional careers.

An additional requirement was submission of weekly journals submitted to the coordinators of the program. Participants were asked to reflect upon their experiences working in the mentoring pairs, to identify what they gleaned from the experience, to report the hours spent in their dyads, and to describe the activities/strategies employed. A coordinator responded to questions and concerns and provided feedback or support as needed; this was done primarily via email. During the second cycle, a listserv was set up for participants to share ideas, questions, requests for consultation, and resources. This encouraged greater reliance on other participants and less on the coordinators.

A total of 4.5 RID CEUs or ACET credits could be earned. Credits were awarded when participants demonstrated successful completion of each cycle. Successful completion was defined as: all contact hours satisfied and documented, required meetings attended, and journals/evaluation materials submitted. During the first workshop, participants signed contracts confirming these expectations.

It is important to note that the authors' training was firmly grounded in a Vygotskian approach to mentoring – including a heavy emphasis on pattern identification. Using this frame, the authors spent a great deal of time reviewing the workshop interactions, videotapes of the participant dialogues, and evaluations to identify the required elements of successful interactions. The principles that follow are those that have been identified to this point. Although the principles are distinct from one another, they are interrelated and pivotal to the successful application of the PMM. These principles apply across the full spectrum of people involved in the mentoring process. From the neophyte to the veteran interpreter and the coordinators, the principles are at work in every interaction – whether they occur in one-to-one or group environments.

In the discussion of the principles below, quotations taken from participant journals and evaluations are used to illustrate actual application.

Seven Guiding Principles

1) Permission

In order to create an environment where participants are receptive to authentic assessment of their work and skill level, permission must have been granted. The prerequisite for effective dialogue is invariably being asked, or asking for, permission to initiate the mentored interaction.

When permission is overtly sought and granted, mentees experience a sense of control of the interaction, and parameters for the conversation are agreed upon. This process also establishes the focus on the mentee and his or her needs, and is an explicit recognition of their ability to assess their own work. In theory, this is the simplest principle to master. In reality, it can be challenging to relinquish the standard view that the mentor determines the agenda.

Once permission had been granted and the mentee understood that he or she would be setting the agenda, an interesting incidental benefit came to light. Those participants that were asked to play the role of mentor no longer worried about a perceived need to provide “answers”. Instead, their role was to listen. The participants who had been resistant to referring to themselves as mentors heaved a collective sigh of relief when it became apparent that they did not have to provide either diagnosis of the mentees’ work or potential solutions. Ultimately, they were listening to identify patterns and to collaborate on potential strategies for improvement. This is in contrast to the more typical “let me give you some feedback” approach.

Here the participant's comment reflects how as mentor she asks permission to probe further:

> Participant A - "I asked her some questions about the work and her fear of videotaping in general and she made some discoveries herself. When you really listen, the questions come a bit easier. A few times I had agenda questions and marked them and asked permission to say them, and then did. I am getting there!”

2) One Hundred Percent Accountability

The participants were told “You are one hundred percent accountable for your lives." The reaction was complete confusion. Later, they could say that this was the one principle that was the most revolutionary and “rocked their world”. Accountability is frequently associated with blame or fault. In this way, it is conflated with responsibility. The concept of accountability in the PMM was defined as a medium for making clear and conscious choices. In explanations of unsuccessful jobs or interpretations, practitioners often make statements such as: “The Deaf person signed too fast” or “My team wasn’t supportive”. These determinations, although sometimes accurate, leave the practitioner with no power to effect change in the situation and do not reflect accountability.

Being “one hundred percent accountable” allowed participants to look further for solutions. This frame encouraged participants to develop an additional aspect of their internal monitor, which attended to questions such as “What has been my part in creating this situation? What can I do to impact this situation? What can I do to make a difference here?" But perhaps more importantly, “Do I want to make a difference, or is this more than I want to take on today?” And if the answer is "Yes, it is more than I want to take on," one can make that decision without self-recrimination.

An additional benefit of operating from this framework comes about with moments of success. By once again asking, “What has been my part in creating this situation?” one has the opportunity to recognize personal strengths and effective strategies and is therefore better able to retrieve such approaches for future application.

Here several participants talk about how the concept of accountability applied to their thoughts and actions.

> Participant B: "I have re-focused my own perseverance towards my individual goal. Your expectation and planning that ‘WE’ are accountable scared me at first. To be truthful, I thought this workshop would take me where I wanted to go. Now I realize with my peer mentors, and our relationships, together we will direct each other. WHEW!"

> Participant A: "I am still looking into the whys of my choice to be offended and realize that it has so much more to do with me than with her."

> Participant C: "She is also very good at challenging me to step outside the comfort zone. I was procrastinating signing up for a date for the CI. After talking with X, I realized that I was just making excuses. I decided to go ahead and do it and then I would be forced to make the time to practice."

3) Listening

The operational definition of "listening" in the PMM was one that invited participants to engage in dialogue without manufacturing conclusions or imposing a predetermined agenda. This required that the listener acknowledge the existence of the agenda and conclusions in order to repeatedly set these aside and return to a state of objectivity. This sounds easier than it is in reality. The designated mentor is the one working to maintain this objectivity. However, there are specific means to assist with this objective. Familiar techniques such as paraphrasing, reflective listening, and clarifying questions allow the mentor to work with the mentee in distinguishing and defining the issue at hand. Listening at this level will also be the vehicle for pattern identification. Patterns identified through the mentee's discourse do not only focus on areas that could use improvement, but also those that reflect success and effectiveness. The following quotes are evidence of participants' management of the agenda.

> Participant D: "They [ed: the coordinators] always make me feel at ease. I feel free to contribute without any worries of negative repercussions. This is valuable to me."

> Participant A: "I also got slapped in the face as to how judgmental I can still be. I saw HER as judgmental, and holier than thou…Then you team me with her first thing! But we had an incredible conversation: honest, open, vulnerable. It was beyond any hopes I ever had. She made ME feel comfortable. She was so opposite all those judgments I had of her…I realized she is nothing like my preconceptions."

> Participant D: "But, since my agenda was put aside as we worked through the process, X was able to find what was valuable to her, whether it seemed valuable to me or not was regardless. That was a valuable lesson for me, maybe an 'Aha!' moment."

4) Authenticity

Participants in the PMP were asked to look at their work, or work-related situations and relationships, based on facts. Instead of focusing on the emotional experience, they were encouraged to describe exactly what transpired. The resulting description was more objective and reality based, and therefore more accurate and authentic.

Applying authenticity proves to be a particular challenge when describing the strengths that one brings. The typical focus on what is missing, as opposed to what is present, creates a vicious cycle. If interpreters can only see what they have *not* provided in a given interpretation, then how can they identify the strengths that will assist them in improving skill sets or maximizing their contribution?

All-encompassing statements such as: "I can't fingerspell", or "That job was terrible", or "I don't understand him/her" are often what dominate the dialogue. These determinations actually become a barrier to improving the skills that need enhancement. And, it leaves the mentor and mentee without alternatives - except one – to challenge the absolutes. For example, "You can NEVER fingerspell clearly?" or "You NEVER understand him?" In turn, the mentee is afforded the opportunity to be authentic about when his or her work actually is effective. The remainder of the conversation then can move to what inhibited effectiveness in the situation under discussion. This more objective representation of the difficulty is in itself, more authentic. At this point it is possible to generate potential strategies or techniques with the goal of improved success, the fodder for this being the mentee's equally legitimate identification of strengths.

> Participant D: "I was taken aback by how much I have to offer. I honestly thought I would come into this situation and mooch as much as I could from my partners. Little did I know what I had inside."

> Participant F: "X asked if I felt the whole job was a failure. Initially, I thought yes. Upon further reflection, I realized that my interpreting was not completely horrible. I had some effective moments. X asked me to recount those moments, and it wasn't that difficult."

5) Walk the Walk

The most effective mentor is one who is equally comfortable in the seat of the mentee. This individual sees potential and value in everyone around her or him from a recent ITP graduate to a nationally renowned interpreter educator. There is assumed potential reciprocity and mutuality in all relationships. There is then no need to prove oneself, or to ask proof of expertise from the other. Rather there is simply the opportunity to share and exchange wisdom and experience between peers.

Coordinators/instructors of mentoring programs must being willing to actually demonstrate this to participants. They must “walk the walk”. In the PMP, one coordinator committed to the same contract requirements as the participants, including being actively mentored throughout the process. This was overtly stated to the group. To bring this into reality, the coordinator participated in mentored dialogues during workshop sessions, initially with her fellow instructor. In these “fishbowl demonstrations”, the coordinators alternated roles as mentor and mentee. As participants gained comfort with the dialogue process, this same coordinator invited them to sit in the mentor’s seat with her as the mentee. This participant, having recently sat in the mentor's chair with a peer with many more years of work experience stated:

> Participant D: "I have really learned so much about myself, my motivations, my interpreting, my conversational style, how much I have to offer, and more. This has been truly rewarding, especially realizing that although I am new in the field, I can make contributions. Thanks for putting me with these great people and helping me to get there!"

6) Shared Context

This concept takes two forms: understanding and experience. The first is concrete shared knowledge that creates a way of discussing the work using a common language.

The second is that of the shared experience that comes from participating in the type of mentoring dialogues and program as described in this paper. Shared experience creates a sense of bonding and sense of group or “team”, in contrast to the notion of separate individuals exposed to similar material. This principle is key to fostering the concept of a community of learners and of a group of colleagues that continue to support each other and their work well after their participation in a program is complete. Like childhood friends, their support is present whether one sees them everyday or sends an urgent email once a year. Shared context is built over time, as is demonstrated in the comment below.

> Participant C: "The nicest surprise so far with being partnered up with X is that I have discovered that we are very similar in our beliefs about interpreting and working with other people. She is a very genuine person who always tries to see the positive parts of people. One of my biggest personal goals is to (what someone put so nicely in the workshop) 'see what is there in a person and not what is missing’."

7) Separation of Self from Work

The ability to distinguish who we are as a people from the product of our labors is essential to authentic assessment of our work. This separation allows the “I” to become “it”. We can change what we do. We cannot so easily change who we are. “It” is a “thing” that can be manipulated and therefore improved or refined. The statement “I did a bad job” is personal. “It didn’t work” is a relatively neutral description of an impersonal situation.

So long as there is no separation of the person from the interpretation, there can be no clarity around specific skill areas that may be addressed. The judgment of our work is pervasive, and discrete skills hard to identify. When the personal is removed (or held in abeyance), we are able to identify specific discrete areas that warrant greater attention.

Although it may take a lifetime to master this principle, there are unlimited possible benefits in the effort. They may include an increased ability to forgive one’s own and other’s imperfections, to focus on successes and maximize the stratagem utilized, to remove both blame and assumed intent, and to discern patterns for more effective skill enhancement.

These two participants provide succinct descriptions of their experience of separation.

> Participant E: "…but the point of my work and myself as two very distantly separate aspects of who I am as a person…and it is ok if at times my interpreting doesn't work or if I am at the receiving end of negative report about my interpreting…I need to look at the whole picture and figure out the best way to solve the situation."

> Participant G: "I have learned to analyze those not so optimal moments in an objective, non-criticizing manner, find patterns and learn from them."

The following qualitative data is a list of participant accomplishments that they attributed directly to their exposure to the PMM.

Credentials

State Quality Assurance Examination

- 1 participant completed the application process.
- 1 participant passed the interview portion.
- 1 participant has passed the performance portion.

National Certification

- 1 participant made the appointment to upgrade her certification from CSC to CI/CT.
- 2 participants registered for the RID performance exam.
- 3 participants passed the RID performance CI.

Education

- 1 participant decided to pursue a college degree, and is applying to local programs.
- 1 participant has continued to actively pursue a bachelor's degree in education.

Career

- 1 participant has become a staff interpreter at a university.
- 3 participants presented at National RID Convention Chicago.
- 1 participant moderated a panel discussion for the MA Medical Interpreters Assoc.

- 4 participants were selected to work as part of the team for a variety of conferences such as: 2002 Deaf Way II (DeafBlind team), Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Convention- Chicago, and the National Alliance of Black Interpreters Conference (NAOBI)
- 1 participant was featured as an interpreter on a major nationally broadcast television program (2004).

Conclusion

Across the country, interpreter educators are faced with providing support and mentoring for a widely varied spectrum of practitioners. The designers of the PMM have identified a set of guiding principles, that used in tandem with a formalized structure, have been effective at meeting a wide range of needs for professional development. The foundational philosophy is that everyone has a contribution to make regardless of their years in the field, typical work environments, or means of entry to the field. When accepted and internalized by participant practitioners, this philosophy has proven to provide a framework that can be employed well after they have completed the formal program. They leave with the means to assess their work objectively, to dialogue for improvement one-to-one or in groups, and to view themselves and others as professionals deserving of their respect and consideration.

Clearly the desire for like outcomes is not exclusive to the ASL/Spoken English interpreters. The designers of the PMM have been approached by Certified Deaf Interpreters, spoken language interpreters, and agencies with staff interpreters requesting the application of the model in a program designed to suit their respective requirements. The authors look forward to the challenge of continuing to refine, and adapt the PMM for its use in ever widening arenas of professionals.

About the Authors:

Wendy W. Watson, BS, CI/CT, Master Mentor, and Director, Southeast Mentorship Project, is a full-time freelance interpreter. A graduate of the Project TIEM Master Mentor Program, Wendy is the co-developer of the PMM. Wendy feels very fortunate to have worked and been trained at Northeastern University, and to have had the mentorship of some of the most talented leaders in our field: Dennis Cokely, Cathy Cogen, Robert Lee, Marina McIntire, and Laurie Shaffer. Wendy is currently an adjunct faculty member at NU, and a grateful, perpetual mentee!

Laurie Shaffer, MS, CI/CT, is coordinator of Services for the D/deaf and Hard of Hearing at Boston University, and Director of the Boston University Center for Interpreter Education. As a founding member of the Conference Interpreter Mentoring Project, consultant to the Southeast Mentorship Project, and co-developer of the Peer Mentor Model, Laurie has fostered team-building, cross-cultural awareness, and collegial respect, creating positive change for the field, for her fellow professionals and for herself. Daily she is grateful for the opportunities for growth, learning and contribution that those around her provide.

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Author's Note

The foundation of this work derived from:

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Class with instructor Betty Colonomos in Boston, MA, September-May 1997. Additionally, both authors have participated in workshops with the above-mentioned presenters at various conferences and events since 1990.

Using Discourse Completion Tests in Cross-linguistic Studies

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Abstract

Given that interpretation and interpreter education deal with at least two distinct languages, the benefit of cross-linguistic studies for interpreters and interpreter educators is obvious. However, how these types of studies can best be conducted is not as apparent. This paper discusses one particular type of stimulus -- a discourse completion test -- that can be used in cross-linguistic studies to elicit the linguistic intuitions of native language users. The paper briefly describes discourse completion tests and argues that the development of comparable stimulus materials in each language, or language variety, being investigated is key to collecting accurate data and to avoiding misinterpretation of the data. The paper concludes by identifying three areas that require special consideration in the development of such cross-linguistic studies to avoid potential problems: 1) ensuring cross-linguistic equivalence of the stimulus instrument, 2) administering the discourse completion test to elicit linguistic data, and 3) analysis of the data.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to elaborate on a process by which specific kinds of linguistic comparisons can be made between two or more language communities. The field of American Sign Language (ASL)/English interpretation has long held that it is at least a bilingual/bicultural field (see especially McIntire 1986) or, more aptly, a multilingual/multicultural field (see Lewis n.d.). While interpreting process models highlight how interpreters manage cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences (see, e.g., Cokely 1992, Colonomos 1992, and Stewart, Schein, & Cartwright 1998), little empirical research has been conducted on specific areas of cross-linguistic comparisons, e.g., how each language community makes an apology or makes a persuasive argument.

This paper describes steps that can be made to ensure a valid stimulus for such a comparative linguistic study based on a study that investigated how native ASL signers and native English speakers make requests and rejections (Hoza 2001). This paper identifies and discusses possible remedies for three areas that can present potential problems in the development of cross-linguistic studies of this kind.

Currently, much of the comparisons of ASL and English in the literature use anecdotal evidence when making claims about the language use of these two language communities. One of the goals of this paper is to describe an empirical approach to cross-linguistic study that can be used to either verify or repudiate such claims. The approach discussed in this paper provides a means by which language samples are elicited from members of two distinct language communities based on a common area of investigation. The resulting linguistic data can then be evaluated for patterns regarding form, function, and distribution.

Form refers to what can physically be observed, e.g., words, phrases, sentences, non-manual behaviors (in signed languages), and prosody. *Function* refers to the meaning associated with a form, or the speaker's intent behind the form. *Distribution* refers to the circumstances in which the form appears or with what frequency it appears (Lado, 1986). For example, we can take the form, "Excuse me" in English, and identify its function as a polite way of apologizing before or after an imposition, and identify when it is used by a community. We can also take the form, "Excuse me!" which is said sarcastically, and identify its function and distribution, which all differ from that of "Excuse me." Although the expressions in these two examples are composed of the same words, they differ in their form and function, as well as in their distribution.

Comparing different languages in terms of form, function, and distribution is not an easy task. Language is a rule-based system used in human interaction, and it is multi-leveled and context-dependent. Cultural differences and assumptions vary greatly from language community to language community, so finding a common point of comparison can be a challenge.

This paper describes one particular approach to comparative language study, a discourse completion test, which can be used to study language use between two language groups. The paper highlights 1) special considerations in developing such an instrument, 2) considerations in administering the instrument, and 3) steps to ensure proper interpretation of the data. The paper also briefly highlights some of the findings of a comparative linguistic study conducted by the author, but the bulk of this paper is dedicated to the elaboration of a research design that can be used for cross-linguistic comparison.

Cross-linguistic comparisons

Languages, as rule-based systems, may be analyzed on a variety of levels, any of which is a possible area of research: phonology, morphology, syntax, pragmatics, semantics, discourse, and sociolinguistics. The research approach proposed in this paper can best be used to explore the areas of discourse, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics, although it may be used to explore other areas of language as well, as long as the discourse stimuli would elicit the desired language samples.

Discourse completion tests (DCTs) were initially designed to allow researchers to explore cross-linguistic forms associated with speech acts such as requests and apologies (see, e.g., Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, Weizman, 1989, and Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999), rejections (see, e.g., Turnbull & Saxton, 1997), and corrections (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993) for a variety of languages and language varieties. I have also used an ASL version and English version of a DCT to investigate how requests and rejections were mitigated in ASL and English (Hoza, 2001), as I discuss briefly below.

The use of DCTs provide opportunities for the exploration of linguistic features within a single language, as well as across languages. The subfields of discourse, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics, in particular, provide a wide range of possible research areas. These include, e.g., such topics as speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, and conversational implicature, as well as language variation across language varieties and register variation in certain contexts.

When a researcher wants to compare languages, the researcher has at least two types of linguistic data that can be used. Studies may employ *naturalistic data*, such as video recordings of live language samples, or may employ *elicited data*, which result from asking subjects to answer certain questions or to respond to specific discourse contexts. Each of these types of linguistic data has its own advantages and limitations.

Naturalistic linguistic data ideally represent how a person uses language in a spontaneous manner; however, it has been suggested that knowing one is being observed does have an effect on the person's use of language (Labov, 1972). While naturalistic data is a good source of linguistic data, there are also some limitations of naturalistic data in cross-linguistic studies due to differences in real-life situations across cultures. It is important to consider the participants and the purpose of the language use, as well as other contextual factors in one's data selection and analysis. Of utmost importance is how the discourse events are being perceived by native language users; the situations need to be considered equivalent for both language groups being studied.

Elicited linguistic data has the advantage of providing a consistent stimulus for language sample collection, in that the stimulus material can be designed to elicit specific aspects of language use. However, one major drawback of elicited linguistic data is that the researcher is depending on self-reporting on the subjects' part. Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999), who studied requests in Japanese and English, argue that DCT results are prototypical in nature. That is to say, elicited linguistic data is useful for identifying key linguistic features in cross-linguistic studies, but such findings need to be further explored by looking at naturally-occurring linguistic data.

Cross-linguistic DCT studies require special efforts to ensure that the stimulus material will be interpreted by each language group in a similar way. This issue is clearer when the feature is already well-known to be different between the two language communities. For example, authors have suggested that comments -- especially criticisms -- about a person's physical appearance (e.g., weight gain or a new hair style) in ASL and English differ. English speakers tend to dance around such comments; whereas, ASL signers tend to make such comments more directly (see Mindess & Holcomb, 2001; Roush 1999; and Lane, Hoffmeister, & Bahan, 1996). If a researcher were to compare criticisms in these two languages without considering this difference, it could throw off the research. Other areas of cultural difference may be less known or more subtle. Key for both naturalistic and elicited data is to be sure to investigate comparable linguistic contexts and similar subjects. In either case, both of these must be similar enough to provide a valid comparison. In the case of elicited data, the development of the stimulus itself is of utmost importance.

The goal of the study I conducted with native ASL signers and English speakers was to determine what linguistic strategies these language users employ in making requests and rejections (see Hoza, 2001). While it has often been stated that ASL signers and English speakers use quite different strategies in general, in that ASL signers are perceived as being more direct and English speakers as being more indirect (see, e.g., Mindess & Holcomb, 2001, and Lane, Hoffmeister, & Bahan 1996)[1], this study examined how members of each language community handled these particular speech acts. The DCT provided rich data for analysis and showed that these two groups both share strategies and have quite distinct strategies. (I will briefly review the findings below.)

Discourse completion tests

Researchers who wish to compare particular discourse features within different contexts may well opt to use a discourse completion test (DCT) of the kind developed by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) to investigate requests and apologies. This particular research device has great potential in elaborating how linguistic forms and strategies are used in specific linguistic contexts. A DCT can be used to elicit a language sample regarding how the speaker envisions himself or herself responding to a particular discourse context. In this way, the researcher can elicit intuitions about the language and explore unconscious principles that are at work in the speaker's use of language.

A discourse completion test (DCT) is designed to provide discourse contexts to which the subject is to respond. The following is an example of one such context (from Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p. 14):

[1] Note Roush (1999)takes exception to this characterization.

> *A student asks his roommate to clean up the kitchen the latter had left in a mess the night before.*

The purpose of the stimulus in this example is to elicit a response regarding a request in a specific discourse context. This stimulus is designed to focus on two potential variables which could affect the severity of the imposition (i.e., the request): social distance (in that the request is being made of a roommate as opposed to someone less known) and the power relationship (in this case, neither person would appear to be in a more powerful position in terms of social status). The DCT allows the researcher to investigate the effect of such variables.

I used an ASL version and an English version of a DCT to investigate two variables of a particular area of interactional sociolinguistics: the linguistic expression of politeness, using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness framework. The DCT specifically explored how requests and rejections were mitigated by ASL signers and English speakers.

Speakers of any language have various options when making requests, for instance. For example, an English speaker could say any of the following when asking someone to pass the salt:

> *Could you pass the salt?*
> *Hey, I need some salt over here.*
> *This needs a little salt.*
> *Pass me the salt.*

Which expression is used depends in large part on the participants and the social context, and such linguistic decisions clearly exist at the crossroads of linguistic form and social meaning.

In this study, I investigated two social variables that had an effect on the choice of linguistic form used in making requests and rejections. These were 1) *power*, i.e., the perceived power difference between the speaker and addressee: greater power/status, less power/status, or equal power/status, and 2) *ranking of imposition*, i.e., the degree of difficulty associated with making the request or rejection: easy or difficult (again, see Brown & Levinson, 1987).

In sum, the data from this study show that both ASL signers and English speakers use quite similar strategies in making requests and rejections when considering factors such as the degree of difficulty associated with the speech act and the relationship between the interlocutors. These strategies include, for example, hesitating, making the request or rejection directly (unmitigated) in some contexts or indirectly (mitigated) in others, offering solutions, and giving reasons.

Differences were noted in three areas. First, some strategies that are shared differ in their distribution, i.e., they are used at different times and to differing degrees. Second, each language group has unique language forms that are not shared by the other language, e.g., non-manual modifiers in ASL and calling the addressee by name in English. Third, the distribution of direct (unmitigated) and indirect (mitigated) requests and rejections differs in some respects between the two language groups. The data show that, contrary to what has been suggested in the literature, both direct and indirect strategies are used by ASL signers and English speakers. However, there are some contexts in which the English speakers made indirect requests, but the ASL signers did not, and some contexts in which the ASL signers made direct rejections, but the English speakers did not. This difference seems to reflect a cultural difference in the perceived relationship between interlocutors (the discourse contexts involved requests and rejections made between employee/supervisor, co-worker/co-worker, and supervisor/employee).

The development of the DCT in this study was a key component of the research design. It allowed me to not only elicit the desired linguistic data, but also to set the framework for analysis. However, there are a few areas that can create potential problems in conducting such cross-linguistic studies.

Three areas that require special consideration to avoid potential problems

Researchers may find that the DCT is an appropriate stimulus for the elicitation of data given their particular research questions. The DCT, as stated above, may be useful in the investigation of such linguistic levels as discourse, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics. If such discourse stimuli (i.e., DCTs or other such stimuli) are to be used, there are three areas in particular in cross-cultural research design that need special attention: 1) cross-linguistic equivalence of the stimulus instrument, 2) elicitation of the linguistic data, and 3) data analysis. Each is discussed in turn in this section.

First, ensuring cross-linguistic equivalence of the stimulus instrument is one of the most important aspects of research design for studies that seek to compare the linguistic features of two language communities. It is not enough to devise a stimulus or test instrument in one language and provide a translation of it in the other language. The translation may well elicit a different response due to cultural or linguistic differences. It is crucial to provide stimulus material that will be interpreted by each language group in a similar way.

As mentioned above, a researcher can never assume how a subject will respond to a discourse context. As a case in point, I tried to administer the ASL version of the DCT used in my study to a Deaf person who is fluent in two signed languages. I presented the stimulus material in ASL and the subject responded in the subject's native signed language. However, this subject stated during the elicitation that a couple of the discourse contexts would never happen in his native culture, e.g., one discourse context was to ask a co-worker out for lunch, which is (at least) a very middle class thing to do in the United States. This subject's reaction highlights the importance of carefully developing the discourse contexts for specific language users.

In the developmental stage of my study, I presented approximately 50 discourse contexts to both ASL signers and English speakers to rank according to the variables being investigated, and ended up with 12 useable contexts (Hoza, 2001). Subjects in the developmental stage were asked to rate the discourse contexts (requests and rejections) as easy, difficult, or in-between on a scale from 1 to 5. Only those contexts that were judged similarly by both language groups were used in the final version of the DCT, which was administered to the ASL signers and English speakers in the DCT study. This initial step in planning ensured that the subjects of the study would at least be judging the contexts in a similar way.

Second, the elicitation process in cross-linguistic studies also needs special consideration. Both the subjects and the person doing the elicitation need to be carefully selected. Subjects should be native users of the language or language variety, meaning that the language in question is their first language and they have spent their life among native language users. This is especially important for subjects who are ASL signers because of the diversity in language experience in the Deaf Community. Subjects, as always with such studies, should have similar backgrounds in terms of their education, socioeconomic status, race or ethnicity, and gender, as well as other features that are deemed relevant.

Ideally, the person who does the elicitation is fluent in the languages or language varieties that are being elicited. If this person is not fluent, the person's language use may affect the subjects' responses. In addition, when it comes to minority languages such as ASL, other characteristics of the investigator, such as this person's roles and statuses, may affect the subjects' responses as well. Neidle, Kegl, MacLaughlin, Bahan, and Lee (2000) discuss the impact of the researcher's role or status (e.g., a researcher with a Ph.D. and academic status) on the elicitation process.[2] The goal is to avoid code-switching or language contamination from the majority language. In sum, Neidle, et al., (2000) argue that for the elicitation of ASL subjects:

> A native (or near-native) signing researcher is best able to detect when some aspect of the data elicitation is going awry. It is thus extremely valuable to have a Deaf researcher involved in all aspects of the research, not only in the elicitation process itself, but also in the selection and evaluation of potential informants, and, of course, in the interpretation of the data… (p. 17)

I also suggest that the researcher 1) roleplay the situation with the subjects[3] and 2) ask the subjects to have in mind a particular native user of the language and imagine they are talking to this person, so they can visualize actually engaging in the discourse context using the language being elicited.

A crucial step is needed when two language versions of a DCT are being used to elicit linguistic data for cross-linguistic comparison purposes. It is not sufficient to develop a DCT and assume that individual subjects would rate the discourse contexts in the same way as those in the development stage (although it is expected subjects should be in the same range). So, if a rating is involved, as was the case in my study on the linguistic expression of politeness, it is advantageous at the beginning of the elicitation to have the subjects rate the discourse contexts, just as was done with the subjects in the developmental stage. By doing so, the researcher can check to see how particular subjects rate each discourse context and can then correctly interpret the subjects' utterances.

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[2] Baker-Shenk and Cokely (1980) propose a model that identifies four avenues to membership in the Deaf Community. These include the following: audiological, political, social, and linguistic. These four features should also be considered when determining who should do the elicitation.

[3] Although many DCTs in the literature are presented to subjects in written form, I am focusing on live DCT elicitations administered one-on-one by the researcher in the subject's native language. I focus only on live DCT elicitations because signed languages do not have a naturally-developed written form. I make no claims about the advantages and disadvantages of using written versus live DCT elicitations.

Third, how the data analysis is conducted needs to be carefully considered as well. Again, the involvement of researchers who are native (or near-native) language users is crucial, in that such researchers have life-long experience with the language and should be able to offer insights into the analysis of the data. This is important given that the goal is to compare the resulting forms, function, and distribution of language samples from at least two languages. Key to successful comparison of the languages is for the researchers to have an in-depth understanding of the linguistic features of each individual language relative to the research questions.

In addition, the importance of having subjects rate contexts during the elicitation process becomes evident at the data analysis stage. In my study, I was able to ascertain how all the subjects rated individual discourse contexts and this was critical in the analysis. Although most discourse contexts were rated similarly, there were two benefits to having the subjects rate the requests and rejections (as easy, difficult, or in between) for the analysis: 1) there was a clear common point of comparison, which provided for more accuracy in data collection and in interpretation of the data, and 2) some of the subjects volunteered some spontaneous examples to help clarify why they rated a context as they did, which made for a richer analysis and helped to clarify the functions of the strategies. Although my study was a qualitative study; as with other studies, the data may be examined by using either quantitative or qualitative analysis depending on the amount and nature of the data.

Conclusion

Cross-linguistic studies have the potential of providing great benefit to interpreters, interpreter educators, and others interested in language differences. This paper highlighted the difference between naturalistic and elicited linguistic data, and focused on a particular tool that can be used to elicit linguistic data: a discourse completion test. The paper discussed special considerations that need to be made in 1) the development of a discourse completion test that is to be used for comparative linguistic purposes, 2) the elicitation process in such studies, and 3) the analysis of DCT data. An important benefit of such studies is to provide a way for interpreters, interpreter educators, and others to move away from a dependence on anecdotal evidence for cross-linguistic comparisons.

About the Author

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Making Your Presentations Shine: Incorporating Digital Video in Your Teaching

Doug Bowen-Bailey and Patty Gordon

Abstract

This paper focuses on strategies for incorporating digital video into teaching practice. The emphasis of this process is on two software applications: QuickTime Pro and PowerPoint. The paper guides the reader through steps to play digital video in a variety of ways; to effectively quote ASL texts with still images and video clips; and then to incorporate these segments into learner-centered presentations.

Introduction

> The proper artistic response to digital technology is to embrace it as a new window on everything that's eternally human, and to use it with passion, wisdom, fearlessness and joy.
>
> Ralph Lombreglia
> *The Atlantic Online*

Interpreter education is in the midst of an explosion of new resources. Advances in technology have made video creation accessible to anyone with a digital video camera and computer. With all the resources available today, interpreter educators need to have the skills to pick and choose from the available wealth of resources in order to illustrate their points in the classroom or in workshops.

Digital movies and images can be incorporated into other documents as illustrations and examples, allowing us to accurately quote from an ASL text. In addition, digital video is also easily accessed and manipulated. As we teach, we want flexibility to respond to the learning needs of our students. Digital video can be quickly called upon to illustrate and expand on topic areas that arise from classroom dialogue.

A number of these resources have been created on CD-ROMs using the QuickTime format. QuickTime is easy to use and offers high quality video. In addition, many of the resources, particularly those produced with grant funding, allow educators the license to freely manipulate the resources to meaningfully include them in our presentations.

The digital revolution is upon us. As educators, it is our responsibility to see how digital video can enhance our teaching and benefit our students. This paper is designed to help you make that happen.

Focus of the Paper

Our focus is on developing skills with two software applications: QuickTime Pro by Apple Computer and PowerPoint by Microsoft. Our goal is to guide you to do simple editing of digital video files and to incorporate them into presentations. The decision to emphasize these two programs does not necessarily represent an endorsement of either of them. Rather, both QuickTime and PowerPoint are recognized industry standards and work on both Mac and PC computers. These programs will allow you to access numerous resources available on CD-ROM. In addition, we will briefly discuss other applications you may encounter in working with digital video resources.

The Case for Digital Video: Our Experience

In the history of our profession, effective presentations have typically jumped back and forth between an overhead projector (or computer projector with presentation software like PowerPoint) and a TV/VCR set-up. Digital video offers the possibility of integrating video samples we wish to include with our presentation. Also, using VHS material during classes and presentations has been limited due to the awkwardness of cuing up specific video segments and the need to fast-forward and rewind the tape. Playback of VHS in slow motion or frame-by-frame often results in a distortion of the picture, making the visual image difficult to use for examples of ASL features or discourse. Every playback of a VHS tape degrades the material, eventually making well used tapes worthless. This is not true with digital video. It is easy to find and move from section to section in a movie, requires no rewinding and does not degrade over time. Digital video makes it possible for us to work with speed and precision, freeing us to focus on the learning experience.

To make this case, we wanted to share a couple of personal experiences of how incorporating digital video into our teaching has led to more effective presentations.

Patty's Perspective:

I have been able to illustrate virtually any topic through digital video. The multitude of resources available make it possible to capture a visual image of just about anything you could want to focus on in your presentation. For example, although the CD-ROM "Taking Turns" was originally created for practice with consecutive interpretation, I was struck by the sophisticated use of space by Debbie Peterson in her story, "Learning about the World." (To see the actual text, go to the Video Appendix.) I happened to be preparing for a workshop on use of space in ASL. One of the great benefits of digital video is the ability to view the text frame-by-frame or in slow motion with no loss of picture clarity. Using these features, I was able to find spatial indicators that would probably be overlooked by a newer, second-language learner.

I made use of the information by identifying the spatial indicators I wanted to capture and identifying the specific frame in the video that contained that indicator. I was able to "clip" one frame out and make it a picture file. In essence, I took a snapshot of that specific frame. (This process will be explained later in the paper). Once I had collected my snapshots, I was able to go to my PowerPoint slides for the workshop and insert them right into the slide. The result was a sequence of still images that demonstrated the specific indicators I was focusing on in my workshop. (See Figure 1.)

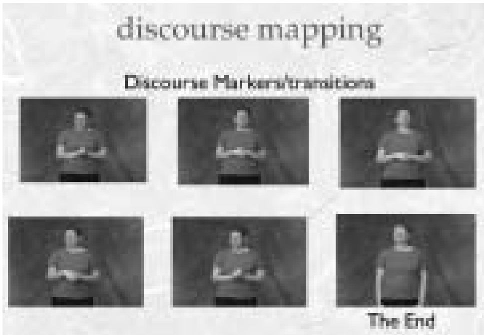

Figure 1: Sample transition markers from *Learning about the World.*

I also used examples from a VHS tape. It is possible to convert VHS tapes to digital form, although the quality of the final movie will not be equal to that of a movie originally shot in digital form. After I converted the videotape to a digital movie, I edited the movie so that three model transliterations of a short segment of source text played in a sequence. The edited movie allowed workshop participants to compare the transliterations quickly because they only saw about 45 seconds of each transliteration. In addition, I also copied specific frames into my PowerPoint. I was able to place still images side by side to see how each interpreter represented a specific section of the text. For example, the text contained a transition from narration to a direct address to the audience. I copied a frame from each model transliteration to demonstrate the similarities in their linguistic form.

While it was a lot of work to use these movies, clip and place the segments into my presentation, the result has been well worth the effort. For workshop attendees, actually seeing how the torso of a speaker shifts to indicate an aside, how eye gaze alone can identify a subject, and how different interpretations can all be accurate, made these abstract concepts real.

Doug's Experience:

For me, what has been most significant is being able to carry such a large volume of video in a small container. Along with my laptop, I have a portable 40 gigabyte hard drive, which is capable of holding about 60 hours of CD-ROM quality video. So, rather than bringing a suitcase full of videotapes when I go somewhere to present, I can simply bring a hard drive that fits in my pocket.[1] As someone who subscribes to a constructivist teaching philosophy, this flexibility is incredibly valuable to me. I believe that learners need to be active participants in the construction of meaning, rather than just passive recipients of knowledge. A danger in using presentations like those possible in PowerPoint is that pedagogy becomes very teacher-focused, and students are viewed as the proverbial empty glass just waiting to be filled. Instructors feel “locked in” to the few examples they have structured into the presentation. Having a library of video (which I can easily find and include in an adapted presentation) allows me to be open to learner questions and ideas and tailor a workshop as it unfolds, based on the interactions between participants and myself. This results, I have found, in a higher level of engagement and subsequently a higher degree of application of new ideas and skills.

Available Resources

In the fields of teaching ASL and interpretation, a wide variety of resources are available which use QuickTime video. Appendix A lists a sampling of these resources. It is by no means an exhaustive list. Rather, it is intended to give you a sense of the variety of resources you might incorporate in your teaching. In all cases, look at the movies and other material embedded in these resources with an eye to alternative uses in your work. Many of these resources contain samples of spontaneous ASL speech acts, turn-taking indicators, clarification techniques and other ASL features. See beyond the label on the CD and into the enormous amount of content available for you.

Many of these resources have been created with grant money that allows you to copy them onto as many disks as you want. Digital video quality does not degrade with each copy like VHS does, so these resources can be used to provide material for workshop participants and students without costing a lot of money and with no damage to the source material.

[1] There are a variety of portable hard drives on the market. In choosing a drive, pick one that has either a Firewire or USB 2.0 connection for fast data transfer. Additionally, it is helpful to have one that is bus-powered, meaning it does not need a separate power connection.

Working with QuickTime Pro

Apple's QuickTime is available to download for free from their website (www.apple.com/quicktime/download) and is also available on certain CD-ROMs. In order to take advantage of this program's editing potential, you need to upgrade to QuickTime Pro (Version 6.5 is available at a cost of $29.99 at the time of this writing). You can also download the upgrade directly from Apple's QuickTime web page. When you have downloaded the upgrade, you receive an alphanumeric code (called a "key"). You type the "key" in as part of the registration process when the program is being set-up and all of the program's features will become available to you. This includes capturing still pictures of a single frame of video; copying, cutting, and pasting video clips; and playing video full screen. More information on the process of upgrading is available on the Apple's website listed above.

Locating QuickTime Files

On most commercially and grant-produced CD-ROMs, QuickTime functions as a plug-in. That is, another program borrows QuickTime's functions to allow you to view movies. For example, material created by Signs of Development is viewed in a web browser like Internet Explorer or Netscape. The movies play like they would on a website. Other projects, like those created by Digiterp Communications and the University of Arkansas – Little Rock, link the video to a PDF file that is played by Acrobat or Adobe Reader. Viewing the CD-ROMs in this way allow you to see the other material developed to provide context for the video. However, it does not allow you to edit or manipulate the video files so that you can include them in a presentation.

To have these options, you need to open movies directly with QuickTime Pro. To do this, look in the home directory of the CD. Search for a folder called, "Movies," "Media," "Resources," or something similar. Figure 2 shows the process for locating the movie for "Learning About the World," on the CD-ROM, *Taking Turns*.[2] In this example, when opening the CD, you then open the Movies folder to see the QuickTime files on the CD. (Figure 2 also demonstrates different ways you might see items in a folder, either as separate icons or as a list.) Either way, the file should be marked with the

[2] The screen shots used in this paper are using QuickTime and PowerPoint for Mac OS X. Other versions may look slightly different, but have the same functions.

QuickTime logo. Double clicking the QuickTime file will open the movie directly in QuickTime Pro. Depending on the naming system used for the video files, you may need to open several movies before you locate the one you are looking for. The movie in this example is titled, “grandma.mov.”

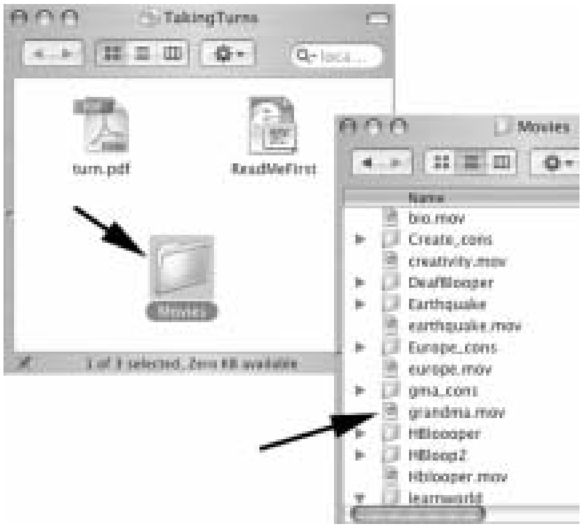

Figure 2: Finding a Movie to Open it in QuickTime Player.

Playing Movies with QuickTime

Once you locate the movie you want to use, QuickTime Pro offers a variety of ways to show it. In the Movie menu, you can choose what size you would like to present your movie. Playing it “Full Screen” simulates what video looks like from a VCR. (See Figure 3.)

Figure 3: Movie Menu in QuickTime Pro

You can also play it in slow motion by using the right and left arrow keys. On a Mac, simply hold the key down. In Windows, you need to repeatedly tap the key to move it from frame to frame. Finally, you can easily jump back and forth in the video by clicking anywhere on the control bar to move to that point in the movie.

Cutting and Pasting Movie Segments

QuickTime Pro allows you to cut and paste video in the same way you can cut and paste text with a word processor. The benefits of this for ASL and interpreter education are great because it allows us to effectively quote an ASL text. For example, imagine you have a presentation on transition markers in ASL discourse. You may want to focus in on the ways a signer signals a shift in topic. From a longer text, you can copy ten- second clips around the transition points and effectively playback a variety of transitions without having to watch the entire text or fast-forward to the appropriate points.

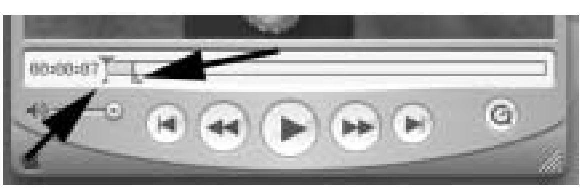

Figure 4: Editing Markers in QuickTime Pro

To create video clips, you need to select a portion of the video just like you highlight text in a word processor. To do this, you need to use the small triangles on the bottom side of the playhead. (See Figure 4.) You can click and drag these markers to select the beginning and ending part of a video clip. For more precise positioning, you can move frame by frame by clicking on a marker, and tapping the right or left arrow key while you are holding the shift key down. Once you have selected the portion of the video you want, go to the Edit menu (Figure 5) and choose Copy.

Figure 5: Edit Menu in QuickTime Player

Next, in the File menu, choose "New Player," which will bring up an untitled player like the one pictured in Figure 6. Then, choose "Paste" from the Edit menu, and this new video file will contain only your selected portion of video. (To see a movie of this process, go to the Video Appendix.)

Figure 6: Untitled QuickTime Player

Once you have this new file, you need to save it. Clicking "Save" in the File menu gives you a dialogue box similar to the one pictured in Figure 7. Saving normally means that you must keep the new file in a fixed relationship to the original file. Making it "self-contained" uses more memory, but allows you to use that video clip anywhere without having to also copy the original (and larger file). Generally, it is probably easier to make files "self-contained." Saving with dependencies is best if you plan to take many clips from the original file and also would like to be able to play the entire original text.

Figure 7: Options for Saving in QuickTime Pro

Exporting Still Pictures from a Movie

As Patty's experience demonstrates, the use of images from video can be effective in illustrating points related to ASL usage. The process for capturing these images is relatively straightforward using QuickTime Pro's "Export" option. Under the File menu, locate "Export." (See Figure 8.) When you select this, you will see a dropdown menu to the right of the word "Export." When you click on this, you will see a variety of options. To capture a single frame, choose "Movie to Picture." Choose a name for this file, where you want to save it, and then click the Save button. At this point, that picture file is ready to be included into a PowerPoint presentation.

Figure 8: Exporting in QuickTime Pro

Integration with PowerPoint

After you have created still images or video clips, you need to integrate them into your presentation. While a number of different applications can be used to create presentations, PowerPoint is the most ubiquitous of these programs. Thus our focus will be on working with this program. We will also assume that you have some familiarity with the basics of PowerPoint.[3] For the purposes of this paper, we will highlight the processes for including images, video, and hyperlinks. We also offer the caveat that in using PowerPoint, you need to avoid the danger of getting caught up in the bells and whistles of this program. Too often, PowerPoint presentations focus on the glamour of animation to the detriment of substance. What we will offer in this paper really focuses in on the substantive nature of presenting about visual language, and how PowerPoint can be of assistance in that process.

Organizing Your Presentation

When planning a presentation, the most effective way is to create a new folder and place all of the images, movie clips, and other files that you will use within that folder. Save the new PowerPoint presentation in that folder as well. See Figure 9 for an example.

Figure 9: Organizing Your Presentation in New Folder

This will allow you to locate your resources more quickly, and if you need to save it to a CD for use with a different computer, all the necessary information will be together. This is particularly crucial for video files. Still images are embedded in the presentation itself, so you do not need the original file once they have been inserted. For video, however,

[3] If you need a tutorial, there are numerous websites that offer detailed guides for creating presentations. One, from the Florida Gulf Coast University, is available at: http://www.fgcu.edu/support/office2000/ppt/.

PowerPoint only inserts a link to the original file, so if the original movie is not in the folder, PowerPoint may be unable to find the file and play it during the presentation.

Inserting Images

Once you have created a presentation with text, you can include the still images from video files. There are several options for how to do this, depending on what version of PowerPoint you have. Generally, the easiest way is go to the Insert menu and choose "New Slide." Then choose a slide that includes a "Picture" as shown in Figure 10. (Do not choose "Clip Art" as this will send you to Power Point's clip art gallery.) When you work with the slide, you will double click on the box for the picture and it will open up a dialogue box allowing you to move through your directory to locate the image file you want. Similarly, you can also use the Insert menu to Insert > Picture > From File…

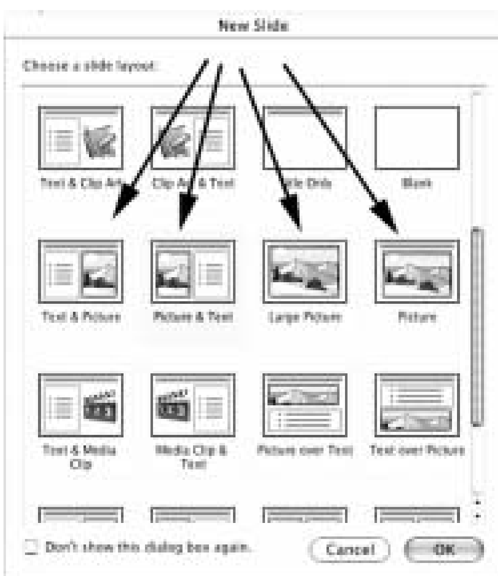

Figure 10: Creating a New Slide with Pictures

Inserting Video Clips

There are two ways of including video in a PowerPoint presentation: inserting the video into the presentation itself or creating a hyperlink to the video file so that it will open up in QuickTime player. The former is slightly easier, and allows for maintaining the feel of the presentation without shifting into another application. If you insert a video in the presentation, your playback options are limited in that you cannot use all the features that QuickTime offers. Creating a hyperlink to the video will allow you to take full advantage of QuickTime, including playing the video in full screen mode, in slow motion, and frame-by-frame.

To play the video within your PowerPoint presentation, either insert a new slide that includes a “Media Clip” or use the “Insert” menu to select a movie. Figure 11 shows what the insert menu looks like.

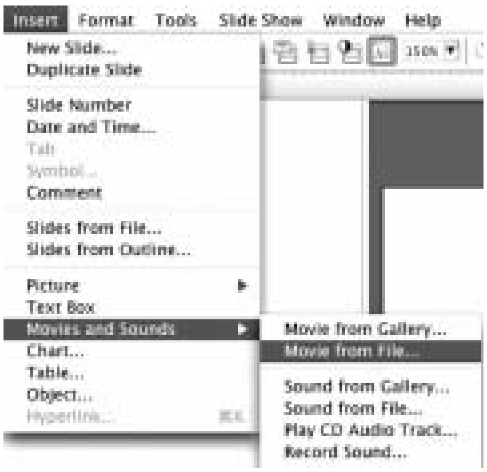

Figure 11: Inserting a Movie from Hard Drive

Both of these options will let you choose what file you would like to insert from your hard drive. You can also choose whether to have the movie play automatically, or wait for you to click on the image to make it play. This option also allows you to insert movies other than QuickTime, such as RealPlayer and Windows Media formats.

Using Hyperlinks to QuickTime

If you want more playback options with video, create a hyperlink that will open up the video file in QuickTime player. To do this, select/highlight either an image or a portion of text and choose Insert > Hyperlink in the “Insert” menu. (The hyperlink option will not be available if you have not selected either a text or an image from which to connect the link.) This will open up a dialogue box similar to the one in Figure 12. It will ask you to select a type of link, whether to a Web Page, Document, or E-mail address. Click on the tab for “Document,” and then press the “Select” button in the middle of the window. This will take you to your directory of your hard drive to let you choose which file to open.

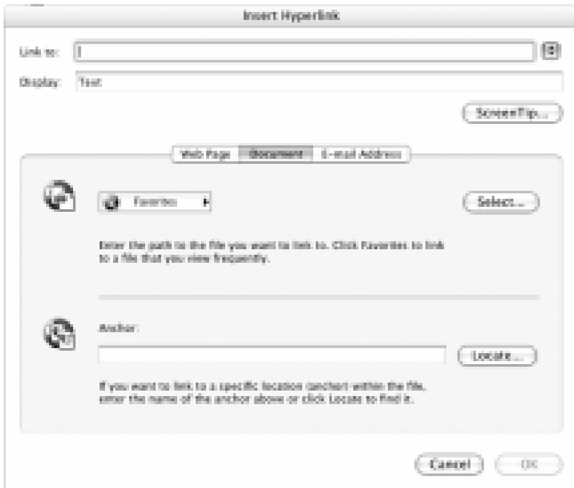

Figure 12: Inserting Hyperlink in PowerPoint

Once you have created the hyperlink, when you click on it, the movie will open in QuickTime Player and you can show the movie using all the possibilities of that program. When you want to go back to your PowerPoint presentation, simply click in the PowerPoint window and it will return to the presentation at the point where you clicked on the link. To view a movie of creating and using a hyperlink, see the Video Appendix.

Using Hyperlinks to other Programs

The process of creating hyperlinks in a presentation is useful for showing QuickTime movies, and has many other possibilities. If you have an Internet connection you can set up links that will open in a web browser. You can then use the internet to find or add information to your presentation. Using hyperlinks, you can also open up movies in other media players such as RealPlayer or Windows Media Player.

In addition, using hyperlinks allows you to utilize more than just the movie clips on a CD-ROM. For example, the CD-ROMs produced by both the University of Arkansas-Little Rock, the RSA Region V Interpreter Education Project, and Digiterp Communications all use a PDF file to provide navigation and context for the video. If you wanted to include some of this in your presentation, you can simply create a hyperlink to the PDF file, and then show the video from within Acrobat or Adobe Reader.[4]

Converting VHS to Digital Video

Although the focus of this paper is not on creating your own digital resources, we feel it is important to point out that you can convert VHS into digital video. There are a wide variety of products that do this that work with either Windows or Mac OS. The essential process is that you plug a VHS video into a separate converter, which changes the analog signal to digital and then sends it on to the computer's hard drive to be captured. Depending on your operating system (and the video editing software it has), this might lead to finished movies in formats other than QuickTime. These digital files can still be edited and incorporated into presentations. While the process is somewhat more complex than working with QuickTime movies that have already been created, we want to highlight the possibility to emphasize that going digital does not necessitate a total break with the past.

A Few Words to the Wise

In working with digital media, the potential for technical difficulties always exists. If something goes wrong with the technology, it might be more challenging to resolve the issue. In the past, if a VHS tape would not play or we had no image on our TV, we knew how to troubleshoot those problems or were able to find another piece of equipment easily. When something goes wrong with a digital presentation, it involves a computer, several programs and a projector. Any one of these elements could be the cause of the problem and the problem may not be easily remedied. As digital media becomes more integrated into our classrooms and daily lives, we will be able to find alternative ways to present material. Meanwhile, always have a backup of all your files on a separate hard drive and/or CD with you. If your computer fails, you can work off of the backup. Or, if you have an external hard drive that can hold a lot of data, you can use that to continue your presentation and have access to other files you may want to spontaneously use.

[4] For more on these types of CD-ROMs using Acrobat Reader and QuickTime, see Bowen-Bailey and Gajewski, 2002. The video appendix is also created in this format.

When you first hook up the computer and projector, play all your movies to make sure they run smoothly. Digital data is moved in and out of short-term memory while playing. Occasionally, the speed of this movement is not fast enough to play the video smoothly. If you play the movie through, it seems to load enough information in the short-term memory to manage the data more smoothly. This problem will not happen often, especially when working with newer computers with faster processing speeds. Additionally, be sure to plug your laptop into an electrical outlet. Computers tend to conserve battery life by decreasing their performance when unplugged which may negatively impact video quality.

Finally, you or your institution may want to invest in a digital projector as well as a laptop. Small, easily carried projectors can be very expensive, however, having a computer and projector that are compatible is critical to the successful use of digital media. If you must teach with unfamiliar equipment, test it as soon as possible. It is safest to bring your own equipment whenever feasible.

Conclusion

Incorporating digital video into teaching allows for more dynamic presentations that effectively reach students. Instead of jumping back and forth between an overhead projector and a VCR, we can spend the time focused on the topic -- giving clear and concise examples in ASL that truly enhance student learning. We can also respond in a more learner-centered way to students and participants by accessing a myriad of sources instantly. An unexpected benefit has been a deepening of our own knowledge base because of the analysis and selection process needed to use these resources effectively. We have learned a great deal about language and discourse in our development of these presentations, and that has translated into more effective student engagement as well. We all win with this approach, because, after all, what we are seeking is not just a dazzling presentation, but students who truly shine.

About the Authors

A graduate of Macalester College and St. Paul Technical College, **Doug Bowen-Bailey** completed the Teaching ASL and Teaching Interpreting Certificate program through the University of Colorado-Boulder and the Distance Learning Technology Internship through the DO IT Center. He currently works as a freelance interpreter, mentor with the Northeast Service Cooperative, and resource creator through his company, Digiterp Communications. His passion lies is in creating professional development materials that assist interpreters in applying current research into their daily practice.

Patty Gordon has a B.A. in Linguistics from Metropolitan State University and holds certificates from the University of Colorado at Boulder's Teaching ASL/Teaching Interpreting and Master Mentor programs. She is currently a graduate student at the University of Minnesota. She has been a freelance interpreter since 1987. As an interpreter educator, she has taught at Western Oregon University, the Educational Interpreter Certificate Program (currently run from the DO IT Center in Denver), Project TIEM.Online, and the College of St. Catherine in Minneapolis as well as numerous workshops. She is a co-author of the "MRID Self-Paced Modules for Educational Interpreter Skill Development" and "A Plan for Mentorship of Educational Interpreters in Minnesota." A geek-in-training, she readily admits to relying on real geeks to fix mysterious failures in her presentations.

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Appendix A

Resources Using QuickTime Video:

The following list is by no means exhaustive. It is designed to provide an idea of the variety of resources available that use QuickTime video. When using a commercially produced product, it is important to honor copyrights. If you are in doubt about using a resource in a certain way, we suggest contacting the producer to ask for permission.

A Closer Look: Signs for National Government and Signs for English Idioms

This series, a grant-funded resource created by the University of Arkansas – Little Rock and available from Pepnet Resource Center, has ASL clips of short vocabulary items in specific contexts. Additional titles are in production. For more information, visit: http://prc.csun.edu/Content/Products.asp

Classifiers: A Closer Look by Patricia Lessard

Created by Treehouse Video, this series has both a curriculum, as well as a series of Self-Study CD-ROMs which have both ASL texts incorporating classifier use and commentary on those texts in ASL. www.treehousevideo.com

WWWorkshops by Signs of Development

This company has created numerous workshops on CD-ROM on a wide variety of topics. All include presenters working in ASL in QuickTime video. For more information and to see their catalog, visit: www.signs-of-development.org

ASL Video Dictionary and Inflection Guide by the NTID Department of ASL and Interpreting Education

This CD-ROM shows ASL vocabulary and how it changes in different contexts. For more information, visit: http://www.ntid.rit.edu/dig/index.php

Project TIEM.Online Course Materials

Both the Teaching ASL and Teaching Interpreting Certificate Program and the Master Mentor Program used QuickTime videos as material in the courses. They represent a wide variety of sources, from very short examples of linguistic principles to longer texts. For more information about Project TIEM.online courses, visit: www.asl.neu.edu/tiem.online/index.html

CD-ROM Series by the RSA Region V Interpreter Education Project at the College of St. Catherine in partnership with SLICES, LLC

As part of its efforts, the RSA Region V Interpreter Education Project has produced a series of CD-ROMs utilizing QuickTime video. Topics range from math and anatomy, to interpreting in legal, medical, and educational settings. These projects all come with license to reproduce and manipulate. For more information visit: www.stkate.edu/project or
www.digiterp.com/NESC.html.

CD-ROMs by Digiterp Communications

A partner in producing the RSA Region V Interpreter Education Project CD-ROMs, Digiterp has also created several CD-ROMs independently. These projects are designed for discourse analysis, consecutive interpreting, and teaching ASL in elementary settings. For more information,visit: www.digiterp.com.

The Natives Are Restless: Using Compression Strategies to Deliver Linguistically Appropriate ASL to English Interpretation

Lynn Finton and Richard T. Smith

National Technical Institute for the Deaf

Abstract

When interpreting between American Sign Language (ASL) and English, linguistic and cultural mediation is necessary in order to provide source and target message equivalence. One aspect of this linguistic and cultural mediation has been identified by Lawrence (1994) as *expansions*. Expansions are the amplification of certain concepts of English in order to create meaning and be linguistically appropriate in ASL. Conversely, since expansions occur in native ASL discourse, they have significant implications for the ASL-to-English interpreting process such that certain concepts in ASL need to be reduced in order to create meaning and maintain linguistic appropriateness in English. In this paper, this reduction is referred to as *compression*. The use of compression strategies allows ASL-to-English interpreters to deliver both meaning and intention in linguistically appropriate English. In fact, a number of common ASL-to-English interpreting errors can be eliminated by the use of *compression* strategies. This paper will introduce the concept of compression strategies, provide methods for teaching *compression*, and identify appropriate instructional materials to support this teaching.

Background

Teaching students the task of interpreting is challenging. Teaching process models of interpretation and message analysis skills are critical in laying a solid foundation in understanding the interpreting process. However, this alone is inadequate in leading students to dropping the form of a message and interpreting its true meaning. Students are regularly reminded to 'sound like a native' when delivering the source message into the target language. However, what students understand at a theoretical level does not always show up in practical application such as their actual interpreting performance. Students tend to use what Sunnari (1995) describes as the "say it all" approach to interpretation rather than using the "synthesis" approach. In other words, students interpret at a lexical level, saying exactly what the Deaf person signs, rather than incorporating strategies that would synthesize the message into a more coherent interpretation. The linguistic mediation necessary to successfully interpret between ASL and English offers a significant challenge to students of interpretation.

In this regard, Lawrence (1994) has identified a number of discourse features of ASL referred to as *expansions* – that is the amplification of certain concepts of English so as to create meaning and be linguistically appropriate in ASL. An instance of an expansion would be to the contrasting of two opposite ideas in order to emphasize one of them. For example the English sentence "Interpreting is a complex process," might appear in ASL as "INTERPRETING, EASY NOT, COMPLEX" with the words "EASY NOT" serving merely to lay emphasis on the word "COMPLEX." These expansions have significant implications for interpretation from English to ASL. Yet Lawrence observed that these expansions were often lacking in the work of both students and professionals.

If certain concepts in English need to be expanded in ASL to create meaning and be linguistically appropriate, then the reverse must be true as well: certain information that is expanded in ASL may need to be reduced to create meaning and maintain linguistic appropriateness in English. Finton and Smith (2003) refer to this phenomenon as *compression*.

Some of the errors common in interpretation may be reduced through the introduction of compression strategies. Among these errors are the following:

1. **Intrusion of source language features.** Students often carry over the form of the source language into the target language of English. This may result in stilted vocabulary selection and stilted sentence structures.
2. **Wordiness.** Students often deliver an interpretation at the lexical level. They often feel compelled to say what is signed even though they are regularly reminded to say what is meant. Often the interpretation is in technically correct, but wordy English. Additionally, students often inappropriately retain the amount of visual detail present in ASL resulting in too much information for a natural-sounding English.
3. **Redundancies.** Because ASL tends to incorporate the use of redundancy of lexical items, students feel compelled to provide the same type of redundancy in English, even though it sounds awkward in naturally spoken English discourse.
4. **Register mismatch.** Students often deliver an ASL-to-English interpretation using an inappropriate register. This may be due to retention of first person address, inappropriate vocabulary selection, or simplistic or run-on sentence construction.
5. **Inappropriate use of first person dialogue.** Because of the differences in discourse patterns between ASL and English, the use of direct and indirect dialogue presents a significant challenge. Students frequently include first person dialogue in their English interpretations regardless of the register or function of the message.
6. **Loss of speaker style.** All languages have involvement strategies to get and hold the audience's attention (Winston, 1992). The use of space and first person address can be used as involvement strategies to engage an audience in ASL, but in ASL-to-English interpretation, this engaging and entertaining style of the presenter can be lost.

Expansion and compression are introduced to students simultaneously during their first courses in interpretation at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf (NTID), expansion being introduced in the English-to-ASL class and compression being introduced in the ASL-to-English class. Both of these courses teach consecutive interpretation skills. Prior to taking this coursework, students must have completed the introductory course *Processing Skills Development*, where they are introduced to interpreting process models and the various subskills of the interpreting process.

The use of consecutive interpretation often alleviates many of the English grammatical errors common in simultaneous interpretation. However, even with many grammar errors eliminated, students' delivery does not always sound natural. Much like a foreigner's English, which may be readily understood, students' interpretations may lack a native-like quality. The incorporation of expansion features and compression strategies into introductory coursework in interpretation has led to significant strides in students' interpreting ability. Students sound more natural in their delivery and more easily let go of their tenacious adherence to the form of the source message.

Introduction to Compression Strategies

The goal of this paper is to introduce the compression strategies associated with each of Lawrence's expansions accompanied by illustrative examples. For those unfamiliar with Lawrence's seven expansions, descriptions of these expansions appear immediately preceding a description of the corresponding compression strategy. The reader is requested to keep in mind the limitations that writing imposes when attempting to describe a signed or spoken utterance. For a more in-depth discussion of expansion, the reader is referred to Lawrence (1994) or Lawrence (2003). In the examples used below, the expansion feature in the ASL sample sentence is underlined.

Expansion 1: Contrasting

> This feature highlights one idea by juxtaposing two opposite ideas in order to emphasize the one. This can be accomplished by stating the positive and then the negative: in other words, by stating what **is** and contrasting it with what **isn't**. When the contrasting feature takes this form, what **is** often will be reiterated at the end of the sentence, effectively sandwiching what **isn't** between a repetition of what **is**. Depending on context and the speaker's point, the reverse may also be seen: stating what **isn't**, followed by what **is** (Lawrence, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Contrasting

When interpreting a contrasting feature from ASL to English, students need to recognize the function that the contrasting feature serves. When the function is to emphasize an opposing idea, students need to understand that the contrasting idea may not have to be interpreted literally into English.

Example:

ASL: INTERPRETING, <u>EASY NOT, COMPLEX</u>

English Interpretation: 1: *Interpreting is a complex process.*

English Interpretation: 2: *Interpreting is quite complex.*

The reader should note that English can accomplish the function of emphasizing either through vocal intonation or by the insertion of an adverb such as *quite*, *so*, *such* or *really*.

Expansion 2: Faceting

> Faceting describes a feature whereby several different signs are signed sequentially to more clearly express one idea. Although several signs are used, this feature actually narrows a concept to a more exact or specific image or is an attempt to find the right nuance (Lawrence, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Faceting

The function of faceting is to narrow a concept to an exact or specific image. English has a variety of ways to accomplish this same function. And rather than interpret the sequence of signs used in ASL, English can use adverbs or qualifiers, emphasize through vocal intonation, choose a stronger English lexical item or use of an idiomatic expression. In the example below, the term 'immaculate' nicely captures the essence of CLEAN, SHINE, PERFECT+++.

Example:

ASL: SANDY, HER HOUSE, TEND <u>CLEAN, SHINE, PERFECT</u>+++-sweep

English Interpretation: *Sandy's house is always immaculate.*

Expansion 3: Reiteration

> Reiteration refers to signs that are repeated in a text the same way as they were initially stated, sometimes occurring one after another, repeating verbatim a sign or signs consecutively. Other times, reiteration occurs as 'bookends', sandwiching text between the repeated signs. It appears that reiteration implies emphasis: that something is important to the storyline, has cultural significance, or has high emotional impact to the signer (Lawrence, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Reiteration

Students often feel compelled to voice interpret the reiterated lexical item(s), just as they appear in the source language. Since the reiteration serves primarily to emphasize, it is acceptable to use other means besides reiteration to accomplish this emphasis; note the examples below:

Examples:

ASL: <u>TEACHER INDEX FINE</u>-wg, ME TAKE COURSE UNDER INDEX, ME FAIL, DOESN'T-MATTER PUT-ASIDE, INDEX <u>TEACHER FINE</u>-wg.

English Interpretation 1: *That teacher is good. Even though I flunked her class I still think she is a good teacher.* Here the reiteration is voiced, placing appropriate intonation on the reiterated word.

English Interpretation 2: *That teacher is good. I even flunked the course I took from her but I still think she is wonderful.* Here two English lexical items (*good* and *wonderful*) are used to accomplish the emphasis.

English Interpretation 3: *That teacher flunked me and I still think she is a great teacher.* Here a single stronger word is used only once to convey the concept.

English Interpretation 4: *Even though she flunked me, I still think that teacher is really good.* Here the reiterated ASL sign is said only once in English with the use of the qualifier *really*.

Expansion 4: Utilizing 3-D Space

> The use of space is a salient feature of ASL. ASL takes advantage of the three-dimensional physical space around the signer's body. This space can be used to represent people, places, and things; to represent how objects appear in the real world and present them from different perspectives; to create cohesion in ASL discourse; and to set a visual scene (Lawrence, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Utilizing 3-D Space

The use of three-dimensional signing space is a salient feature of ASL, one that does not exist in English. "This use of space can be accomplished in ASL through the use or combination of some of the following features: pointing, placed signs, fingerspelling, directional verbs, classifiers, role assumption, reported or constructed dialogue, prosody, body shifting, and eye gaze" (Finton & Smith, 2003). Because the use of space is such a significant component of ASL, it can present some unique challenges for voice interpreting into English. The amount of detail in a message, the use of referential space, and the figure-ground relationships provide particular challenges when interpreting between ASL and English.

1. **Amount of detail.** The amount of detail that is considered linguistically appropriate in an ASL message may be linguistically inappropriate in English. In the example below, the information supplied in ASL can be easily compressed into a single English sentence.

   Example:

   ASL: MY MOTHER/FATHER, THEIR 50 WEDDING ANNIVERSARY, MY BROTHER, CHICAGO$_{lf}$ FLEW-TO-HERE, SISTER, FLA$_{ctr}$ FLEW-TO-HERE, SISTER MAINE$_{rt}$ FLEW-TO-HERE COME-TOGETHER, CELEBRATE

   English Interpretation: *My siblings flew in from all over the country to celebrate my parents' fiftieth anniversary.*

On the other hand, depending on the context, it could also be argued that where the siblings came from may be important to the message. The function of the message should influence the interpretation.

2. **Use of referential space.** Interpreters are often challenged when an ASL utterance uses referential space to represent a noun that is gender-neutral such as *friend*, *neighbor*, *teacher*. In this type of situation, interpreters have several options.
    a. They can attempt to interpret without using a gender pronoun. This is often not possible.
    b. They can take a stand with regards to the gender. This can work but if later in the discourse, it becomes clear that the chosen gender was incorrect, a repair must be made.
    c. They can ask for clarification from the consumer. Although this seems the easiest solution, the gender may have little significance to the storyline and the Deaf consumer may be puzzled at the intrusion for an unimportant detail. The Deaf consumer also may not appreciate why the information is necessary.

    In the sample below, the gender neutral term *friend* is the source of the challenge. In which case, it is impossible to remain gender neutral.

    Example:

    ASL: MY FRIEND, INDEX, GRADUATE RECENT Y-A-L-E, INDEX, TOP CLASS

    English Interpretation: *My friend recently graduated from Yale at the top of his class.*

3. **Figure/ground relationships.** ASL and English differ in how they express figure/ground relationships. "In English, the figure usually occurs first in a sentence…English primarily uses prepositions to express this relationship…In ASL, the order for expressing figure and ground is reversed…the mechanism for expressing the relationship between figure and ground in ASL is the placement of classifier handshapes in the signing space" (Lessard, 2002, p. 138). In the sample sentence below, ASL establishes the general scene, the grocery store, then moves to the specific aisle and then the specific food – wasabi. English often works in the opposite

way, mentioning the figure, wasabi, first, then the aisle, and finally the grocery store – moving from specific to general.

Example:

ASL: FOOD STORE, YOU KNOW AISLE HAVE FOOD COUNTRY DIFFERENT+++, FIND W-A-S-A-B-I FIND, THERE

English Interpretation 1: *You will find Wasabi in the international food aisle at the grocery store.*

An interpretation that mimics the grammatical structure of ASL could work in English, but may sound a bit less natural.

English Interpretation 2: *At the grocery store in the international food aisle is where you can find wasabi.*

It is important for students of interpretation to emphasize the restructuring of the sentence. This reinforces the recognition of variation in discourse patterns between ASL and English and disabuses students of their tendency to parrot the structure of the source language.

Expansion 5: Explaining by Example

> A list of examples is sometimes used in ASL to define or explain a term. This explaining by example feature may result from the fact that ASL does not have a specific lexical item for the term being explained (Lawrence, 2003).
>
> A variant or subset of this feature is the ASL noun classification. This term, identified as superordinate compounding by Klima & Bellugi (1979), consists of three to four signs strung together, often followed by the etcetera (ETC) sign to express a specific English noun. Examples of this include the terms tools (HAMMER, SAW, SCREWDRIVER, ETC) or fruit (APPLE, ORANGE, BANANA, ETC.) (Finton & Smith, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Explaining by Example

The lexicon of ASL and the lexicon of English are different. ASL often describes a concept by providing various examples whereas English may have a specific lexical item to describe the same concept. An awkward interpretation may result when interpreters carry specific examples over into the target language of English rather than using the English lexical item.

Example:

ASL: MY DAUGHTER SELF L-A-C-T-O-S-E I-N-T-O-L-E-R-A-N-T, MEAN EAT CHEESE, MILK, ICE CREAM, ETC. CAN'T

English Interpretation: *My daughter is lactose intolerant so she can't eat dairy products.*

One form of explaining by example is the noun classification. Any number of English words would result in using noun classification in ASL. Common examples include fruit, vegetables, weapons, tools, and jewelry. See the example below.

Example:

ASL: MY AUNT AGE-80, HAVE EARRING, NECKLACE, BRACELET, ETC. PILES-OF-huge, SHE USE, NEVER, PUZZLED ME

English Interpretation: *I can't figure out my elderly aunt, she has more jewelry than you can shake a stick at but she never wears it!*

Expansion 6: Couching

> Perhaps due to the lack of a single specific lexical item in ASL, several signs are grouped together to form a concept. This series of signs, defined as couching, adds background or contextual information to a concept to make it clear. Smith's (1996) interpretation of couching is 'defining an object or phenomenon by description, analogy or function instead of by label' (Lawrence, 2003).

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Couching

Stauffer (2002) noted that when deaf people were presented with English concepts that they were asked to translate into ASL, they often incorporated visual descriptor markers such as KNOW, YOU-KNOW, THAT as well as non-manual markers such as affirmative head nod and a head tilt to signal the particular grammatical construction. In Stauffer's study, deaf subjects were presented with eleven English lexical items that included noun classification (jewelry, silverware, weapons), and words that are more abstract (public affairs), and words that don't have a readily recognized sign in ASL (garden, dam, kitty litter, flea market, raffle, and hoedown). The English examples in Stauffer's research fit into the categories of explaining by example or couching. The non-manual markers mentioned above may assist the interpreter in recognizing a couched term.

The example below tells the story of a woman's experience with an express checkout line in a grocery store. An awkward and stilted interpretation could result if the ASL-to-English interpretation included the ASL description rather than the expected English word. And the hearing audience might be left to wonder why a description was being given of a concept that has a clear label in English.

Example:

> **ASL:** DISGUST, ME TEND GO SHOPPING FOOD, FEW THINGS PUT-IN-BASKET, LOOK-AT-sweep THERE PEOPLE LINE-UP, SIGN "8 UNDER", FINE, **(CL:**1) GET-IN-LINE. LOOK-AHEAD, ONE PERSON FOOD HAVE PILES-OF, DIGUST ME
>
> **English Interpretation:** *I get so disgusted, it seems every time I go the express checkout I get behind someone who has a cart full of groceries.*

Expansion 7: Describe then Do

One of the most salient features of ASL is its narrative nature, which readily accommodates what is called the describe-then-do feature. In using this feature, the signer begins a short description of something followed by an action or enactment of the description. This can happen in two ways: (1) by using a reported dialogue or action, or (2) by using a verb sandwich.

Corresponding Compression Strategy: Describe then Do

The describe-then-do feature of ASL presents a number of challenges when being interpreted into English. ASL relies heavily on use of what is commonly called first person address or constructed/reported dialogue. English, however, reserves the use of first person address to more specific functions. It may be used in the telling of jokes, in storytelling or fairy tales (Marron, 1997). First person dialogue may be used in English to add humor or add emphasis by reusing a speaker's exact words or to predict what a speaker might say.

1. Constructed dialogue or action. In the constructed dialogue example below, the number of exchanges in ASL between the mother and daughter would likely warrant some type of compression in English.

Example:

> **ASL:** NOW MORNING MY MOTHER, ME ARGUE CLASH, ME WANT TONGUE-PIERCE, SHE SAY "NO", ME SAY "ME SIXTEEN, TONGUE-PIERCE CAN", MOTHER SAY "#I-F TONGUE PIERCE, PUNISH YOU", "ME OLD ENOUGH, CAN." ARGUE ARGUE.
>
> **English Interpretation:** *My mom and I really got into it this morning about getting my tongue pierced. I told her I am 16 and I can do whatever I want!*

When students are freed from the perceived need to say exactly who said what to whom, their interpretation accuracy tends to improve. Because pronouns in ASL are often overlooked by students, they can still get the gist of the story and provide an accurately compressed interpretation without having to assign who said what to whom.

2. Verb Sandwich. In the verb sandwich, the verb in a sentence occurs twice – once in its simple form and then again in its embellished form where the speaker performs the action of the verb in order to add more information about how the action is being performed (Fischer & Janis, 1990). In the ASL example below, the simple verb WRITE is signed prior to describing how the person wrote his signature, WRITE-SLOPPY.

Example:

> **ASL:** MY HUSBAND BECOME DOCTOR SHOULD, WHY $_{\text{rh-q}}$, INDEX SIGN NAME, WRITE, WRITE-sloppy, READ IMPOSSIBLE++
>
> **English Interpretation:** *My husband's signature is impossible to read, he should have become a doctor.*

Use of Compression – Caveats

It is important to note that the use of compression strategies, although effective in delivering a more native, natural-sounding interpretation, also bring with it some challenges:

> Interpreters are sometimes left with too much time on their hands. When the number of lexical items signed is significantly larger than the number of spoken lexical items in an interpretation, there is always potential for awkward and unnatural periods of silence. Interpreters must balance the need for effective, natural sounding interpretations with potential awkward pauses (Finton & Smith, 2003).

To this end, interpreting students must continually keep in mind the many factors that influence an interpretation, such as the goal of the speaker, the function of the text, the register of the speaker, speaker style, etc. all of which influence the amount of compression used.

Teaching Compression

When we first began teaching compression strategies, sparse resources were available. For ease in student comprehension, we wanted to teach each of the strategies in isolation. The isolation of each strategy allowed students to readily comprehend the feature; after that they were ready to see the strategies in connected discourse. Unfortunately, nothing available on the market effectively supported the teaching of these strategies in isolation. This led to the development of the CD-ROM entitled *Interpreter Discourse: English to ASL Expansion ASL to English Compression*. The goal of the CD-ROM has been to offer exposure and practice with the various features explained in *Interpreter Discourse: English to ASL Expansion* (Lawrence) and *Interpreter Discourse: ASL to English Compression* (Finton/Smith).

The following features can be found on the CD-ROM:

1. Printable articles that introduce the concepts of Expansion (S. Lawrence) and Compression (L. Finton & R. Smith).
2. Four source language sentences that allow for incorporating each Expansion or Compression feature into the target language.

3. Model interpretations of source language sentences.
4. Source language texts of approximately five minutes in length that allow for incorporating expansion or compression into the target language.
5. Model interpretation of the source language texts.
6. Transcripts of all spoken English texts.

Once students are introduced to the concepts in isolation, they are ready to see the features in connected discourse.

A number of currently available videotapes on the market effectively support the teaching of compression. However, it is difficult to find any one resource that uses all of the expansion features in one text. Using a combination of texts has been most effective in allowing students to practice all of the compression strategies. A listing of videotaped stimulus materials containing ASL samples of short and longer texts that has been found to be effective in teaching Compression strategies can be found in Appendix A.

The aforementioned texts are used as in-class practice and homework assignments. One effective strategy for providing practice in identifying expansion features in an ASL text has been to require students to gloss a text. A shorter passage is appropriate for this type of activity. Once the students gloss the text, they highlight the expansion features used. This can be assigned as homework so that students are ready to discuss the type of compression strategies necessary for each of the expansion features as a class activity.

For the introductory ASL-to-English Interpreting course, students are required to complete a Compression Project. A description of this project appears in Appendix B.

Conclusion

Teaching compression strategies can have a significant effect on students' ability to provide effective ASL to English interpretation. Since we started introducing compression strategies in introductory ASL to English coursework, we have noticed significant improvement in students' ability to apply the theoretical construct of letting go of form and delivering meaning. Students' appreciation of the differences between ASL and English discourse have been greatly enhanced and we have seen marked improvement in their ASL-to-English interpretations.

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Appendix A

Video Stimulus Materials for Compression Practice

Lentz, E.M., Mikos, K., Smith, C. (Producers and Directors).(1988). VISTA: Signing Naturally Level . Teachers Curriculum Guide [Video Cassette], Dawn Sign Press.
Narratives: *My Family*
Family Name Signs
Deaf School Routines

Lentz, E.M., Mikos, K., Smith, C. (Producers and Directors).(1988).VISTA: Signing Naturally Level 2. Teachers Curriculum Guide [Video Cassette], Dawn Sign Press.
Dialogue #7: *Dog Care and Household Directions*
Narratives: *Lost Keys*
An Exquisite Sunday Brunch

Cassell, J. (Producer). (1989). American Sign Language and Interpreting Practice Tapes: Interpreting Practice with Models-Tape #4C, Sign to Voice: Debi Duren
Sign Enhancers, Inc.
Camp Counselor
A Backpacking Adventure

Taylor, M.M. (Producer) & Straity, A. P., Taylor, M.M. (Creators). (1998). Pursuit of ASL: Interesting Facts Using Classifiers with Angela Petrone Straity, Interpreting Consolidated.
Air Fresheners
Bacteria
Bats
Cotton Candy
Oranges

Western Oregon State College (Producer). (1995).
Regional Resource Center on Deafness, Region X Interpreter Education Center,
Telecourse Tape 400 A-J: *A Specialized Sign-Language Terminology for Academic Settings: Biology*, with Ron Betchel

Appendix B – Part I

Sign to Voice Interpreting I
Compression/Cohesion Project
VT: SVI 112.1A   Interpreting Practice w/ Various Models 4c

Text: A Back-Packing Adventure 18:48-28:57 (10 min.)

Task: Demonstrate compression strategies within a consecutively produced interpretation.

Preparation Stage . (Due Session 12)
- Using the videotape of "A Back-Packing Adventure", analyze the text.
- Prepare a typed outline of the text and submit a copy to your instructor
- Gloss the expansion features in the text and identify the type of expansion used.

Draft Interpretation:
- Prepare a voiced over interpretation (on audiotape) that reflects a natural interpretation.
- Have two hearing people who do not know sign language listen to your interpretation. Ask them to fill out the form below. (You may ask them the questions verbally and write down their response.

Final Interpretation:
- Based on the feedback that you receive, prepare a second interpreted version of the text.
- Prepare a short paper explaining the feedback that you received and the changes that you made to improve your interpretation.
- Submit the second version and analysis to your instructor. (Due Session 17)

Appendix B – Part II

Sign to Voice Interpreting I
Compression/Cohesion Project
Feedback form

Listen to the interpretation of the signed text entitled "The Backpacking Experience". Be prepared to answer the following questions.

1. What is the purpose or goal of the message? For example, is it to trying to teach, inform, entertain, etc.

2. Identify any parts of the message that seemed vague or incomplete. Try to describe why.

3. Were the vocabulary choices, idiomatic expressions and grammatical structure natural sounding? Did the interpretation sound overly wordy or redundant? Identify any sections where the working or structure seemed stilted or unnatural.

4. Describe the emotion or tone of the interpretation. Based on the interpretation, do you believe the signer to be enthusiastic, excited, bored, etc? Does the vocal intonation of the interpretation sound natural?

5. Indicate whether the interpretation flowed smoothly. Did the pace seem comfortable? Indicate whether pauses occurred in natural places. Identify any places in the interpretation where the pausing seemed unnaturally long or areas that felt rushed or unevenly paced.

6. Who might the intended audience be for this text? Is the signer talking with a friend, giving a presentation, etc.?

The Demand-Control Schema: Effective Curricular Implementation

Robyn K. Dean, Robert Q Pollard, Jr., Jeffrey Davis, Marie Griffin, Carol LaCava, Brian Morrison, Jean Parmir, Amanda Smith, Stacey Storme, and Leah Suback
(See below for institutional affiliations)

Abstract: In October, 2004, the University of Rochester (UR) and the University of Tennessee (UT) collaborative project, *Reforming Interpreter Education: A Practice Profession Approach* (http://www.urmc.rochester.edu/dwc/scholarship/Education.htm) reaches its conclusion. The purpose of this three-year project, supported by the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), was to embed Dean and Pollard's (2001) "demand-control (D-C) schema for interpreting work" throughout UT's baccalaureate interpreter preparation program (IPP) curriculum and examine its resulting impact. A series of five courses were developed or adapted by the UR researchers and implemented by the UT faculty. UT's Basic Interpreter Training Program (BITP) was similarly adapted. As the project progressed, a number of other IPPs and interpreter mentors also began employing elements of the D-C schema. This article was coauthored by the UR developers, the UT IPP faculty, and five other IPP faculty or mentors who employ the D-C schema and teaching methods in their work.

Reforming Interpreter Education One Course at a Time: The UR-UT Collaboration

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This UR-UT curriculum reform project has made possible the development and piloting of a sequence of courses in UT's baccalaureate interpreter training program and modification to UT's eight-week summer intensive interpreting preparation program. UR faculty Robyn Dean and Robert Pollard have provided the conceptual leadership in course development and "train-the-trainer" services. The UT faculty has focused on integrating the D-C schema into our interpreter training courses and fieldwork. Faculty from both institutions are collaborating on evaluation and dissemination activities. The following courses were developed by the project and piloted in UT's baccalaureate interpreter training program from 2001 – 2004.

Application of Demand-Control Theory to Sign Language Interpreting (3 credit hrs). In this course, students are introduced to Dean and Pollard's (2001) demand-control schema for interpreting work, which is based on Karasek's (1979) demand-control theory. Students are introduced to the complete spectrum of interpreting work challenges and learn how specific factors within interpreting work environments affect them, their consumers, and their resulting translations. These challenges, called demands, are framed into four categories (environmental, interpersonal, paralinguistic and intrapersonal or EIPI), to guide students to analyze interpreting work systematically. Using the demand-control schema as a work analysis tool allows students to begin incorporating practical knowledge of work environments into their growing skills repertoire. This is a prerequisite course; the schema that is taught in this course is employed throughout the remainder of the course sequence. This course was offered during the Spring 2002 and Summer 2002 - 2004 semesters and team taught by Jeffrey Davis, Robyn Dean, and Marie Griffin.

Medical Interpreting via Observation-Supervision (3 credit hours). In this course, students learn about medical interpreting by applying the D-C schema during observations of medical situations. Equipped with the understanding of the factors important to interpreting work and the schema to discern them, students shadow medical doctors into their appointments with hearing patients. Consistent with problem-based and expeditionary learning techniques, students are exposed to basic medical knowledge, typical doctor-patient interactions and conversations by direct observation (contrasted with traditional classroom instruction methods), which has shown to improve student's practical understanding, integration, and retention of information. This course was offered in the Fall, 2002, semester and team taught by Robyn Dean and Jeffrey Davis. (For further information about observation-supervision, see Dean, Davis, et al., 2003 and Dean, Pollard, and English, in this volume.)

Educational Interpreting via Observation-Supervision (3 credit hours). Like medical interpreting work, there is a great demand for interpreting in educational settings. Understanding the challenges faced by interpreters in these settings is vital since the majority of interpreters will find themselves working in this type of environment. In this course, students will spend the majority of their time in settings on the university campus and in local public schools observing the environment, the people, and the types of interactions that typically occur. Like the first problem-based learning (PBL) course, students employ the D-C schema during their observations. This course was offered in the Spring, 2003, semester and team taught by Carol LaCava and Robyn Dean.

Educational Interpreting Field Work (6 credit hours). Students enrolled in the six credit hours of Interpreting Field Work employ the D-C schema in their work and in their analysis of field work. The final coursework being developed in this sequence revises the six credit hours of required field work by asking students to implement the schema in their field work as well as in a field work group supervision seminar. Students enrolled in field work attend a weekly supervision seminar where discussions about their growing knowledge and understanding of interpreting work are framed in a demand-control format. These courses were offered in the Fall, 2003, and Spring, 2004, semesters and taught by Carol LaCava .

<u>Discussion of the course sequence</u>. While the final stages of project implementation and evaluation are currently underway, the UT faculty offers a few preliminary observations. These courses were designed to be offered sequentially and have been piloted as such.

That is, the Application of Demand-Control Theory course is the pre-requisite to the other courses. The Medical Interpreting course and Educational Interpreting course could be offered interchangeably as long as students have the background and application offered by the Application of D-C Theory Course. It has been the consensus of the UT faculty that this course content also could be adapted and applied to other specialized settings such as legal or mental health.[1] We also have found excellent application to interpreting in multicultural settings. Furthermore, based on the feedback received thus far from a variety of audiences (ranging from our students to practitioners and educators) Dean and Pollard's observation-supervision approach has application to a wide variety of interpreting settings.

We also have experimented with other curriculum approaches. For example, infusing or "post-holing" UT's eight-week summer intensive interpreter preparation program with the D-C schema and offering D-C content through directed independent studies and distance education/on-line formats. The UT faculty has made excellent application of the D-C framework in the Principles of Interpreting and Interpreting Skills courses. These courses are enhanced significantly following the D-C schema for interpreting work. UT was fortunate to receive the UR support through the FIPSE grant to carry out these program innovations and curriculum reform. The UT faculty looks forward to the infusion and continuation of the D-C schema into all aspects of the interpreting program well beyond the end of the FIPSE grant cycle. We see this as being an on-going or "spiraling" curriculum approach.

We recognize that most IPPs do not have adequate instructional personnel or resources to add additional courses and modify existing fieldwork requirements as was done at UT. Unfortunately many IPPs only have one full-time faculty member. A disproportionate number of interpreting courses are taught by adjunct faculty members who are less easily brought into major curriculum reform than are full-time faculty. Still, as with other practice-based professions such as medicine or teaching, having adequate field work, supervision, and mentorship are tantamount to the success and longevity of our graduates**.** This points to the need to have faculty adequately trained in the most effective and efficient means to conduct field supervision. The D-C schema and

[1] Another UR project is testing the application of observation-supervision in mental health settings. See Dean, Pollard, and English, in this volume, for a preliminary report.

observation-supervision address that need and offer an exciting and meaningful way to bridge the gap between classroom and fieldwork experiences. It has been our experience that the D-C schema and observation-supervision provide powerful observational analysis and descriptive tools for teaching and mentoring interpreters. This offers the field an exciting multidisciplinary approach to meet the challenges of preparing interpreters and a succinct and cogent framework for the analysis of interpreting work that enhances observation, supervision, and mentorship.

<u>Benefits, challenges, and unexpected outcomes</u>. There are far too many benefits of the D-C schema to give a full account of them in this brief segment. Most significant is that it gives a new and more meaningful framework to talk about interpreting and places feedback in a neutral space. The observation-supervision approach that was part of this project promotes more effective learning of specialized practice/content areas – that is, students learn from a variety of settings regardless of the presence of interpreters or deaf consumers. This approach levels the playing field and controls for experience. Though the project is still being evaluated, the UT IPP faculty has been awed by the positive feedback from practicing interpreters and students of interpreting (at all levels) who by and large report excellent results from following the schema. We have been impressed by the range and level of application.

The project benefited from the excellent curriculum support offered by Robyn Dean. The course content was continuously reviewed and adapted as it was being piloted. The challenge of being housed in different institutions was addressed through weekly conference calls and regular site visits to UT by the UR faculty. All courses were team taught by UT-UR faculty and we created a Web-based/on-line presence through Blackboard (the course management system adopted by UT) for all project personnel to have access to the students and course content. Many excellent classroom activities were developed to support the teaching-learning process. These included extensive in-class and in-vivo observations and analyses, the use of supervision and response journals, invited guest lecturers on interpreter and deaf consumer perspectives, and the multicultural perspective. One of the highlights of the D-C application course was the final project that required students to teach the schema to groups of working interpreters.

In sum, this project has been both challenging and rewarding. The greatest challenges have been dealing with personnel constraints and programmatic constraints imposed by being a part of a flagship University and the realities of distance collaboration. Though we have had the benefit of frequent face to face exchanges, the majority of the communication between the collaborators has been by phone and through e-mail. The UT faculty cohort was successful in securing credit toward the interpreting major for those students enrolled in all of the courses in the sequence except for the Medical Interpreting course, which counted as an elective.

It is the consensus of the UT faculty collaborators that the benefits to our baccalaureate interpreting program, our students, and to the field far outweigh the challenges. There has been outstanding synergy surrounding this project and we feel privileged to have piloted these courses. The UT faculty is convinced of the relevance and applicability of the D-C schema for interpreting work. Fortunately, our program is closely affiliated with the nationally recognized UT Center on Deafness which administers the Southeast Regional Interpreting Training Consortium (SERITC) and Postsecondary Education Programs Network (PEP Net) with affiliations with postsecondary institutions and educational programs from 14 states. Critical to the implementation of the curriculum developed by this project is continued "train the trainer" activities. Meanwhile, we look forward to *ongoing* training, evaluation and research regarding the D-C schema for interpreting work.[2]

D-C Schema Implementation Outside the UR-UT Project: An Overview

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The five course sequence implemented in UT's Educational Interpreting Program was the initial vehicle for the implementation of D-C schema in IPPs. However, as the UT courses were developed, implemented, and evaluated, it became apparent that while the structure of the FIPSE implementation project was workable at UT, it was likely to be less effective if disseminated "as is" to wider IPP audiences. As noted above, most IPPs have limited flexibility in their curricula. As we considered structural adaptations that

[2] The official UR-UT project final evaluation report will be published by the Institute for Assessment and Evaluation at UT by November, 2004. Those interested in receiving a copy of this report may contact Robyn Dean at UR.

would foster wider dissemination, we concluded that the primary effective components of the UT D-C schema courses could be distilled into four distinct "elements." These elements are: the D-C schema as a theoretical construct, the D-C schema as dialogic work analysis, the D-C schema as a learning tool, and the D-C schema as an assessment tool.

D-C schema as theoretical construct. The four demand categories of the D-C schema (environmental, interpersonal, paralinguistic, and intrapersonal or EIPI) and the three opportunities to employ control options (pre-, during, and post-assignment) comprise the theoretical framework that we use for conceptualizing and understanding the work of an interpreter (Dean & Pollard, 2001; Dean & Pollard, in press). It is the foundation upon which the other three D-C schema elements noted above are built. Imparting this basic theoretical information to students is relatively straight-forward and could be a part of any foundation IPP course, such as Principles of Interpreting or Introduction to Interpreting. Students learn to apply the schema and become competent with its terminology and purpose through a series of exercises called situational analyses. Whether through the stimulus of a picture from a magazine, a television show segment, or from observation of some event, students employ the EIPI template to consider the demands presented by this hypothetical interpreting assignment. Students then consider what control options are available to the interpreter to respond to the given demands.

D-C schema as dialogic work analysis. Once a student understands this foundation material and how to effectively examine interpreting work through the D-C schema "lens," students then can begin to consider the *implications* of their proposed control options. The initial work of identifying demands and pairing them with potential control ideas creates a natural step to the subsequent task of *critiquing* interpreting work decisions. Students are asked to consider the positive and negative consequences that control decisions inherently create. The situational analyses tasks such as picture analysis and in-vivo observations can be expanded to include this new element of dialogic work analysis. This type of analysis fosters development of students' critical thinking and judgment skills, which is a vital part of all practice-profession education. Accordingly, the dialogic work analysis element of the D-C schema could be employed in ethics courses or practicum seminars as students discuss real work decisions, or even in IPP skills courses where students can discuss the implications of various translation decisions. (For further discussion of the utility of the D-C schema in framing ethical and work effectiveness decisions, see Dean and Pollard (in press).

Note that the D-C theory and dialogic work analysis elements do not necessarily require new courses or an overhaul of the IPP curriculum. Understanding the nature of interpreting work, developing good practice judgment, and appreciating the complex nature of work ethics have always been objectives in IPP education. Employing the D-C schema as a theoretical construct and as dialogic work analysis affords IPP instructors and mentors a cohesive framework and a common terminology for understanding and analyzing interpreting work. As one of our colleagues at UT noted, “The demand-control schema has simply become the way we discuss the work of an interpreter” (IAE, 2003).

<u>D-C schema as a learning tool</u>. D-C schema as a learning tool is consistent with the growing movement in education away from didactic, teacher-driven classrooms and toward student-driven education. One such movement in medical education, problem-based learning (PBL), was developed in response to the critique that newly graduated physicians were lacking in their ability to interview and diagnose patients (interpersonal skills) and their ability to critically think through patient care and treatment decisions (judgment skills). In PBL approaches, medical students begin interacting with patients in their first year and learn medical information contextually, through active involvement in patient cases.

The main goal of the UR-UT project and the implementation of PBL-style observation-supervision courses in particular is to graduate students with good interpersonal and judgment skills in addition to a realistic understanding of the nature of interpreting work. Observation-supervision posits that, in light of the more holistic view of interpreting work emphasized by the D-C schema, learning about specialty content work (e.g., legal, medical, mental health) is optimized by being in those specific environments and understanding the goal of those environments, the characteristics and motivations of the people present, and the typical communication exchanges that occur in those settings. (See Dean, Pollard, & English, in this volume, and Dean & Pollard, in press) for more detailed discussion of the observation-supervision method.) Utilizing a D-

C structured observation form, students come away from observations with a rich and realistic understanding of the demands present in the observed environment. Then, in supervision sessions with an interpreter teacher or mentor, observation material is used by the students and instructor to hypothesize work scenarios and potential control ideas, including specific translation and behavioral decisions. Specialty content knowledge is also passed on through this contextualized work analysis discussion. The dialogic work analysis of critiquing controls in light of their consequences is an important element in supervision and, with repeated practice, students become increasingly sophisticated at "self-supervision" or the ability to critique their own work decisions.

Unlike the first two D-C schema elements (theory and dialogic work analysis), PBL-style courses and observation-supervision require significantly more teacher training and adaptation or augmentation of the curriculum. IPP instructors could add courses or redesign existing courses to feature PBL elements. Alternately, observation-supervision could be included in existing specialty content courses or practica. Observation-supervision also lends itself to skills courses where the communication exchanges that take place in observation settings are recorded and analyzed for potential interpretation and translation options. This approach helps students see how the specific elements of environmental and situational context impact translation decisions.

<u>D-C schema as an assessment tool</u>. Employing the above D-C schema elements in an IPP implies a desire to impart a new theoretical perspective about the nature of interpreting work, employ a new, theory-driven approach to the development of critical thinking and judgment skills, offer direct exposure to common or challenging interpreting work settings (but not via traditional observation of other interpreters and deaf consumers), and foster student appreciation for the profound impact that different settings and circumstances have on interpreting work. To be comprehensive in support of such goals, the D-C schema must offer a unique approach to student assessment. In other practice professions, practical exams assess a student's ability to synthesize and demonstrate new knowledge *along with and embedded within* a demonstration of their judgment skills. Practical exams assess not only students' abilities to recall import content information, but also their ability to critique and articulate potential work decisions. This type of exam could be given periodically throughout a course, at the end of relevant courses, or at the

culmination of the student's education. Practical exams based on the D-C schema have been developed and employed in the UR-UT project and in UR's mental health interpreter training project (see Dean, Pollard, and English, this volume).

IPP instructors and mentors may employ the above D-C schema elements in a wide variety of ways. Approximately 15 IPPs other than UT are presently doing so. Each can offer their unique perspective on what implementation methods are most feasible, most desirable, and what the benefits, limitations, and drawbacks of various implementation options are. Below, five other IPP faculty or interpreter mentors offer information and insights into their experiences in implementing D-C schema elements into their teaching.

Amanda Smith

Johnson County Community College

My first exposure to the demand-control (D-C) schema was at the 2003 RID convention in Chicago. I was riveted by the possible implications for working interpreters, students, and mentees. In my capacity as Workshop Coordinator for the RSA7, I brought Robyn Dean and Robert Pollard out to Kansas City to provide in-depth training in the schema. The initial weekend was designed as an introduction to the D-C schema for working interpreters and students and the following two weekends were designed for those interested in implementing this work in teaching and mentorship. This is a fascinating schema and so crucial in the education of future interpreters.

After the first weekend of training, I added an assignment for my students in the Orientation to Interpreting course. They were required to go and observe communication. I provided them with parameters and guiding questions (not as extensive as the ones I later received from Robyn). The students seemed to benefit from this observation. It allowed them to see what communication looks like as a non-participant and how people interact with one another. I also conducted a picture analysis in class. This was beneficial for them because, even though they were only first semester students, they were able to identify areas of concentration and factors present in the scenario that may impact the work of an interpreter. I did not use the D-C schema terminology of "demands" and "controls." Instead I referred to the same elements as "factors" and "options." At that time, I was not formally trained in the D-C schema and therefore was not familiar or comfortable enough with the terminology. Now, I am much more comfortable using it.

I also utilized this schema in a mentoring relationship with a student who had taken a year off from the program. In this relationship, I utilized picture analysis primarily (pictures and scenarios provided by me as well as by the mentee). This also seemed to be very beneficial for this student. It allowed her to think of other aspects within interpreting than just linguistic aspects. Sometimes, our discussions did lead to linguistic topics: "How would you convey this concept to the consumer?" Mostly though, it allowed her to see the interpreting task as a whole and not just about sign-word relationships.

In my opinion, the D-C schema would be a welcome addition to any IPP - equipping faculty with tools, terms, and concepts for conveying all the non-linguistic requirements of our job. As a working interpreter, I love having the terminology and a "label" for the things I must consider (and have done in my work prior to receiving the D-C language to describe it) as well as having common terms to discuss and process with colleagues.

Jean Parmir

Ohio School for the Deaf

I first encountered the concept of the D-C schema by attending a workshop offered at my state RID conference. At that time, my primary duties were providing workshops for and consulting with educational interpreters. I found the information comforting when I thought about my own work as an interpreter. I did not explore it deeper; I was doing little interpreting and did not feel I understood it well enough to incorporate it in my workshops. Later, I was reintroduced to the D-C schema as a member of Cohort 2 of the TIEM Master Mentor Program (MMP). In the MMP, we considered our own interpretations and discussed the process. The impact the D-C schema had on us and on the way we were able to discuss our work with each other was powerful.

In my work as a mentor, I often have used the D-C schema both overtly, through explanations and by providing readings, and obliquely by asking questions that allow the mentee to explore the demands and controls she has experienced. As with my MMP classmates, mentees have found this approach to be a powerful way to look at their work in a way that is nonjudgmental, considers important factors, and brings to mind additional options for decision-making. The D-C schema fits with the mentoring approach in that the mentee has the knowledge (of the demands and controls), the mentor is able to ask questions that guide rather than telling the mentee what to do, and the mentee develops a way of looking at the interpreting task that can continue to be valuable after the official mentoring relationship has ended. I know my work as a mentor would not be as effective without this tool.

Brian Morrison

Camden Community College

I was first introduced to Dean and Pollard's demand-control schema for interpreting work at the 2003 RID Conference in Chicago. Immediately, I was very fascinated by the theoretical construct as it seemed to make perfect sense as a way to look at interpreting work. As a fairly new teacher of interpreting, I was excited to bring this information to my students.

In the Fall of 2003, I taught a class called Interpreting Seminar. The course description was: "Students will be exposed to a variety of specialized interpreting situations, such as legal, deaf-blind, medical, mental health, rehabilitation, and educational environments. Students will have the opportunity to interact with working professional interpreters who have in-depth experience in the above-mentioned environments."

Since the class was designed as an observational class, I thought this would be a great opportunity to work with the D-C schema. Students so rarely are able to observe these kinds of situations; I thought I could "bring" these situations to the classroom. I contacted Robyn Dean and talked with her about how the D-C schema might apply in this type of course. She was absolutely great in sending me class materials and offering her help every step of the way.

Being new to the concept myself, I introduced the material to the class in small steps. With the picture analysis material provided by Robyn, we used pictures and scenarios to brainstorm demands from the four demand categories. After sufficient time and practice was spent on considering the demands, we brainstormed and discussed corresponding controls. After this in-class exercise, the time came for the students to complete a picture analysis assignment on their own. When they were completed, I faxed the completed assignments to Robyn who then critiqued them and was able to demonstrate to me what elements constitute a good D-C analysis. Based on this new information, I graded a couple of the student's assignments myself and shared these with Robyn. She, in turn, critiqued my evaluations of the students' work.

Throughout this whole process, I saw the students become very interested in the D-C schema as well. I noticed that when we would discuss the schema in class and apply it to interpreting work, all of the students were active participants. Whereas in many classes, the students that are the "better signers" tend to do the majority of the talking but in using the D-C schema, all of the students participated on an equal level. It was also very nice to see the schema emerge in other courses as students discussed interpreting work using demand-control terminology.

I think using the D-C schema has not only benefited my students and my teaching, but in my own interpreting work as well. I am looking forward to expanding my knowledge about it and using it more in my work.

Leah Subak

Kent State University

The demand-control (D-C) schema, as it has been described by Dean and Pollard, has been extremely useful in explaining situations that may arise when working as an educational interpreter. The decision to infuse the D-C schema into the curriculum at Kent State University (KSU) has led to a variety of changes listed/described below.

1. Deciding in which class to teach the fundamentals of the D-C schema
   Since interpreters need to make interpreting/professional conduct decisions at all times while working, the D-C schema is able to be discussed in most interpreting-related classes in some respect. However, in-depth introduction seemed to fit best into the course that deals with ethical decisions or professional conduct.

2. Deciding how to explain the D-C schema

   Students are introduced to the D-C schema during their initial interpreting course at KSU and the schema is at least referenced in all subsequent interpreting-related courses. In the course, which takes a deeper look at the D-C schema, students read several articles about it as well as instructor-generated material to aid them in their understanding of the schema. Students also are guided through picture analyses of various scenarios that may occur while interpreting. Journals are used to present scenarios and as a way to check student understanding of how to handle the scenarios applying the D-C schema. The following semester, a course that incorporates practicum hours is utilized to apply concepts of D-C while in the field. The ideal is to pair the D-C schema with a course that incorporates practicum hours as well.
3. Deciding how to bring all students in the program up to speed no matter in what year of the program they are

   When making the decision to start to incorporate D-C, students who were in various years in the program needed to be taught the information in the courses that a) seemed like a logical fit to introduce the material and b) were at a place that would allow the student to still utilize the material as best they could. With forethought and planning, incorporating the D-C schema has been accomplished at all levels of the program even though not all students learned it from one specific course.

The D-C schema is a useful tool that aids students in making decisions and works well when accompanied by guidance from a seasoned interpreter/practicum supervisor.

Stacey Storme

Johnson County Community College

The first time I attended a session on the D-C schema presented by Robyn Dean and Robert Pollard, I felt a flood of excitement and relief. Excitement for how the content fit so perfectly with the way I perceive the work of an interpreter as well as for the lively way the information was being presented. The relief I felt was in response to the anxiety I often feel as an interpreter educator. What I was hearing nailed the ever-present concerns that are constantly nagging at me about graduating interpreting students who are not sufficiently prepared to enter the workforce due to what I perceive to be a lacking curricula.

The D-C schema has the potential to provide educators with both a vital framework and a clear language with which to teach students about the practice profession of interpreting. After attending that first session, I quickly realized the schema is deceptively simple. Just because I “got it” so easily did not mean I was equipped to so quickly incorporate it into my teaching.

Since students do not have the hands-on experience of interpreting, this schema must be shared with them gradually and firmly in beginning courses and built upon in subsequent courses. While I was able to plant the seed in students by exposing them to pieces of the schema, I knew I needed more training to be able to share it with students in a way that they would see it as a relevant tool rather than pure theory to memorize. I have since attended three 12-hour sessions on teaching the D-C schema taught by Robyn and Bob and am looking forward to infusing our curricula with this meaningful framework!

UR’s Second FIPSE Proposal

Robyn K. Dean and Robert Q Pollard, Jr.

Given the success of the first FIPSE project and the remaining questions and challenges for curricular implementation, it is our intention to follow up this work with a dissemination project to begin in the summer of 2005. If our upcoming dissemination grant proposal is funded by FIPSE, the collaborative project will involve approximately fifteen IPPs and their faculty from across the country. Each IPP will consider the four D-C schema elements described above – D-C schema as a theoretical construct, as dialogic work analysis, as a learning tool, and as an assessment tool – and implement these elements within existing or, for some, newly created courses. In the first phase of the dissemination project, the expertise and diversity of the participating IPP faculty in creatively infusing these D-C schema elements into their existing teaching methods and curricular structures will yield data regarding varied and optimal implementation options and related curricular materials. In the second phase of the project, these recommendations and materials will be piloted by a second group of participating IPPs.

Those wishing to remain up to date on D-C schema teaching and research opportunities and progress are encouraged to visit the UR Deaf Wellness Center’s website: www.urmc.rochester.edu/dwc and join Robyn Dean's D-C schema teaching list serve by sending an e-mail message to: TeachingviaDCS-subscribe@yahoogroups.com.

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Dimensions of Ethical Decision-Making: A Guide for Interpreter Educators

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Abstract
Ethical and moral thinking has traditionally received limited attention as part of the curricula in many Interpreter Preparation Programs (IPPs) in the United States (Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998). Since the majority of entry-level practitioners work in isolation without benefit of supervision or peer collaboration, the entering workforce generally feels under-prepared to make consistent and reliable ethical decisions (Dean & Pollard, 2001;Witter-Merithew, Johnson, & Taylor, 2004). It is our belief and experience that ethical decision-making is a complex process that encompasses career and lifelong learning. By infusing the study of moral and ethical thinking into IPPs and providing In-Service Training Programs (ISTP) for working practitioners, current and future practitioners can develop the critical thinking and reflective analysis skills necessary to enhance career and lifelong ethical decision-making processes (Gish, 1990; Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998; Cokely, 2000; Reifel & Nicodemus, 2000; Humphrey & Alcorn, 2001; Hoza, 2003). The focus of this paper is to describe an approach that interpreter educators can use to

lead learners and practitioners through an exploration of the dimensions associated with ethical thinking and decision-making. A theoretical framework for teaching ethical decision-making will be supported by a variety of learning activities designed to model the use of the approach within a classroom or workshop setting.

Introduction

According to ethicist Ernle Young (2004), morality tends to be specific to groups and is tied often to the predominant religious tradition of that group. Thus, moral decision-making draws from different religious sources, traditions and authorities. In contrast, ethics is a more public enterprise and has, as its foundation, a common language of reason that enables people of different groups to identify around common values and towards common social goals. Applying these distinctions to interpreting practitioners and the consumers of interpreting services suggests that we must learn the use of that common language in a public forum to enable us to assess the appropriateness or the inappropriateness of attitudes, beliefs, actions and behaviors that affect each and every decision we make, both personally and professionally. Accordingly, an important role of interpreter educators is to facilitate learners' acquisition and application of this common language toward the greater purpose of developing and fine-tuning those skills necessary for ethical decision-making.

As interpreter educators, we engage learners in considering and identifying their moral convictions and beliefs in a cultural, geographic and historic context, contrasting their convictions and beliefs with those held by others, and ultimately identifying universal principles that transcend different groups—such as truthfulness, trust, integrity, responsibility. As professional interpreters, these universal principles in conjunction with the profession's Code of Ethics can serve as the foundation for the development of ethical decision-making skills. Developing this foundation is typically a developmental process requiring regular discussion—both in and out of our classrooms—and leading to the realization that perfect solutions to ethical dilemmas do not exist (Gish, 1990; Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998; Cokely, 2000; Hoza, 2003;Young, 2004). Often, a result of formal, collaborative discourse occurring within a workshop, academic or professional setting, is the realization that as interpreters we must learn to make decisions based on our best professional judgment. Given our heterogeneity, our best professional judgment comes from our collective experience and the best practices that have emerged from within the interpreting profession.

Based on a survey of over 50 IPPs in the United States, most do not offer a formal course of study in ethics, but rather, have addressed the RID Code of Ethics as a topic within another course (Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998, 2004). In fact, throughout our 40 years of history, often, the sole source of professional guidance in making ethical decisions within the field of interpreting has been reading the eight (8) tenets of the RID Code of Ethics. Given the rule-based, deontological nature of the current RID Code (Cokely, 2000), future practitioners graduate with limited understanding of how to identify and distinguish between ethical dilemmas and other decisions we must make in a professional capacity (Kidder, 1995; Hoza, 2003; Witter-Merithew, Johnson, & Taylor, 2004). At the same time, many IPPs remain within a 2-year college setting where learners are not required to take a course(s) in Philosophy, which would enhance the critical thinking and reflection skills associated with moral decision making. All of the above results in a workforce that has traditionally been under-prepared and/or feels under-prepared to make consistent and reliable ethical decisions (Dean & Pollard, 2001;Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 2004; Witter-Merithew, Johnson, & Taylor, 2004) in a day and age where ethical dilemmas are becoming more complex and challenging to resolve.

Support for Infusing Ethical Decision-Making into Educational Programs

There are a variety of reasons for infusing a formal study of moral and ethical thinking and decision-making into IPP curricula. The work of Young (2004) related to medical education indicates several reasons that are worthy of mention and are easily applicable to our audience. Moral and ethical thinking and decision-making is an excellent vehicle to generate interest and establish the relevancy of interpreting within a broader social context. It provides learners an interesting entry point to the field of interpreting, by engaging them in discussions that involve personal values, rights, and responsibilities and how these impact the work and role of interpreters. Also, the ambiguities of moral and ethical viewpoints challenge critical thinking abilities and promote the development of decision-making strategies. As interpreter educators, we recognize that these abilities are fundamental to other aspects of the interpreting process.

After learners are interested in the experiences of interpreters and consumers at an emotional level, they are more motivated to discover the facts, better understand the nature of interpreting work, and the associated moral and ethical dilemmas, which help in preparing learners to come up with reasonable solutions or courses of action. Language use and, therefore, interpreting is not void of personal or societal values, and dilemmas related to each are open to subjective interpretation. With the complex issues currently confronting deaf people in society (e.g., mainstreaming, cochlear implants, technology), identifying purely empirical value-free or value-neutral dilemmas is difficult—thus perpetuating the complexity of the decision-making process. Perceptions regarding the range of issues and opportunities facing deaf individuals are colored by values (Gish, 1990; Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998, 2004). The more these issues and the related interpreting dilemmas are discussed within a real-world context, the better-prepared learners and practitioners will be to confront real-world experiences as interpreters.

Decision-making, related to ethical dilemmas facing interpreters, often comes down to a question of values or determining priorities in the presence of competing values. “Learners need to understand the difference between fact, opinion, and values; and develop an ability to make rational decisions, while recognizing the role of subjective interpretation (Young, 2004, p. 6).” Discussion of ethical dilemmas facing interpreters is not about having learners determine concrete answers; rather it is about exploring multiple points of view and perspectives, and using critical and reflective analysis to make a reasonable decision and take responsible action. Young states that it is the personal element, however, that makes an ethics analysis truly gripping. Many different information sources can be used to help learners explore perspectives on a dilemma—such as interviews with seasoned practitioners and consumers, literature searches, Internet research, and hands-on experiments. “The ultimate goal is that learners gather information, analyze and classify complex viewpoints, develop realistic alternatives, and then express their findings in cogent, organized fashion (Young, 2004, p. 4).” Such discussions ask learners to demonstrate critical thinking skills in an authentic situation and help learners develop the ability to articulate the rationales for their respective viewpoints (Humphrey & Alcorn, 2001).

How then, do we specifically help students of interpreting and current practitioners develop the skills to make difficult, yet necessary choices, to appreciate and understand the perspectives of others, to shape the kind of world they—and deaf people—want to live in, to be moral and live/work with integrity? Young states, "The fundamental question of whether virtues are taught, inherited, or passed on by some other mechanism has been attributed to Plato more than 2,000 years ago (2004, p. 1)." It is our perspective that values and moral knowledge will ideally be acquired through real world experiences—in the same manner as other forms of content knowledge. This approach is consistent with other contemporary theories within our field—such as furthered in the Demand-Control Theory (Dean & Pollard, 2001). If we agree, as educators, that the acquisition and application of all types of knowledge is dependent upon exposure to content, properly timed experience, and practice with different types of reasoning skills, then Young (2004) suggests two things about how we should teach the process of ethical decision-making. First, we need to regularly provide learners with an opportunity to engage in discussions that allow them to examine their own values. Secondly, that discussion must have a real world context in which moral and ethical reasoning processes may occur. Based on over a decade of individual and collaborative teaching experience related specifically to this content area, we have documented a series of learning activities that we have found to support these two fundamental concepts and believe may be useful to other interpreter educators.

In a workbook entitled *The Dimensions of Ethical Decision-Making: A Guided Exploration for Sign Language Interpreters,* we have organized a series of developmental exercises and activities designed to guide learners towards higher degrees of ethical fitness by facilitating their process of values clarification and self-discovery/reflection. The exercises and activities in the workbook apply various theoretical frameworks put forth by researchers and ethicists who have studied the complexities of ethical and moral development. These theoretical frameworks help educators identify the current stages of ethical and moral development in which we find learners and practitioners initially, as well as, guide educators in helping learners and practitioners transcend earlier stages toward more mature stages of development.

Theoretical Foundation for the Workbook

One such theorist is William Graves Perry, Jr. The work of Dr. Perry, a former psychology professor to graduate learners and researcher at Harvard University, has contributed immensely to our understanding of the stages of ethical and moral development. During the 1960's, through his work with undergraduate learners, Perry researched learners' intellectual and ethical development, which formed the basis of his theory. His research culminated in his landmark book, *Forms of Ethical and Intellectual Development in the College Years* published in 1970 and most recently reprinted in 1999.

Perry outlines four distinct stages of intellectual and ethical development that can be built upon to understand ethical development within the field of interpreting: Basic Dualism, Multiplicity, Relativism Subordinate, and Relativism. Belenky, et al. (1986), in the text *Women's Ways of Knowing*, provide a feminist orientation to the developmental process, and labeled these states as Received Knowledge, Subjective Knowledge, Procedural Knowledge, and Constructed Knowledge.

Basic Dualism/Received Knowledge

- Learner …
    - Views the world in polarities
    - Depends on authorities to hand down the truth and teach him/her right from wrong
    - Looks to parents, teachers, friends, rules, or colleagues to provide the direction for decision-making
    - Expects "the right answer"

Multiplicity/Subjective Knowledge

- Learner begins to…
    - Carve out his/her own opinions and thoughts
    - Develop personal freedom due to recognition of diversity of opinion and multiple perspectives that exist in society
    - Test the beliefs and values 'received' from parents and family
    - Challenge their acquired beliefs and begin to cement or reform ideals and values

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Relativism Subordinate/Procedural Knowledge

- Learner begins to…
    - Develop an analytical and evaluative approach to ethical choices because the teacher insists on evidence and support of opinions
    - Ask and answer the question, "Why do I/you believe that?"
    - Develop the necessary analytical skills to determine ethical choices based on a rationale supported by evidence and reasoning

Relativism/Constructed Knowledge

- Learner…
  - Comprehends that "truth" is relative
  - Recognizes that meaning depends on the context and the framework the "knower" uses to understand
  - Develops the skills to look beyond his or her own "truth" to determine the available ethical choices appropriate for the people involved in a particular setting
  - Realizes no "one rule fits all" approach to ethical decision-making
  - Accepts responsibility for the way situations are viewed and interpreted, which leads to a range of informed choices

Anecdotal discourse among learners, practitioners and interpreter educators indicates that many interpreters are still at a state of received knowledge—looking for specific and hard-fast answers to ethical dilemmas (Witter-Merithew and Stewart, 1998, Witter-Merithew, Johnson, & Taylor, 2004). Movement from one stage of ethical development to another is based on the experiences we go through, the learning we derive from those experiences, and our ability to use critical reflection to gain higher degrees of self-awareness and maturity. Educators can use the framework offered by Perry both to identify where learners fit into the continuum and to know which activities best promote movement from one stage to the next.

In addition to the work of Perry and Belenky, et al., other theoretical frameworks for the workbook were taken primarily from two important textbooks contributing to contemporary thought related to moral and ethical development. These two texts are recommended as companions to the workbook.

- Covey, S. (1989). *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*. NYC, NY: Fireside Book from Simon & Schuster Publishers.
- Kidder, R. (1995). *How Good People Make Tough Choices.* NYC, NY: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Both Covey and Kidder have contributed significantly to our own thinking about ethical decision-making and our teaching regarding the subject. Although the workbook can be completed without these two textbooks, it is our belief that the exploration of this subject will be more rich and thorough by reading these texts in concert with the workbook. Each chapter in the workbook has specific recommendations for the corresponding readings from these two texts.

The goal of an IPP or ISTP in addressing moral and ethical decision-making as part of the curricula is to facilitate the movement of aspiring and working practitioners towards the achievement of ethical fitness (Kidder, 1995;Witter-Merithew & Stewart, 1998; Reifel and Nicodemus, 2000) by fostering the development of character and ethical decision-making skills. Ethical fitness as defined by Kidder is:

> …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. (Kidder, p. 57)

Achieving fitness is a complex process, involving many steps. These steps can be categorized into the domains of character building (Josephson, M. & Hanson, W., 1998); steps that focus on values clarification and self-awareness, and ethical and moral decision-making; steps that focus on the critical reflection and analysis of real-world experiences encountered by working interpreters and consumers (Josephson, M., 2002). Illustration 1 provides a representation of the blocks of learning the authors view as essential in moving learners towards the achievement of ethical fitness.

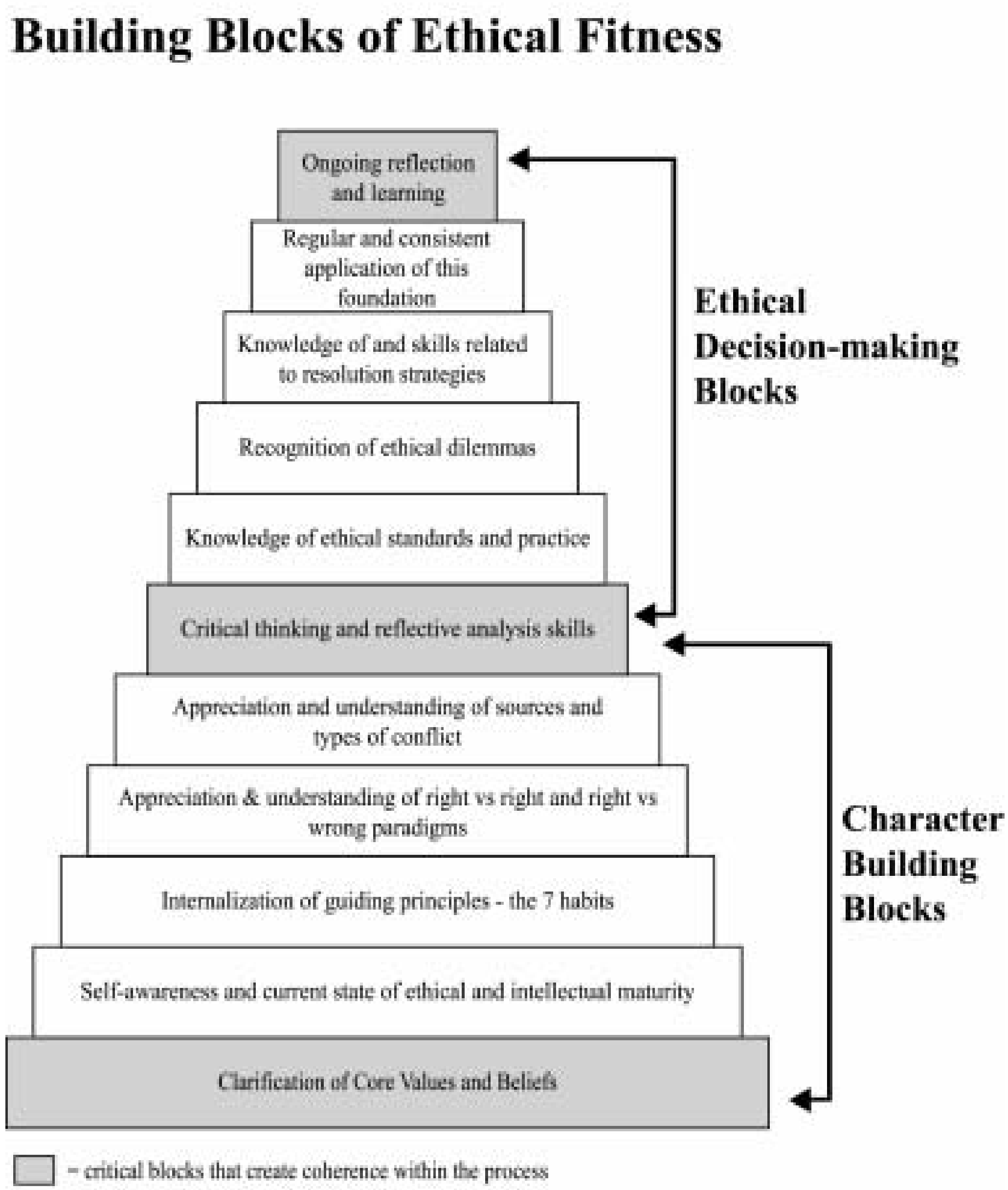


Illustration 1

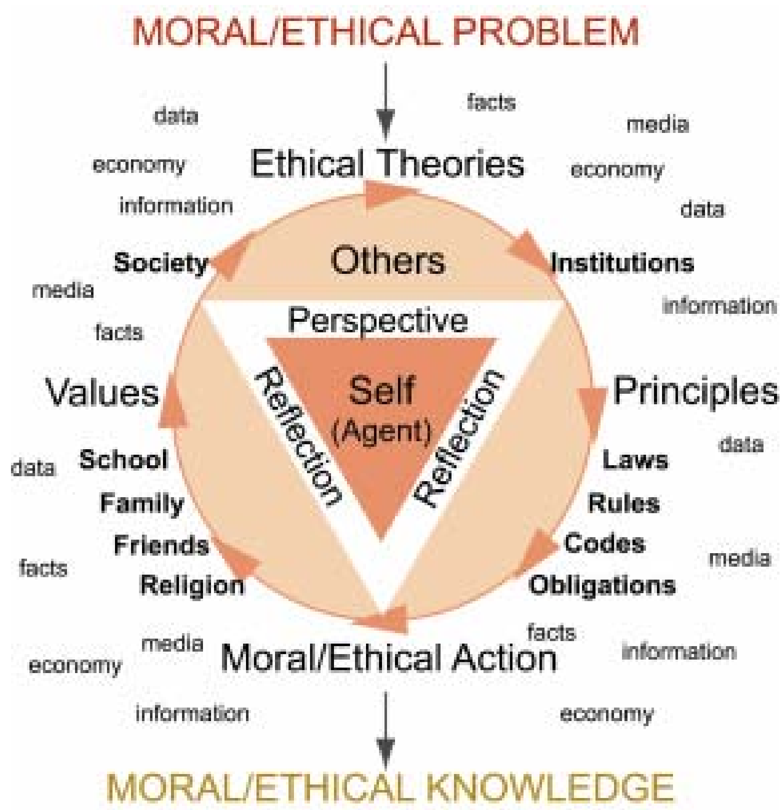
On a practical level, the learning blocks in Illustration 1 can be used as the foundation for creating a course, series of courses, or more systematically infusing all courses with learning related to ethical decision-making. Developmentally, each block in the illustration can be addressed through a series of exercises and activities, scaffolding learning in each domain towards the achievement of higher degrees of ethical maturity and fitness. The Illustration also denotes three essential dimensions of ethical fitness:

Values Clarification, Critical Thinking and Analytical Skills, On-going Reflection and Learning.

In the first critical dimension—Values Clarification—learners explore the factors impacting their own world-view and identify the factors, influences and values that motivate their decision-making. This dimension engages learners in a process of self-exploration towards increased self-awareness and understanding. As previously mentioned, since the most gripping aspect of ethical decision-making is the personal, this dimension is an essential part of the maturing process. The second critical dimension—Critical Thinking and Analytical Skills—focuses on the acquisition and application of critical thinking and analytical skills from a moral and ethical orientation. In this phase of exploration, the learner moves through a series of case studies addressing general social dilemmas to specific interpreting dilemmas. This movement between general to specific moral and ethical dilemmas fosters the development of a broader lens for perceiving and understanding the source of conflict and the possible orientations to decision-making. As well during this stage, learners are exposed to a variety of conflict resolution principles and decision-making models that can be applied and evaluated. The final critical dimension—On-going Reflection and Learning—relates to exploring the role of ongoing reflection and learning as an integral part of ethical fitness. As we encourage learners to become life-long/career-long learners, it is essential to explore the value of professional communities of inquiry and practice as living entities that bring together our collective experiences and knowledge towards the continuing evolution of best practices.

In addition to the work of Perry, Belenky, Covey, and Kidder, further analysis of the work of ethicist Ernle Young (2003) provides a framework for capturing the many factors and influences that impact moral and ethical thinking and decision-making and has framed the breadth of values clarification activities addressed in the workbook. In his book on life in the face of death, Young describes an approach that has application to the practice of interpreting. Young offers a five-step model for resolving moral and ethical dilemmas that allows for the consideration and integration of the various factors and influences on the decision-making process. His model encourages learners to 1) Define the problem; 2) Collect as much information as possible; 3) Identify the important values and principles; 4) Reflect on personal motives and intentions; and 5) Prioritize and make a responsible decision. This basic model of critical thinking and analysis has been adapted throughout the workbook.

The following graphic, adapted from the work of Csongradi (2004) further illustrates the complex mix of factors and influences an individual confronts when seeking to resolve ethical dilemmas. Central to the graphic is the individual who holds a specific perspective or world-view that is the result of their life experiences. Their life experiences have been influenced by the broader context in which they live—a range of other individuals, and a range of social, cultural and political institutions. These other individuals and institutions impact what the individual believes, how they think, how they act, and what they hold as their core values. Because ethical maturity is rooted in a common language of reason that enables individuals of all different groups to identify around common values and towards common social goals, ethical reasoning becomes an added dimension that surrounds the experiences of the individual. This dimension of reasoning cannot be fully realized until the individual understands how their thinking and perspectives are impacted by their individual experiences and they develop the character necessary for assuming the privileges and liabilities associated with being a professional practitioner. The opportunity to explore the range of factors and influences impacting an individual and the implications for ethical decision-making are integrated throughout the workbook.



Graphic taken from the article entitled, "Why Teach Bioethics in the Classroom? A New Look at an Old Debate", by Carolyn Csongradi. Permission to use this graphic is granted by Csongradi and Access Excellence at the National Health Museum. http://www.accessexcellence.org/LC/SER/BE/
The article and website offer a wide range of resources for teachers in the area of moral and ethical decision-making.

Within the workbook there are many examples of moral and ethical dilemmas related to the world in general and interpreting specifically, designed to engage learners in discussions that allow them to apply the model. The dilemmas are presented most often in the form of a Case Study or through the learner's analysis of a real world observation/experience. The critical component of Young's model is that the five-step analytical process he suggests needs to be developed within a meaningful context. The meaningful context is contributed to by the learner's analysis of the various factors and influences identified in the work of Csongradi.

Workbook Format and Activities

To make the lessons from the workbook meaningful, it is designed for spiraled learning—meaning that concepts are introduced and discussed, then followed by activities structured to allow for application of the learning to the real-world experiences of interpreters. For example, many of the interpreter-related Case Studies used in the workbook are based on experiences shared by fellow practitioners from their own practice, or from our own direct experiences as practitioners. As well, learners bring their own direct observation and experience to the Case Study process.

Each Chapter builds on the learning from the previous Chapter—the goal being to foster movement towards higher degrees of ethical maturity and fitness by exploring specific dimensions of the process independently. Then, using prior learning, learners integrate another dimension, and repeat the process until all the dimensions being addressed in the workbook are integrated into a whole. Respecting the varying backgrounds and learning styles of the possible learners who might use the workbook, we sought to target different orientations to learning—personal reflection through journaling, collaborated learning through open discussion, as well as formalized debates with other learners, critical analysis through Case Study, independent research and exploration through online websites and other resources, use of graphics to reinforce key points discussed in text form, use of supplemental readings, and access to several related online spoken English lectures. Additionally, the focus on each dimension of ethical decision-making addressed in the workbook begins with attention to broad principles that are then narrowed to their application to interpreting.

There are seven (7) chapters in the workbook—each addressing a different dimension of ethical decision-making. Each chapter is set up in the following manner:

Section	**Contents**
Chapter Overview	This section offers a preview of what will be addressed in the Chapter in a summary format.
Terminology	Terms and phrases that are unique to the Chapter and that may have specific meaning as it relates to the topic of ethical decision-making are defined in advance of reading the Chapter content in an effort to aid the synthesis of the content.
Case Study	Case Studies are used throughout the workbook. Some of them—particularly in the early portion of the workbook—deal with broad social and moral dilemmas. Others deal with dilemmas that are part of interactions within the Deaf Community or dilemmas specific to the work of interpreters.

Section	**Contents**
Discussion Questions	A series of discussion questions are included at the end of each Case Study. These questions are designed to foster analysis of central issues that emerge within each Case Study and a consideration of various perspectives impacting the Case Study. The discussions are designed to promote interaction between learners during online discussion forums or in-class/study discussion groups. There is important benefit from collaborated discussion around the issues and perspectives that each case evokes—participation in collaborated discussion fosters deeper understanding and broadens world-view.
Supporting Discussion	This section introduces the chapter content—the discussion of specific principles and concepts that impact ethical decision-making. The Supporting Discussion elaborates the theoretical foundation supporting the specific dimension of decision-making being addressed.
Case Analysis	In this section, the Supporting Discussion is applied to the Case Study offered earlier in the chapter, or in some instances, a new Case Study. In this manner, the supporting discussion is applied to the analysis of a Case Study and provides a mechanism for the learner to reflect on her or his own analysis. The goal is to promote deeper levels of understanding and application of the theoretical principles and concepts addressed in the Chapter Supporting Discussion. At various points in the Case Analysis, learners will be encouraged to share thoughts and insights through a collaborated discussion with other learners—either during online discussions or in-class/study group discussions.
Summary	The Summary of the Chapter provides closing thoughts and highlights the critical points from the chapter.
Journal Activity	In an effort to promote self-awareness and critical reflection, each chapter engages the learner in a journal activity that fosters the exploration of core values and beliefs and how they impact the learner specifically. The journaling is of a personal nature and affords the learner the opportunity to explore how the chapter content impacts them directly.
Other Activities	The activities associated with each chapter include a variety of online searches, completion of online surveys, reading of professional articles, or other related activities. All the activities are designed to provide the learner with the opportunity to further explore the principles and concepts associated with the chapter and to allow for more application of the new learning.

Section	Contents
Recommended Readings	The recommended readings relate specifically to the Covey and Kidder textbooks that are recommended companions to the workbook. The related sections of each book are included and provide an expanded foundation to the Supporting Discussion offered in the workbook.

The final chapter focuses on continuing the exploration of ethical decision-making and ethical fitness beyond the workbook through career and life-long learning. A variety of resources have been provided to support such an endeavor.

The overarching goal in the organization and design of the workbook is to provide a balance between thinking and learning about the subject matter and applying new knowledge about the subject matter—both through consideration of the learner's own personal experience and by exploring and analyzing the experiences of others. It is this balance that we have both found most useful in our own continuing journey toward ethical fitness.

Sample Excerpts of Workbook Exercises

For the purpose of providing a brief look at the type of exercises offered in the workbook, here are three excerpts showing examples of a debate exercise, a journaling exercise, and a Case Study discussion exercise. A debate exercise would involve contrasting perspectives and thinking about topics from a variety of points of view, formulating a position and creating persuasive argument. A journaling exercise would be a reflective exercise in which the learner must write introspectively. A Case Study discussion exercise would generate large or small group discussion related to case stimuli and engage learners in the application of various models of decision-making—such as Young's 5 step-model, or models offered by both Covey and Kidder in the recommended companion texts.

- ***Excerpt – Debate Skill Development Activity #1 from Chapter 3***

  Developing and fine-tuning skills in public debate can help us learn the art associated with argument. Not only do debate skills help us view conflicts and differences of opinions by forcing us to look at opposing points of view, but they also help us develop argument skills associated with our demeanor when discussing opposing points of view.

Debate Process Overview:

- Choose sides of 2-5 members per team. Each team can choose a captain or spokesperson if desired.
- Choose a topic for debate.
- Assign opposing sides of the argument to each team. It is advantageous to assign sides of the argument in which a team may disagree within reality. By asking a team to argue the side in which they personally disagree, the individuals learn the skills related to viewing a perspective from the other side. This provides great insight for them into how the "other" sees the issue.
- Give an agreed upon amount of time for the groups to prepare their arguments.
- Flip a coin to determine which side begins. Each side receives 5 minutes to present their arguments. They cannot be interrupted during their time to speak. The opposing side should be taking notes and listening to the team speaking in order to prepare their rebuttal.
- After each side has presented arguments, the team that first began will present their rebuttal to the arguments of the other team. During a rebuttal, the team is only allowed to focus on arguments, which the opposing team presented. In other words, new arguments are not entertained.
- Each team should take 2-3 minutes for the rebuttal portion.
- Once the rebuttals are over, the debate ends.
- Open up discussion to the whole class or group. Everyone should analyze the arguments in terms of their persuasiveness, strengths, weaknesses, etc.

Possible Debate Topics:

- The role of the interpreter as Machine vs. Cultural Mediator
- Warm Body Syndrome – any interpreter is better than having no interpreter
- Mainstreaming of deaf children

➢ ***Excerpt -- Journaling Exercise from Chapter 4***

Consider a time when you were a consumer of the services of a professional (e.g., attorney, doctor, counselor). How has the exploration of Codes of Ethical Conduct impacted your perception of yourself as a consumer of professional services? What core values, associated with the various codes, stand out for you and feel essential to your comfort as a consumer of professional services? Why? How does the concept of DO NO HARM impact your own experience as a consumer of professional services? Use the space below to journal about your observations.

- ***Excerpt -- Case Study for Discussion from Chapter 5***

  Mike is a new interpreter and has taken a job as an interpreter in a job-training program where a couple of young deaf adults are learning specific data-entry computer skills in hopes of gaining a job. He is having difficulty keeping up with what the teacher is conveying—mostly because of his lack of experience and lack of familiarity with the subject matter being addressed. The result is that there are gaps in the information he is conveying—sometimes they are significant. He notices the two deaf guys are struggling to complete the instructions based on his limited interpretation of what is going on. As well, the deaf guys are alternating between watching him and interacting with the computer screen. It has been about three weeks and it is not getting any better. Mike is frustrated—but doesn't want to lose this week. Besides, the deaf guys are not complaining, and Mike hopes his skills will improve with more time and familiarity with the content. He is trying his best. Is this enough?

Related Case Study Discussion Questions:

1. What is the source and type of conflict associated with this Case Study?
2. Which of Kidder's four values paradigms applies to the Case Study?
3. Discuss your rationale for selecting the values paradigm you assigned to the Case Study.
4. Which of the Code of Ethics tenets is jeopardized by the dilemma(s) discussed in the Case Study?
5. Consider the issue from a variety of perspectives. What possible perspectives have you identified?
6. What are the possible solutions to the dilemma(s) associated with the Case Study? How do the solutions and actions you have identified demonstrate a commitment to professional standards while demonstrating respect for conflicting values?
7. Where would you place your solution in the solution paradigms from the work of Covey? If it is not a win-win, discuss why. Is it a lack of consideration

that can be extended or a lack of courage? Is there some other obstacle that prevents it from being win-win?

8. Discuss your observations and recommended decision/actions with your online section peers or your in-class discussion group. How does your thinking compare or contrast with that of your peers? What new learning did you achieve from the collaborated discussion? How might your own thinking be changed as a result of the collaborated discussion?

Closing

The world has become a more complex place in the 21st century, as has the field of interpretation. Interpreters face countless moral and ethical challenges due to the increased use of technology, differing attitudes toward deafness and deaf education, increased attention to empowerment, oppression, cultural influences, and increased complexities surrounding laws, privacy, licensure, conflicts of interest, etc. Having a workforce that is well prepared to make informed and appropriate ethical decisions is paramount; not only to interpreters but, more importantly, to the consumers we serve.

Ethical fitness, as we have discussed both in this paper and in the workbook, is a life-long process. A separate course in Ethics provides the concentrated focus and structured time for learners to engage in collective discourse while exploring the complexities of ethical decision-making. Intentionally infusing IPP or ISTP coursework with regular and ongoing exploration of moral and ethical dilemmas will ensure that entering and working practitioners are better equipped to make reliable and informed decisions. At the minimum, adjustments and additions to current curriculum within IPPs and ISTPs to include critical thinking and reflection skills, and their application to real world ethics, would help improve the levels of professionalism and decision-making skills of current and future interpreters.

As you use the workbook, *"Dimensions of Ethical Decision-Making: A Guided Exploration for Interpreters"*, the authors welcome your feedback and observations about its value as an instructional resource. Please provide your observations and feedback to either or both authors.

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Anna Witter-Merithew has been a practicing interpreter since 1972 and began teaching in an interpreter preparation program in 1975 when she joined the faculty at NTID. She is currently the Assistant Director for the Distance Opportunities for Interpreter Training Center, in Denver, Colorado, where she is responsible for the development, implementation and supervision of a range of in-service training programs for working interpreters and interpreter educators. In addition to co-authoring the Dimensions in Ethical Decision-Making: A Guided Exploration for Sign Language Interpreters workbook with Kellie Stewart, Anna's current work involves the development of an online course in ethical decision-making and a course in documenting prior learning experience intended for working interpreters who want to secure academic recognition of their knowledge and skills. As well, she is working on a national project related to defining the essential competencies required for successful entry into the practice of interpreting.

Kellie L. Stewart has been a practicing interpreter for over 23 years and an interpreter educator for 16 years. She is currently employed as the Associate Director and Coordinator of Services for Deaf and Hard of Hearing Students at the Student Disability Resources at Harvard University. Ms. Stewart began teaching a separate course on Ethics to prospective interpreters at Northeastern University in 1988 and has continued to teach this course over the years, co-teaching with colleague Bonnie Kraft in years past. In 1994, she and Bonnie began offering professional development workshops on Ethical Decision-Making. Along with teaching in a traditional classroom, Kellie teaches courses at a distance through both the DO-IT Center in Denver, Colorado and Northeastern University in Boston, Massachusetts. In addition to co-authoring the *Dimensions in Ethical Decision-Making: A Guided Exploration for Sign Language Interpreters* workbook with Anna Witter-Merithew, she plans for the first time to teach a course in Ethics on-line through the DO-IT Center early in 2005.

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